Effective Instruction for Middle School Students with Reading Difficulties: The Reading Teacher's Sourcebook

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Foreword: A Schoolwide Approach to Reading Intervention

Adapted with permission from Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin. (2005). Introduction to the 3-Tier Reading Model: Reducing reading difficulties for kindergarten through third grade students *(4th ed.). Austin, TX: Author.*

Educators who work with middle school students are all too aware that not all children learn to read by the time they leave elementary school. Many students in grades 6, 7, and 8 have reading difficulties. The purpose of *The Reading Teacher's Sourcebook* is to provide middle school reading teachers with an overview of research-based instructional approaches for teaching struggling readers. We recognize that writing is an essential component of literacy instruction; however, in this sourcebook we focus primarily on reading.

Our goal for this sourcebook is that instruction provided by the reading teacher can be integrated into a coordinated, comprehensive, schoolwide approach. The goal of this schoolwide effort is to ensure that all students can read and learn from academic text, including content area textbooks and literature, and that they will be motivated to engage in reading for many different purposes.

To address this goal, the schoolwide approach is designed to meet the needs of all students by providing them with instruction specifically designed to help them comprehend the complex vocabulary and content of academic text and to increase their motivation to read. These elements are essential if students are to be successful at learning from text.

The components of the approach are:

- A solid foundation of high standards, strong leadership, instructional excellence, and a safe and positive school environment.
- Common instructional routines and strategies implemented across content areas to engage content teachers (i.e., math, social studies, science, English language arts) in teaching students content area vocabulary and practices for comprehending content area academic text.
- Strategic instruction provided in reading classes or intervention settings.
- Intensive intervention for students with more serious reading difficulties.

These components are described in detail in the following sections. Figure 1 presents an overview of essential elements of each component.

Figure 1. 3-Tier Diagram.

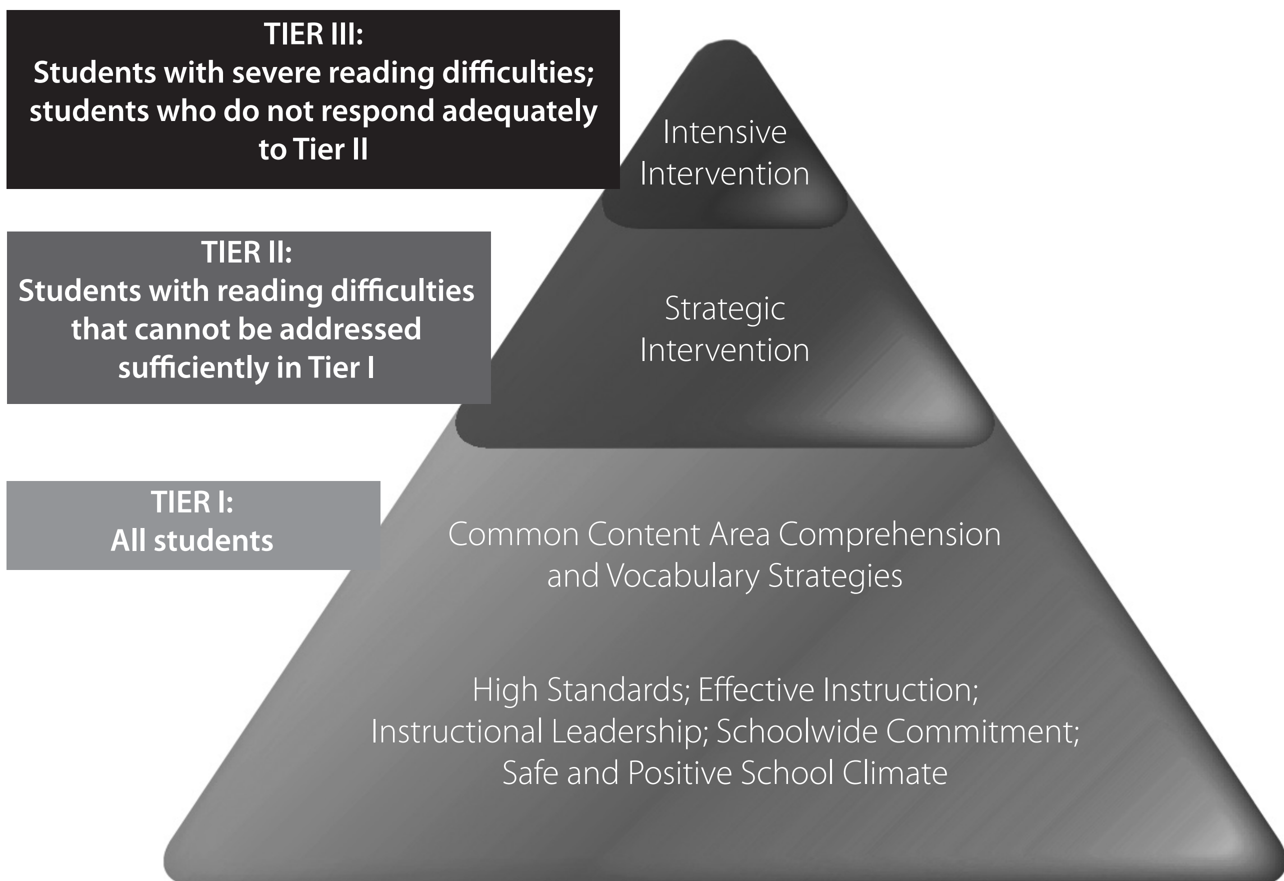

Figure 2. A Schoolwide Reading Intervention Approach for Middle School.

	TIER I	TIER II	TIER III
	Strong Schoolwide Foundation & Content Area Strategies and Routines	Strategic Intervention	Intensive Intervention
Definition	Instructional routines and activities implemented by content area teachers in the general education setting to support vocabulary and reading development for all students; implemented within a safe and positive school environment in which there is a schoolwide commitment to excellence	Reading classes or small-group instruction specifically designed to accelerate the reading growth of students with marked reading difficulties	Specifically designed and customized reading instruction delivered in small groups or individually to students with serious and persistent reading difficulties
Students	All students in content area classes	Students with marked reading difficulties	Students with severe and persistent reading difficulties; students who do not make sufficient progress in strategic intervention
Focus	Academic vocabulary and comprehension of academic text; collaboration among content area and reading teachers within a safe and positive schoolwide environment	Multisyllable word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, reading comprehension	Phonemic awareness, word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension; individualized to address specific needs of the students
Program	None	Specialized, scientific research-based reading program(s) emphasizing word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension	Specialized, systematic, scientific research-based reading program(s) emphasizing the specific areas of needs of individual students

(figure continued on the next page)

	TIER I	TIER II	TIER III
	Strong Schoolwide Foundation & Content Area Strategies and Routines	Strategic Intervention	Intensive Intervention
Instruction	Implementation of a consistent set of instructional routines and activities that have evidence of effectiveness from scientific research	Carefully designed and implemented explicit, systematic instruction	Carefully designed and implemented explicit, systematic instruction
Teachers	Science, social studies, math, reading, and English language arts teachers	Intervention provided by personnel determined by the school; usually a reading teacher or other interventionist	Intensive intervention provided by personnel determined by the school; usually a reading teacher or other interventionist
Setting	Science, social studies, math, reading, and English language arts classrooms	Appropriate setting designated by the school; usually the reading class or supplemental tutoring	Appropriate setting designated by the school
Grouping	Regular content area class groupings	Homogeneous instruction provided within class sizes of 10 to 16 students	Homogeneous small-group instruction (no more than 1:4)
Time	In all content area classes throughout the school day	30-50 minutes per day for 1-2 semesters	50-60 minutes every day for one or more school years
Assessment	Schoolwide benchmark assessments at the beginning, middle, and end of the school year	Progress monitoring twice a month on target skills to ensure adequate progress and learning; diagnostic assessment to determine the focus and pacing of instruction	Progress monitoring twice a month on target skills to ensure adequate progress and learning with instructional changes made when students do not demonstrate adequate growth; diagnostic assessment to determine the focus and pacing of instruction

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TIER I: SCHOOLWIDE STRATEGIES AND ROUTINES

Tier I, the first component of the schoolwide approach, is implemented schoolwide and affects all students in the school. It consists of:

- Assuring that there is a safe and positive schoolwide environment in which all student receive quality instruction based on high academic standards.
- A schoolwide commitment to support the reading development of all students, supported by strong instructional leadership.
- A set of research-validated instructional routines and activities implemented consistently across all content area classes.
- Benchmark testing of all students three times per year to identify students who need supplemental reading instruction.
- Quality, sustained professional development related to the development of reading skills and strategies in adolescents, with time and opportunities for teachers to collaborate within and across subject areas.

Most schools in which students are successful in spite of serious challenges, such as poverty and language differences, have some common characteristics. Educators in these schools have high standards for all their students, based on grade-level expectations, and teachers are committed to providing effective instruction in all classes. Most successful schools have strong instructional leadership, either from the principal or other persons such as team leaders or professional development coordinators. These leaders understand the components of effective instruction for students who perform above average levels, those performing according to grade-level expectations, and those who struggle. Administrators prioritize academic achievement in budgeting and scheduling, and they support teachers who work with challenging students. Educators in effective schools have a firm commitment to the reading success of all their students, and they work together to develop solutions to problems and overcome obstacles. There is a sense of urgency in their approach to reading intervention for students who are still behind when they reach middle school. Finally, effective schools have a safe and positive environment. If students, teachers, and others in the school do not feel that the school is a safe and supportive place that is conducive to learning, the first step in the schoolwide intervention process is to implement schoolwide positive behavior supports or some other consistent and effective strategy.

The second part of Tier I is the implementation of effective instructional routines and practices within content area classes to teach students strategies for reading, understanding, and learning from content area text. Implementing these routines should both increase active student involvement and support the learning of all students in the class.

Tier I is not designed to turn content area teachers into reading teachers, but to teach students how to read and comprehend content area text. Consider that math text, which is dense with sample problems and concepts, is different from the more narrative format of social studies text. Social studies and science texts often include diagrams and other graphic sources of information that are essential to understanding the content. Finally, literature texts used in English classes include both complex narratives and expository pieces.

In addition, each content area has its own specialized vocabulary. Teachers who are knowledgeable in a particular subject area are best able to teach students how to learn from content area text. The Tier I instructional routines are specifically designed to give content area teachers the tools for this instruction.

Tier I of the schoolwide model has three basic goals. Essentially, it is designed to support the development of vocabulary and reading comprehension in all students. Many students, even those achieving at average levels, are unable to understand and use the specialized vocabulary and comprehend the complex text structures found in academic texts in the various content areas. In turn, Williamson (2006) found that texts students are typically asked to read in postsecondary settings including community colleges, universities, the workplace, and the military are significantly more demanding than high school textbooks.

The second goal is to encourage students with reading difficulties to apply the vocabulary and comprehension strategies emphasized in supplemental intervention lessons throughout the school day and in different kinds of text. Typically, struggling adolescent readers develop habits in the ways they approach reading and writing tasks. These habits are often counterproductive, and they often have been practiced over a period of years. For example, these students may skip difficult words or even entire sections of challenging text. Some students attempt to complete assignments such as answering questions about text by searching the text for specific words they find in the questions and copying from the text in the hope that this will result in correct answers. Other students are disruptive or disrespectful when asked to complete reading or writing tasks that are too difficult for them. Even though these students may learn key reading skills and productive reading strategies in reading intervention classes, they do not tend to automatically apply these strategies whenever they read and write. It is far easier to fall into old habits. When all content area teachers include a small but consistent set of the same reading routines and practices in their instruction, struggling readers are encouraged to apply important reading skills and strategies each time they encounter text in school. Students have multiple opportunities to practice and apply skills and strategies in different kinds of text and are more likely to replace old, inefficient habits with newer, more productive habits.

A final goal is to provide content area and reading teachers with the tools and support they need to teach students who can be difficult to teach. The schoolwide approach is based on a commitment to improving literacy for all students. Collaboration among teachers is a key element of the approach, and it has a large impact on the success of schoolwide intervention in any school.

The Assessing Struggling Readers section of *The Reading Teacher's Sourcebook* describes benchmark testing. In addition, several of the vocabulary and comprehension activities described in this manual are appropriate for content area instruction, and a set of modules developed as part of the Texas Adolescent Literacy Project can be used to provide professional development to content area and reading teachers in a small set of key instructional routines designed to support the comprehension of academic text.

TIER II: STRATEGIC INTERVENTION

Tier II, **strategic intervention**, is specifically designed to provide supplemental reading classes or tutoring to students who need intensive, focused instruction in reading. Strategic intervention is intended to be relatively short-term (usually lasting for one or two semesters) and to focus primarily on instruction in comprehension and vocabulary strategies, with instruction in multisyllable word reading and/or reading fluency provided when needed. The goal of strategic intervention is to provide explicit instruction and practice in a set of strategies that will enable striving readers to be successful in their content area classes. *The Reading Teacher's Sourcebook* provides information about assessing and instructing striving readers, along with sample lesson plans to guide teachers who provide strategic intervention.

Elements of Strategic Intervention

In order to implement strategic intervention, educators:

- Use the results of benchmark assessments administered three times per year to identify students who need supplemental intervention.
- Provide regular explicit, systematic instruction to homogeneous groups of students within reading classes or supplemental tutoring sessions.
- Use materials and instructional approaches validated by scientific reading research.
- Focus on teaching vocabulary, reading comprehension, reading fluency, and multisyllable word identification, depending on student needs.
- Monitor student progress two times per month and use the results to make instructional decisions.
- Provide quality, sustained professional development related to scientific research-supported instruction for struggling readers, with time and opportunities for reading teachers to collaborate to support the progress of all students.

TIER III: INTENSIVE INTERVENTION

The purpose of Tier III, **intensive intervention**, is to provide intervention to students with more severe reading difficulties, usually those who failed to make adequate progress after two semesters of strategic intervention. The sections of this *Reading Teacher's Sourcebook* that deal with instruction in word recognition will offer guidance to those who provide intensive intervention.

Elements of Intensive Intervention

Intensity of an intervention is increased when teachers:

- Decrease group size.
- Increase instructional time. Instructional time is increased in three ways: (1) by extending length of intervention sessions, (2) by providing intervention every day of the week, and (3) by extending the duration of the intervention to an entire school year or longer.
- Increase student time-on-task with active student involvement in relevant activities.
- Make instruction more explicit and systematic.
- Increase individualization of instruction.
- Monitor student progress every 1–2 weeks and use the results to revise instruction to meet student needs.

IMPLEMENTING THE SCHOOLWIDE READING INTERVENTION APPROACH

Schools must address key questions as they begin to implement the schoolwide reading intervention approach. Figure 3 includes some of these questions.

Figure 3. Planning Checklist for Implementing Schoolwide Reading Intervention.

REVIEW CURRENT READING PRACTICES WITHIN THE SCHOOL.
• Does the school have a unified vision and plan for ensuring that all students are able to read and learn from academic text and are motivated to read? Are administrators and teachers committed to implementing the plan? • Is there a safe and positive schoolwide environment? • Do teachers and administrators have high academic standards for their students, based on grade-level expectations? • Do teachers provide effective instruction supported by strong instructional leadership from the principal or another person or persons in the school? • Is academic achievement given priority in scheduling, budgeting, and allocation of personnel? • Have content area teachers received quality professional development related to teaching vocabulary and comprehension strategies? • Do content area teachers consistently teach and encourage students to implement a small number of research-based vocabulary and comprehension strategies? Are the same strategies used across all classes? • Are benchmark reading assessments administered three times per year to identify students who need supplemental reading classes or intervention? • Do reading teachers or tutors implement research-supported programs and teaching approaches to provide strategic intervention to students who perform somewhat below grade level and/or have problems comprehending academic text? • Do reading teachers or other intervention specialists implement research-supported, explicit, systematic reading programs to provide intensive intervention to students with severe reading difficulties? • Is the progress of students in strategic and intensive intervention monitored two times per month to determine whether they are responding adequately to intervention? • Have reading teachers or other interventionists received quality professional development emphasizing scientific research-based practices in teaching struggling readers?

(figure continued on the next page)

DEVELOP A PLAN FOR COLLECTING, MANAGING, AND USING BENCHMARK AND PROGRESS MONITORING DATA.

- Who will administer benchmark assessments?
- Who will organize the results and analyze them to determine which students need strategic or intensive intervention?
- Reading teachers or interventionists should administer progress monitoring assessments, but may need some assistance. If so, who will assist them?
- Who will compile progress monitoring data and display them as easily interpreted graphs or in other accessible formats?
- It is recommended that groups of reading teachers, other teachers, and possibly administrators meet regularly to examine the progress monitoring data so that they can identify students who are not making adequate progress and collaborate to make plans for accelerating the progress of these students. Who will organize these meetings?

DEVELOP A SCHOOLWIDE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTING CONTENT AREA STRATEGIES AND ROUTINES.

- If there is a need for professional development in a system of positive behavior supports to ensure a safe and positive schoolwide environment, who will provide this professional development, and who will ensure that the system is implemented?
- Is there a plan for providing quality professional development to content area teachers? Does this plan include ongoing support in the form of regular study group sessions and/or coaching?
- Are content area teachers committed to implementing the same set of research-based strategies and routines across classes in order to assure that students learn key vocabulary and are able to read and understand academic text in each discipline?
- Are content area and reading teachers given adequate time to plan and collaborate to overcome obstacles to integrating these strategies and routines into their instruction?
- Is a system established for problem-solving and decision-making related to this component of schoolwide intervention?

DEVELOP A SCHOOLWIDE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTING STRATEGIC INTERVENTION.

- Who will provide strategic intervention?
- Will strategic intervention take place in reading classes or in tutoring sessions?
- When will strategic intervention be provided?

(figure continued on the next page)

DEVELOP A SCHOOLWIDE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTING STRATEGIC INTERVENTION (cont.)

- Where will strategic intervention be implemented?
- Is a system in place for monitoring the progress of strategic intervention students two times per month and using the results to guide instructional decisions?
- Are criteria established for entry and exit from strategic intervention?
- How will assessment data be used to group and regroup students, to plan targeted instruction, and to make adaptations to ensure students meet grade-level benchmarks/objectives?
- Is a system established for problem-solving and decision-making related to strategic intervention?
- Is time provided for collaboration among reading intervention teachers?
- Is professional development on the progress monitoring instrument, the use of assessment data to inform instruction, and scientific research-based reading instruction planned for intervention teachers?

DEVELOP A SCHOOLWIDE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTING INTENSIVE INTERVENTION.

- Who will provide intensive intervention (e.g. specialized reading teacher or special education teacher)?
- When and how often will intensive intervention be provided?
- Where will intensive intervention be implemented?
- What scientific research-based, explicit, systematic program will be used to provide intensive intervention?
- Is the relationship of intensive intervention with dyslexia, Section 504, and special education services determined?
- Is a system in place for monitoring the progress of intensive intervention students two times per month and using the results to guide instructional decisions?
- Are criteria established for entry and exit from intensive intervention?
- How will assessment data be used to group and regroup students, to plan targeted instruction, and to make adaptations to ensure students meet grade-level benchmarks/objectives?
- Is a system established for problem-solving and decision-making related to intensive intervention?
- Is time provided for collaboration among reading intervention teachers?
- Is professional development on the progress monitoring instrument, the use of assessment data to inform instruction, and scientific research-based reading instruction planned for intervention teachers?

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Introduction

We hope that this guide provides you with some much needed and welcome insight into improving reading outcomes for adolescents with reading problems. As you know, reading problems are not eliminated when students move from elementary to secondary settings.

The fact of the matter is that the current state of reading performance for older students is grim. In 2003, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) was administered to approximately 343,000 students in grades 4 and 8 across the nation. It is especially concerning that, according to the NAEP data, there was no significant change in progress for students between 1992 and 2003, and grade 8 scores in 2003 actually decreased (U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

Fortunately, we have federal legislation in place designed to reduce the number of students falling behind in reading (NCLB, 2002); however, many students in the upper grades still require reading remediation. Ultimately, reading becomes an unpleasant obligation for these students as they struggle to keep up in school and society in general.

Over the past decade, students have become responsible for learning more complex content at a rapid pace to cover the material assessed on statewide outcome assessments (Woodruff, Schumaker, & Deshler, 2002). Despite any reading difficulties a secondary student might have, our educational system has expectations that these students will be able to decode fluently and comprehend material with challenging content (McCray et al., 2001). Although research shows that students who fall behind rarely catch up without intensive intervention (see, for example, Juel, 1994), there is some research with older students that does indeed show that students can make significant gains with the proper instruction (Archer, Gleason, & Vachon, 2003).

It is essential that districts, schools, classrooms, and teachers are educated about reading instruction and ways to help older struggling readers. In a climate overwhelmed with the idea of leaving no *child*

behind, an equally valuable goal is that no *teacher* is left behind. This requires high-quality and ongoing professional development to improve the knowledge and practice of teachers. To assure success for students, teachers need guidance about best practices.

Teachers should be well informed about how to interpret assessment data and to design instruction according to student needs. Having a system in place to assess students in order to identify struggling readers and guide decision-making regarding instructional needs, grouping, and scheduling can help older struggling readers achieve success. Therefore, this guide will focus on the assessment of struggling middle school readers, determining instructional needs and setting short- and long-term goals based on assessment results, and designing instruction to address student needs. We include many sample lesson plans for research-supported instructional activities that have a track record of success with struggling readers.

The assessments and lessons in this guide reflect what we know about the critical elements of reading for students with reading difficulties. Knowing best practices for teaching and integrating critical reading elements allows teachers to design appropriate instruction.

As a reminder, no one program will be an easy fit for all, and providing the appropriate instruction for struggling adolescent readers is no small task. It is our hope that this guide will serve as just that — a *guide* to inform educators about best practices for adolescents with reading difficulties so that educators can better serve this special group of students.

Part 1 | Assessing Struggling Readers at the Secondary Level

In this section we will provide an overview of the process of assessment for secondary struggling readers. We introduce a teacher, Miss Lopez, to illustrate the process.

Miss Lopez is a reading teacher in a middle school. Last year she had a very challenging class in which all 20 students were reading below grade level and seemed to have different needs. Because she did not have a specific reading curriculum, she was expected to develop her own lessons or modify whatever materials she could find. As a result, she did not feel that she was able to adequately meet the needs of her students.

In addition to the self-imposed pressure she felt to help her students, Miss Lopez was faced with the increasing demands of the state assessments. She wants to avoid this situation this year by learning how she can provide more effective instruction, but she is still unsure about how to get started.

TERMS TO KNOW

Alphabetic principle	Understanding that the sequence of letters in a written word represents phonemes in a spoken word and can be recombined to form other words
Anecdotal records	Quick notes taken by teachers during or immediately after instructional time to record students' responses to instruction, particularly evidence of students' strengths and needs to guide future instructional planning

Cloze test	An assessment of reading comprehension in which students read a passage with words systematically deleted. Students must supply the deleted words.
Comprehension	The ability to understand what is read—the ultimate goal of reading
Diagnostic assessments	Assessments designed to refine a teacher's understanding of student strengths and weaknesses to inform instructional decisions
Fluency	The ability to read with speed, accuracy, appropriate phrasing, and expression
Frustration reading level	Text that is too difficult for students; when students repeatedly read text at this level, they may develop counterproductive habits
Independent reading level	Text that the student can read on his or her own, without support (also called the "homework level")
Informal Reading Inventory	An assessment consisting of text passages at increasing levels of difficulty, used to determine students' independent, instructional, and frustration reading levels and to measure comprehension (and sometimes fluency) in increasingly difficult text. Students read passages at different reading levels and answer questions while teachers take notes regarding the students' reading behaviors.
Instructional reading level	Text that students can read with assistance, or instruction; this level is best for teaching students how to become better readers
Intervention	Intensive instruction designed to help remediate a student's difficulties; usually provided in addition to the student's regular instruction
Letter-sound correspondence	The relationship between letters or letter combinations and the sounds they represent
Maze test	An assessment of reading comprehension in which students read a passage with words systematically deleted. For each deleted word, students select the appropriate word from three possible words so that the passage makes sense; a multiple-choice cloze test.
Phoneme	The smallest unit of sound in a language. English has about 40 phonemes, which are represented by about 250 letters or letter combinations. For example, the long *a* sound (a phoneme) can be represented by the letter *a* with a silent *e* (lake), *ai* (rain), *ay* (day), *a* (paper), *eigh* (eight), *ey* (they), *ea* (steak), *ei* (vein), and *aigh* (straight).
Phonemic awareness	One kind of phonological awareness; the ability to hear and manipulate sounds within words, usually demonstrated by segmenting words into their individual sounds and blending sounds to form words; an auditory skill, but should be linked with instruction in letters or letter sounds (phonics)

Phonological awareness	Awareness of components of spoken language, demonstrated through auditory skills, including the ability to identify words in spoken sentences, to segment words into onset-rime units and syllables, and the ability to manipulate discrete sounds in words
Progress monitoring measures	Brief assessments of growth toward a particular academic goal, given frequently and used to guide instructional decision-making
Screening measures	Brief assessments that focus on the critical skills of reading for the purpose of identifying students who may need additional support
Sight word	A word that is recognized immediately as a whole, without applying word analysis or decoding strategies
Word recognition	The accurate reading of words

Harris & Hodges (1995); Moats (2000)

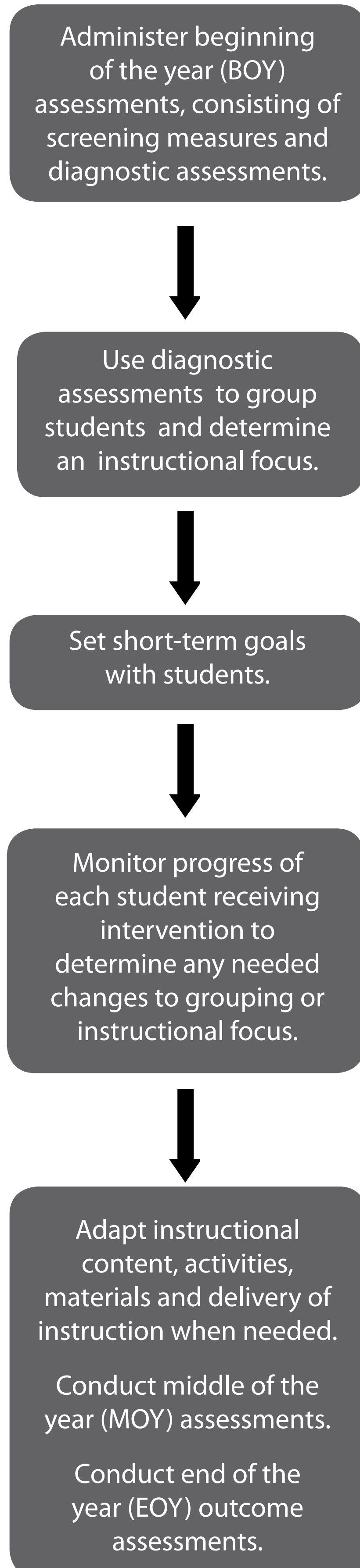
Chapter 1
Overview of Assessment at the Secondary Level

Remember Miss Lopez? She wants to provide more effective instruction to struggling readers in her middle school classes. The first priority to improve instruction for struggling readers is to conduct reading assessments. Conducting assessments allows teachers to:

- Identify students who need additional support or intervention.
- Determine an instructional focus for each student.
- Determine how to group students appropriately for instruction.
- Plan instruction according to student strengths and needs on an ongoing basis.
- Monitor student progress toward goals.
- Evaluate the outcomes of instruction.

Teachers can use the diagram in Figure 4 to guide the assessment process for secondary students. The elements of this diagram are explained in the first section of this chapter.

Figure 4. Guide to Reading Assessment for Secondary Students.



In the early elementary grades, **screening measures**, brief assessments that focus on the critical skills of reading, are usually administered at the beginning of the school year to all students to determine which students may require **interventions**. Often, screening assessments provide the first opportunity for teachers in the primary grades to identify potential struggling readers. When teachers determine through screening measures that a student needs intervention, they may decide to conduct more in-depth assessments so that they can analyze a student's strengths and needs to guide instructional decisions. These more detailed assessments are called **diagnostic assessments**.

Since students in middle and high school have already been through the elementary grades, they may begin the school year already identified by the school district as struggling readers. Many reading teachers in the upper grades already know that their students are struggling readers when the students are assigned to their classes. Typically, middle school struggling readers are identified when they fail to demonstrate adequate reading comprehension proficiency on high-stakes tests or standardized achievement tests. When struggling readers are identified at the end of the school year, schools can make decisions about scheduling accordingly. Schools also screen any new students who come into the school district after school has started. Although secondary teachers might not need to administer screening measures to decide who needs reading support, it is still important for them to conduct diagnostic assessments in order to determine what support students need. Diagnostic assessments can provide teachers valuable information about how to group students and guide instruction.

Progress monitoring measures can be given a minimum of three times a year or as often as once a week using multiple test forms. Use a progress monitoring tracking form and have students chart their own progress toward their goals. Seeing the information will help to determine what goals have been met and to set new goals, if appropriate. Teachers can use the progress monitoring data to determine whether students are making adequate growth and whether instruction needs to be changed.

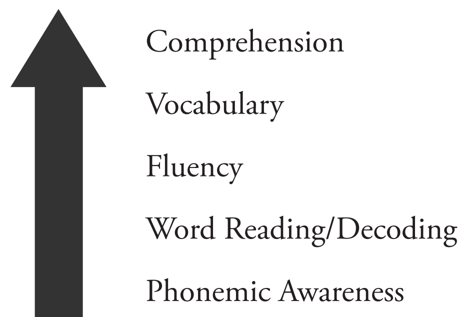
Between semesters and at the end of the year, determine whether students will need to continue with intervention or change their instructional focus by giving an outcome assessment, such as year-end standardized tests. These measures provide information about whether students met annual benchmarks and mastered objectives at their grade levels. They should reflect the instruction given during the semester/year. Often, year-end outcome assessments are accountability assessments required by states in order to comply with the No Child Left Behind Act.

THE SEQUENCE OF ASSESSMENT

In the primary grades, teachers typically use assessments that will measure a student's knowledge and skills in **phonological awareness**, the **alphabetic principle**, **letter-sound correspondence**, and word reading. Educators tend to assess young students in a sequence that starts with beginning skills such as letter recognition, sound recognition, and word reading and then progresses along a continuum to more complex skills such as fluency and comprehension (see Figure 5). For example, in kindergarten and first grade, teachers may assess letter-naming ability and phonemic awareness. Being able to rapidly name letters is highly correlated with future reading success (Wagner et al., 1997). **Phonemic awareness**, including the ability to orally segment a word into individual **phonemes** (i.e., saying the sounds in the word *cat* one at a time: /c/ /a/ /t/), is also important for reading progress (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000). As students begin to read connected text, primary-grade teachers begin to assess oral reading fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. It is important to realize, however, that even though more complex reading behaviors such as comprehension come later in the reading continuum,

instruction in these areas is not delayed until students are proficient readers. For example, listening comprehension strategies can be taught very early as precursors to later reading comprehension strategies.

Figure 5. Elementary Sequence of Assessment.



In the upper grades, students are expected to read fluently and accurately so that they can comprehend text. Despite any reading difficulties a secondary student might have, our educational system has expectations that these students will be able to decode fluently and comprehend material with challenging content (McCray et al., 2001). Older students who struggle with reading tend to dislike reading and to read infrequently (Moats, 2001). As a result of reading less, they experience further regression in reading as well as in vocabulary and background knowledge (Stanovich, 1986). Many difficulties for readers who fall behind their peers start as early as the first or second grade. By middle school this gap often widens, and students who should be reading at least 10,000,000 words during the school year may be reading as few as 100,000 words (Lyon, 1997).

Older students may still be struggling with some of the more basic reading elements of decoding and fluency. An older student may "disguise" his or her word-reading difficulties through well-developed sight-word knowledge, but don't let this fool you! Without well-developed decoding skills, a student will only fall further behind as text becomes more complex.

We do, however, tend to give secondary students the benefit of the doubt, and instead of assessing their skills "from the bottom up," as we do in the early grades, we tend to assess them beginning with the most complex skills (see Figure 6). We assess secondary students' oral reading fluency and comprehension to determine whether further assessments are necessary in the area of **word recognition**. As stated in the beginning of this chapter, students in need of reading intervention may first be identified because of their failure to demonstrate competence on state accountability tests or other schoolwide assessments of reading comprehension.

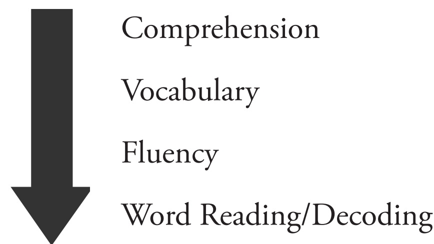
Intervention teachers can assume that most secondary struggling readers have needs in the area of reading comprehension. The question is: Why are students struggling with comprehension? They may lack one or more of the following:

- Effective strategies to help them understand, organize, and remember information.
- Adequate knowledge of word meaning.
- The ability to read fluently enough to understand and remember what they are reading.
- The ability to accurately decode the words.
- Interest or motivation to read.

Each of the above can affect comprehension. For example, students who read very slowly often have difficulty remembering and integrating information from text, and they usually read less than more skilled readers, resulting in limited vocabulary. So if a student has limited comprehension, we assess reading fluency.

If the student has low fluency, teachers benefit when they probe further to understand issues that may influence the student's fluency development. Is the student in the habit of reading slowly or inaccurately and not monitoring whether the words make sense, or does the student lack fluency because he or she has problems identifying, or decoding, the words in the text? Some students have problems directly related to slow processing of language in general. These students not only read slowly, but also they may have problems retrieving words that they want to say. These students even name objects, letters, and words that they know more slowly than most people. To help answer questions about why a student may read slowly or inaccurately, we may give an assessment of word reading. This may be an assessment of quick recognition of **sight words**, words that are recognized automatically on sight, or it may be an assessment of the student's ability to use phonics to decode unknown words of differing complexity. Both of these domains are assessed if there is an indication that a student has significant problems with decoding.

Figure 6. Secondary Sequence of Assessment.



Chapter 2
Selecting and Administering Assessments

ASSESSING READING COMPREHENSION

It is difficult to assess reading **comprehension** and vocabulary accurately using brief measures. Researchers are still working to determine effective and efficient practices for assessing vocabulary and comprehension that are useful for teachers to diagnose specific student difficulties and monitor students' progress. High-stakes criterion-referenced tests and standardized achievement tests provide indications that certain students struggle to comprehend text, as do general teacher observations and low grades in reading or language arts classes. Some schools administer alternate forms of the year-end high-stakes test at regular intervals throughout the year. This can provide insight into students' levels of progress on the kinds of items included on these tests, but may not be sufficient to inform a teacher about specific aspects of vocabulary or comprehension on which students need instruction.

If a teacher is using a systematic reading program or a supplemental program for struggling readers that includes assessments linked directly to the objectives being taught, the teacher can track outcomes of these assessments by using a form that indicates whether students have mastered each objective. For example, if the program includes instruction in and a related assessment of identifying cause and effect relationships in text, a teacher may use the results of the assessment to determine whether students need further instruction and practice in that skill.

Another tool that can be used to monitor students' progress in comprehension is close, ongoing observation of the student's successful or unsuccessful responses to instruction in the reading/language arts classroom. For example, students may be taught to apply comprehension strategies such as prediction and summarization, and teachers can observe the ease or difficulty with which students apply these strategies successfully. (See Chapter 6: Comprehension for examples of instructional approaches that can be used to teach these strategies.) Students who struggle to master comprehension objectives probably need more—or different kinds of—instruction in those aspects of comprehension.

Similarly, students who use a limited vocabulary in writing and speaking and who have difficulty understanding or remembering words in reading and listening probably require instruction designed to help them learn and remember words. (See Chapter 7: Vocabulary for examples of vocabulary instructional activities.) Whether students learn and master specific vocabulary words can be assessed with tests of those words' meaning, but it is important to assure that these tests are cumulative, including words taught in the past along with those recently taught. It is not productive for students to memorize a list of words for a test and then promptly forget them. If quality vocabulary instruction is part of the reading curriculum, students actively use the words they learn and remember them over time.

It may be useful for teachers to take notes about their observations of students' responses to vocabulary and comprehension instruction during regular reading classes using **anecdotal records**, since it can be difficult to remember details about student responses from day to day (or even from minute to minute) when teaching many sections of reading or language arts throughout the day.

ASSESSING READING FLUENCY

Fluency is the ability to read with speed, accuracy, appropriate phrasing, and expression. Reading fluency is usually measured as a combination of the rate and level of accuracy at which a student reads.

Silent Reading Fluency

Secondary-level students typically spend most of their engaged reading time reading silently, but silent reading fluency can be difficult to assess since a teacher cannot directly observe whether the student actually reads all of the text passage or the number of errors the student makes while reading.

Group-administered standardized tests of silent reading fluency that can be used for screening and monitoring students' progress over time include the Test of Silent Word Reading Fluency (TOSWRF; Mather, Hammill, Allen, & Roberts, 2004) and the Test of Silent Contextual Reading Fluency (TOSCRF; Hammill, Wiederholt, & Allen, 2006). In both assessments, students are given printed words with no spaces between them, and the task is to put slashes between the words to separate them, with the score being the number of words correctly identified in 3 minutes. The TOSWRF, which consists of isolated words of increasing difficulty with no spaces between them (i.e., letlifttripplantlettergrandly), has two equivalent test forms so that it can be given at the beginning and end of a period of time to measure student growth. The TOSCRF has four equivalent forms so that it can be given at intervals over a school year, and it consists of actual text presented with no punctuation or spaces between words (i.e., thatnightthemoonwasshiningtheyoungmanranintotheemptystreet).

Another kind of assessment sometimes used to measure silent reading fluency with comprehension is a **maze test**. In a maze assessment, students read text in which words have been removed at regular intervals (e.g., every seventh word) and replaced with blanks. For each blank, the student is given a choice of three words and must select the correct one (i.e., a multiple-choice format). Maze assessments can be administered timed or untimed. Currently, there is only preliminary evidence that the maze is a valid and reliable way to monitor growth in some aspects of comprehension (Espin & Foegen, 1996). On the other hand, timing the administration of maze passages can be used to evaluate the rate at which a student reads silently, along with the accuracy of selection of words that make sense, although much of the research on the validity of this assessment has been done with students at the elementary rather than secondary level (Shin, Deno, & Espin, 2000; Wiley & Deno, 2005). Computerized maze assessments have been developed and may be practical for use in middle schools to monitor student progress in fluency. See the Resources section for an example.

Oral Reading Fluency

More often, teachers assess students' oral reading fluency (ORF) by listening to students read brief passages aloud for one to two minutes and recording the number of words read and errors made. By subtracting

the number of error words from the total number of words read, the teacher can determine the number of words correct per minute (WCPM). This kind of brief assessment can be used for:

- Screening students to identify struggling readers.
- Determining students' **instructional reading level** in order to match students with text of appropriate difficulty.
- Monitoring student growth over time in fluency and word recognition.

You may be wondering how using a 1- or 2-minute measure of oral reading fluency can be so beneficial. It has been found that scores on brief measures of oral reading fluency are highly predictive of scores on standardized tests of reading comprehension such as the Stanford Achievement Test, particularly in the elementary grades (see Fuchs, Fuchs, & Jenkins, 2001). This strong relationship between fluency and comprehension decreases as students are asked to read and comprehend increasingly complex text, but very low fluency at the middle school level can be a sign of serious reading problems.

On average, students in grades 6–8 are able to read grade-level material at about 120–150 WCPM, but researchers have not yet determined fluency benchmarks for struggling middle school readers. We provide broad guidelines for evaluating fluency scores below.

Figure 7 describes the procedures for administration of assessments of oral reading fluency using a digital kitchen timer. Note that these directions include locating passages for students to read. Alternatively, published sets of oral reading fluency passages are commercially available. See the Resources section for more information.

Figure 7. Procedures for the Administration of an Oral Reading Fluency Assessment.

1. **Find passages** of approximately 250 words, written on grade level. If you are assessing a student in seventh grade, the passage should be written on the seventh-grade level. (Note: Published passages for this purpose are commercially available for grades 6–8.)

2. **Prepare the passage** so that it is easily readable. Make a master copy on cardstock. The students will read from this copy, and it will not be marked. Make several copies on regular paper. You will use these regular copies to mark student errors.

3. **Sit next to the student.** Give the student the master copy and hold your copy on a clipboard. Older struggling readers can be anxious about making mistakes, so it is important that you mark errors discreetly so as not to distract the student.

4. **Ask the student to read the passage until you say, "Stop."** Remind the student to read quickly, accurately, and to pay attention to what he or she is reading.

5. **Say, "Begin" and start the timer** for one minute as soon as the student begins reading.

(figure continued on the next page)

6. **Mark errors**, including mispronunciations, substitutions, reversals, or omissions. If a student does not say a word in 3–5 seconds, say the word and mark that word as an error. DO NOT count self-corrections or insertions as errors.

7. **Mark where the student stopped reading after one minute.** If the student is in the middle of a sentence when the timer goes off, allow the student to finish reading the sentence, but do not count any words read after one minute.

8. **Determine the student's oral reading fluency score** (words correct per minute, or WCPM) by subtracting the number of error words from the total number of words read in one minute.

    Example:
    Your seventh-grade student, Alex, read 65 total words and made 6 mistakes. Subtracting his 6 error words from the 65 total words results in a score of 59 WCPM (65 total words read in a minute – 6 error words = 59 WCPM).

9. **Determine the student's reading accuracy level** by dividing the WCPM by the total number of words read.

    Alex read 59 words correctly in one minute. Dividing that number by the total words possible (or the total words read in the minute) and moving the decimal point two places to the left produces his percent accuracy score. Alex read 91 percent of the words accurately. 59 (correct words) / 65 (total words read in one minute) = .907, rounded to .91, or 91 percent accuracy.

10. **Compare student accuracy** to the benchmarks in Figure 98.

    By comparing Alex's accuracy to the benchmarks in Figure 98, you can see that grade-level material is at an instructional level for Alex. This material is actually borderline frustration level for him. Thus, he will probably need support when reading grade-level material. A logical goal would be for Alex to read grade-level material at 95 percent accuracy or higher by the end of the school year.

11. **Examine the student's fluency score.**

    Alex's reading rate is 59 WCPM with 91 percent accuracy. This suggests that Alex can accurately decode most of the words in grade-level text but that he read the selection very slowly. The answers to the following questions would help guide the instructional plan for Alex:

    - Does Alex's rate of reading vary depending upon his interest in the text? When Alex selects the text he would like to read, does he read at a faster rate?
    - Does Alex's rate of reading improve when you ask him to read more quickly?
    - Does Alex understand what he reads?

(figure continued on the next page)

Assuming that the rate of reading for Alex is low under most conditions, then establishing goals of improved rate of reading is appropriate. If Alex's rate of reading is related to his interests, then targeting motivation to learn a wider range of content may be a more appropriate goal.

If Alex has a generally low reading rate, he may need opportunities to practice fluent reading. Instructional activities for this purpose are provided in Chapter 8: Fluency.

Adapted from Rasinski, T. V. (2004). Assessing reading fluency. *Honolulu, HI: Pacific Resources for Education and Learning.*

When giving an ORF assessment, it can be useful to administer more than one passage and take the average score to get a more accurate score for each student. For example, using multiple forms, a teacher may have students read three eighth-grade ORF passages and take the average score from all three. Since students may vary in their background knowledge about certain passages, their scores could vary; taking an average will provide more accurate results.

Researchers have not determined whether having somewhat low oral reading fluency is reason for concern at the secondary level. Our best advice is to pay attention to students who score below 100 WCPM. These students may have problems decoding the words in the passage and may benefit from further assessment of word-recognition ability. Students who read very slowly may have low motivation to read and difficulty completing their work. If there are signs of either of these problems, especially in students with fluency levels below 100 WCPM, fluency instruction may be in order. Students with reading rates below 70 WCPM are likely to have more serious reading difficulties and may need instruction in fluency and word reading.

Teachers can use the same ORF assessment to determine a student's reading accuracy level. This information can help a teacher decide what level of text a student can read independently and what text a student may need more support with in order to be successful. See Figure 98 for accuracy levels commonly associated with the independent, instructional, and frustration reading levels. (Note that these levels are determined differently in various published **informal reading inventories** but that the ones we have included are in common use. These are meant to be guidelines, not "hard and fast" rules.) The **independent reading level** (also called the "homework level") is usually described as the level of difficulty of text that the student can read on his or her own, without support. Text in the **instructional reading level** is best for teaching students to be better readers. This level includes text that students can read with assistance, or instruction. Text in the **frustration reading level** is probably too difficult for the student. When students repeatedly read frustration-level text, they may develop counterproductive habits.

We can all read more difficult text if the topic is one in which we are highly interested and/or have good background knowledge. For this reason, there is likely not just one reading level that is appropriate for a student. The student's reading level will vary somewhat depending upon the text.

For example, Miss Lopez gives an eighth-grade ORF measure to Jeremy, an eighth-grade boy, and he reads it with 96 percent accuracy. Jeremy is able to read eighth-grade text at an independent level, and this level of text is appropriate for assignments that will be done with little or no teacher or parent support. Miss Lopez gives the same eighth-grade passage to Alicia, another eighth-grade student. Alicia reads the passage with only 92 percent accuracy. The eighth-grade text is on Alicia's instructional reading level, so Miss Lopez can assign eighth-grade text to Alicia if Alicia will receive support or instruction as she reads it. Miss Lopez also asks Alicia to read a seventh-grade passage. Alicia can read this passage with 97 percent accuracy, so her independent reading level is seventh-grade text. Miss Lopez also gives the eighth-grade passage to Michael,

who can read it with only 82 percent accuracy. The eighth-grade text is at Michael's frustration level, and unless Michael is highly interested in the text and is willing to struggle through it with guidance, he should not be asked to read this text. If Michael is regularly required to read eighth-grade text he may display low motivation to read or even behavior problems. Miss Lopez gives Michael the seventh-grade text and finds that it is at his instructional reading level, since he can read it at 90 percent accuracy. Michael reads a sixth-grade text with 97 percent accuracy, indicating that this is his independent reading level.

An easy way to apply this process to any text a student reads is to use the "One-to-Ten Rule": If a student misses more than 1 word for every 10 words read, the text is probably too difficult. So if a student reads 50 words and misses 5, he or she read the text with 90 percent accuracy, indicating instructional reading level. But if the student misses 7 words in the same text, the text is at frustration level for that student. A student can read 10 words and miss 1, read 20 words and miss 2, etc., and still be at the instructional level. Keep in mind, though, that these are rough guidelines. Use your good "teacher judgment" when placing students in text, but be sure to listen to them read orally from time to time to verify that they are able to read most of the words accurately.

As in assessing oral reading fluency, it is helpful to have students read more than one passage to assess their oral reading accuracy levels. The accuracy levels on different passages are then averaged. Sometimes students will struggle on a particular passage because of a name or concept with which they are not familiar, but they are able to read other text at the same level with better accuracy. If oral reading accuracy is determined at the same time as oral reading fluency, giving two to three brief one-minute passages is sufficient to find both students' accuracy and fluency on grade-level text.

Using the Results of Oral Reading Fluency Assessment

While ORF scores tell whether a student's progress or performance level is acceptable, they do not reveal the source of the problem. Therefore, Miss Lopez may need to conduct more assessments to find out about the student's reading difficulties and to plan appropriate instruction.

After assessing each reader's fluency ability, Miss Lopez examines the results and determines which students have difficulties. She then conducts further assessments of these students to devise an instructional plan for each student. Further assessments usually include measures of word recognition. Remember, if a middle school student's fluency is a little below average, this may not be reason for concern, unless this seems to keep the student from understanding what he or she reads or from finishing work. Students with ORF rates below the 50th percentile should be given additional assessments of word recognition.

ASSESSING WORD RECOGNITION

Some systematic decoding programs designed for secondary students include assessments that can be used to evaluate student mastery of the different phonic elements or skills that are being taught in these programs (e.g., the sound of the letter combination *ai*, reading vowel team syllables such as *tain* in the word *maintain*, or reading words with certain prefixes and suffixes). If such assessments are available with an instructional program, they can be used to determine what students know and do not know to guide instruction (diagnostic assessment) and to monitor student progress over time (see below). If no such assessments of word reading are available, the teacher may use a published assessment of **word recognition** or phonics knowledge to determine student needs and track progress in mastering the elements being taught (see Resources section for examples).

Note that not all difficulties with pronunciation are because of poor word recognition skills. Students with limited vocabularies, especially English language learners (ELLs), may recognize a word but not know how to pronounce it. Sometimes ELLs may have trouble pronouncing a word because they have never heard it in English, not necessarily because they do not know what the word means. They may also mispronounce English words that bear a close resemblance to a word they know in their native language (e.g., the English word *literature* and the Spanish word *literatura*). Take care interpreting assessments with these students.

MONITORING STUDENT PROGRESS OVER TIME

Throughout the year, Miss Lopez may continue to use oral reading fluency measures to monitor improvement for students with low ORF scores. This can be done by administering passages at the same level of difficulty at regular intervals during the school year. Typically, it is helpful to monitor the progress of students with reading difficulties every 2 weeks. The scores on these assessments can be plotted as a line graph, resulting in a visual representation of a student's rate of progress over time. This can be done only if the assessments conducted throughout the year are all at the same level of difficulty. If students are given more difficult passages to read over the course of the school year, their fluency rates will drop when moved to a higher level, making it impossible to compare their rate of growth during one part of the year to that in another part of the year.

Typically, we monitor students' progress all year long at the goal level, or the level of text we want them to be able to read at the end of the school year. Then we can examine their progress toward that goal. For example, let's say that Miss Lopez has a student named Teresa in the seventh grade who begins the school year able to read sixth-grade-level text at 70 WCPM. Miss Lopez may set a goal that, by the end of the school year, Teresa will be able to read seventh-grade text at 100 WCPM. Thus, Miss Lopez would administer seventh-grade passages to Teresa every two weeks throughout the school year to see how Teresa is progressing toward this goal. These are not the same passages, but different passages that are equally difficult. In order to establish the level of difficulty of oral reading fluency passages, the developers of published assessments do extensive field testing with many students (see Resources section).

Besides monitoring oral reading fluency, Miss Lopez may also want to monitor progress in the other specific reading domains that her instruction is targeting. For example, if a student's instructional focus is at the word recognition level, it will be important for Miss Lopez to monitor progress in this area. Miss Lopez may administer an assessment of word recognition or decoding at regular intervals to evaluate student progress in mastering phonics elements or rapidly identifying words.

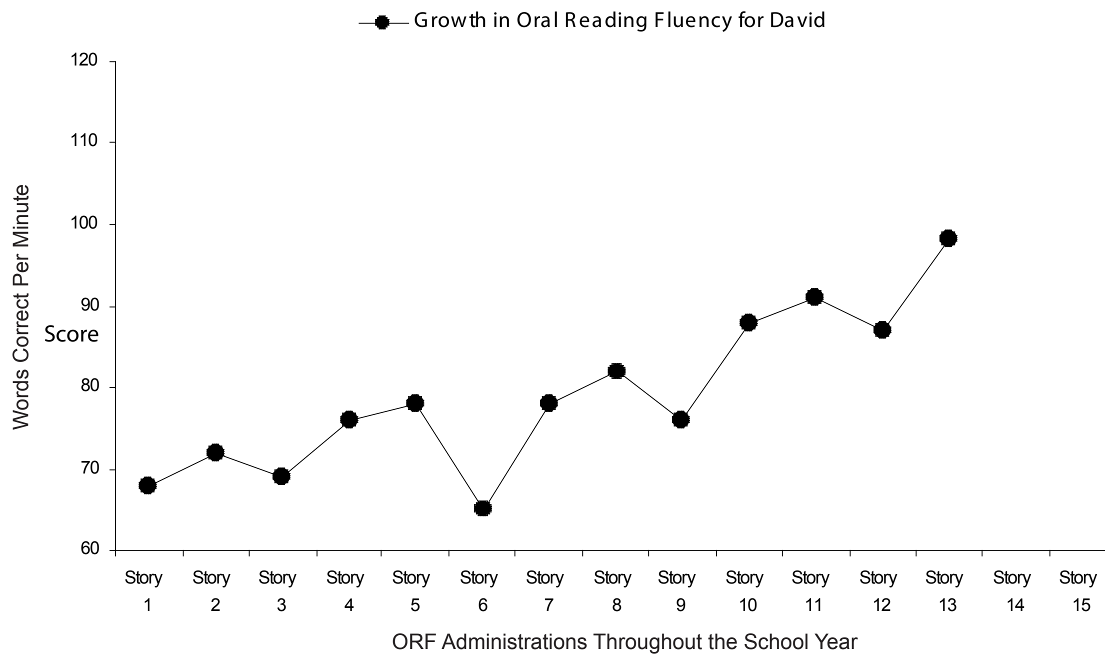
Monitoring progress is essential so that Miss Lopez knows how to adjust instruction and grouping. Typically, if in three data points a student is not making progress, the teacher adjusts instruction in some way.

Having students chart their own progress in fluency can increase motivation and participation (Bos & Vaughn, 2006). A simple format for charting progress is a progress monitoring tracking form (see Figure 8). After generating multiple scores, teachers may also have students plot their fluency scores on a line graph. Figure 9 on the next page shows an example of a progress monitoring graph.

Figure 8. Progress monitoring Tracking Form.

Student:				
	9/1	9/2	9/3	9/4
Text Level	5th-grade text	5th-grade text		
Score	80	83		
Errors	7	3		
Accuracy	91% accuracy	97% accuracy		
Reading Level	Instructional level	Independent level		

Figure 9. Progress Monitoring Graph.



CAVEATS ABOUT ORAL READING FLUENCY IN MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

Many of the guidelines about monitoring students' progress and establishing benchmarks in oral reading fluency for older students with reading difficulties are based on research with younger children in grades 1–4. Considerably less is known about fluency practices for older students. Consider the following when interpreting fluency rates with older students:

- The most important outcome for students is that they can understand and learn from the text they read. If students have below-average fluency but demonstrate average or above-average comprehension, it may not be appropriate to spend considerable time on improving their rate of reading.
- Students who read above 90–100 WCPM with 90 percent accuracy in grade-level text may benefit from time spent on enhancing their background knowledge, vocabulary, and/or comprehension rather than on fluency instruction.
- Consider the individual needs of adolescent learners, their interest in reading, and motivation to learn as you interpret oral reading fluency scores and develop interventions.

OUTCOME ASSESSMENTS

After a semester or year is completed, it is helpful to administer outcome assessments to determine whether students have attained instructional goals. Some students may be making so much progress that they will not require additional reading instruction. For students who continue in the reading class, administer diagnostic assessments. These assessments may show that some students whose word reading or fluency skills were previously identified as "still developing" may now be classified as "developed." Based on these assessments, students would be regrouped and the focus of instruction adjusted.

Chapter 3
Using Assessment Results to Plan Instruction

GROUPING STUDENTS FOR INSTRUCTION

Once Miss Lopez determines the specific areas of instruction each student needs, she groups students accordingly and focuses instruction according to the needs of each group. Students benefit when teachers use a variety of grouping formats such as working with students individually, even for a minute or two; small-group and whole-group instruction; and pairs (Vaughn et al., 2003). Pairing peers to work together can be motivating to students while freeing up the teacher to work with small groups (University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts [UTCRLA], 2003d). Smaller groups and paired peers make it possible for a student to receive more immediate feedback from a teacher or a peer and increase active student engagement.

Teachers find it challenging to adequately instruct students with a variety of needs in a whole-group setting. Often, this is not as productive as using smaller, homogeneous groups with instructional goals based on the needs of students in the group, as reflected in diagnostic and progress monitoring assessments. Although it is not possible to form perfectly homogeneous groups, the more similar the needs of the students in each group, the more efficiently Miss Lopez will be able to instruct her students. Miss Lopez also remembers that group assignments are based on a dynamic process in which changes are made according to student progress (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002). Students do not remain in the same group for every activity or for months across the school year.

Typically, secondary struggling readers can be grouped into four categories, as illustrated in Figure 10.

Figure 10. Categories of Secondary Struggling Readers.

Student needs	Focus on …
Adequate skills (good decoding ability, average vocabulary knowledge, can decode fluently) but poor text comprehension	Comprehension strategies + vocabulary
Low fluency level and poor text comprehension, but adequate word recognition	Comprehension strategies + vocabulary + fluency practice with connected text
Weak decoding ability; slow, dysfluent reading; poor text comprehension	Comprehension strategies + vocabulary + word recognition practice and fluency practice with connected text
Severely impaired decoding ability, very low fluency, poor text comprehension	Explicit, systematic instruction in decoding and word recognition + fluency + vocabulary + comprehension (At this level, each daily lesson includes instruction in word reading as well as opportunities to practice and to apply comprehension strategies reading instructional-level text.)

DETERMINING THE INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS

Next, Miss Lopez determines her instructional focus based on the results of her assessments. One way to approach this task is to organize all of a class' assessment data in a table to identify students with similar needs. Figure 11 shows sample eighth-grade data. Miss Lopez gave an ORF measure to her students and then determined who was reading below 100 WCPM. For those students, she gave additional measures to determine why they were not reading fluently. On the table, the letters *MB* stand for *meets benchmark* and the letters *SD* stand for *still developing*, indicating dimensions of reading for which students have attained grade-level competence or are not yet developed to that level, respectively.

Figure 11. Results of Miss Lopez's ORF Testing.

Student Name	ORF	Plan of Action	Test of Word Reading Efficiency	Plan of Action	San Diego Quick Assessment of Reading Ability	Plan of Action
Elizabeth S.	77	CT	SD	CT	SD	DT
Ryan W.	62	CT	SD	CT	SD	DT
Aaron S.	162	DT				
Jose D.	103	DT				
Bernardo K.	179	DT				
Juan G.	85	CT	SD	CT	SD	DT
Maria P.	52	CT	SD	CT	SD	DT
Rueben S.	154	DT				
Ghani R.	155	DT				
Antonio Z.	89	CT	MB	DT		
Isabella B.	170	DT				
Andre S.	95	CT	MB	DT		
Alexandra D.	87	CT	MB	DT		
Justin B.	98	CT	MB	DT		
Jacob B.	99	CT	MB	DT		

Note: CT = Continue Testing; DT = Discontinue Testing (see Figure 12 for instructional focus); SD = Still Developing; MB = Meets Benchmark.

Adapted with permission from Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin. (2005). Implementing the 3-Tier Reading Model: Reducing reading difficulties for kindergarten through third grade students *(2nd ed.). Austin, TX: Author.*

The steps Miss Lopez followed to form groups in her class:

1. After determining that all students had comprehension needs in her class (from previous assessments and grades), Miss Lopez administered a measure of oral reading fluency to each student.

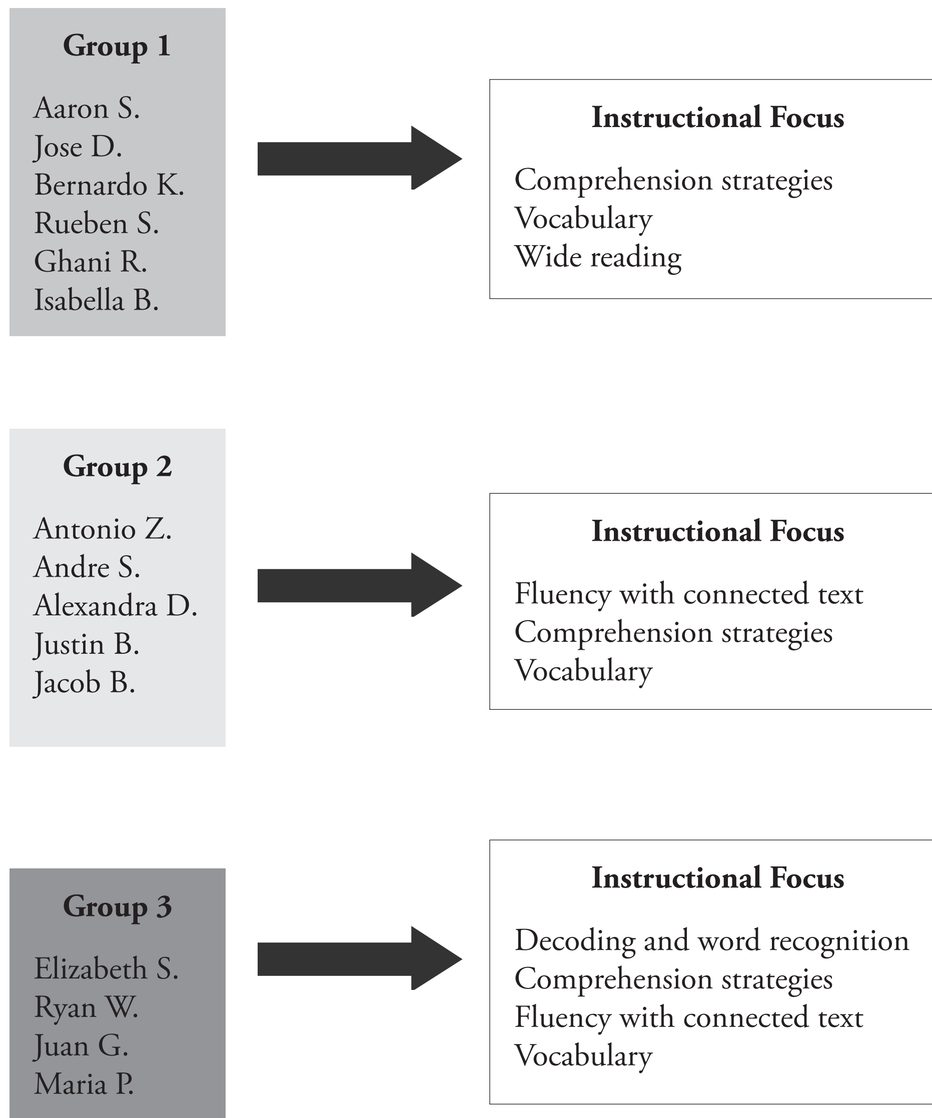
2. Miss Lopez identified that six of her students (Aaron, Jose, Bernardo, Rueben, Ghani, and Isabella) were reading above 100 WCPM. Miss Lopez determined that these students' needs were primarily in the areas of comprehension and vocabulary. She will continue to monitor Jose's reading fluency and accuracy because his score is close to the 100 WCPM benchmark.

3. For the remaining nine students whose ORF scores fell below 100 WCPM, Miss Lopez administered more specific measures to assess the sources of the students' comprehension and fluency needs. She gave these nine students the Test of Word Reading Efficiency (TOWRE) to test individual word reading skills and the San Diego Quick Assessment of Reading Ability to test knowledge of phonics and syllabication (see the Resources section for more information about these assessments).

4. Then Miss Lopez recorded all the scores in a table so that she could appropriately group students and determine their instructional focus. Teachers use the guidelines for interpreting scores on individual assessments along with individual judgment to determine whether students' skills are developed (D) or still developing (SD). Generally, if a student scores below the 25th or 30th percentile on a standardized test like the TOWRE, the student will be considered still developing.

5. Based on the scores recorded in the table, Miss Lopez was able to group her students and determine the instructional focus for each group, as shown in Figure 12.

Figure 12. Miss Lopez's Groupings



Miss Lopez meets with each of these small groups for a portion of the class at least two or three times per week so that she can provide instruction to target their particular needs. She may meet with Group 3 every day for a few minutes of systematic instruction in phonics and word reading. Since all her students need work on comprehension and vocabulary strategies, Miss Lopez will provide instruction in these areas to the whole class. Although she will primarily focus on the same strategies (i.e., summarizing, predicting, questioning) for all students, students will practice applying the strategies in instructional-level text. Thus, different students will be applying the same strategies using different text.

If a student is working independently, it can be helpful to have the student apply a comprehension strategy in independent-level text until he or she becomes proficient at that strategy. However, if the student is learning through guided practice, instructional-level text is appropriate. With a great deal of support (for example, having students engage in partner reading in which a higher-performing student reads a section of text aloud followed by the lower-skilled reader reading the same section of text aloud), students may apply comprehension strategies in frustration-level text. Exposing students to text above their reading level is important so that students come in contact with challenging vocabulary and sentence structures (Stahl, 2003). However, it is important to keep in mind that reading frustration-level text with no support can

promote use of ineffective strategies and decrease motivation to read. Constantly reading frustration-level text is—well—frustrating!

These factors can also be considered when selecting text for students:

Figure 13. Factors to Consider When Selecting Text for Students.

Student-related	Text-related
Word-recognition ability: How accurately does the student read the words in the text?	**Text format:** How much print is on the page? How complex are the sentences?
Fluency: Can the student read the text fluently enough to understand and remember what is being read and to enjoy reading?	**Vocabulary:** Are there difficult vocabulary words that will make comprehension difficult? Is it necessary to understand the challenging words in order to comprehend the text? If so, can difficult words be pretaught?
Comprehension strategies: Is the student a strategic reader? Does the student monitor and self-correct errors? Does he or she stop and form connections to the text?	**Genre:** What type of material is it? Is it narrative or expository? If it is expository, is it well organized, with clearly presented ideas in coherent paragraphs?
Interest and motivation: What is the student interested in? What topics will keep his or her attention? Can you give the student a choice of reading material?	**Content and concepts:** What is the topic of the text? Is the subject matter accessible to the students? If the students do not have sufficient background knowledge to relate to the text, can ideas be pretaught to make it easier for students to access the text?
Background and vocabulary knowledge: What background knowledge does the student bring to the text?	**Illustrations/Graphics:** Do the graphics support the text? What is the quality of the graphics?

SETTING SHORT-TERM GOALS WITH STUDENTS

Work with students to set short-term intermediate goals so that both you and the students can monitor progress toward larger goals through manageable steps. Using a task analysis procedure, large goals can be refined into smaller steps. For example, if a student's goal is to read multisyllabic words made up of closed, open, and vowel-consonant-*e* syllable types (such as the words *amputate* and *monopolize*), a teacher might break this into manageable steps:

- Recognize and read closed syllables (*am*).
- Apply these skills to read multisyllabic words.

It is possible for these steps to be broken down even further. Students benefit when they are aware of their goals and track their progress. See Chapter 9: Word Recognition for a description of instruction in multisyllable word reading.

SCHEDULING SMALL-GROUP INSTRUCTION

After dividing her class into appropriate groups and determining each group's instructional focus, Miss Lopez can design a weekly schedule. A sample schedule based on 50-minute periods is shown in Figure 14. More detail about what to teach and how to teach it is included in Parts 2 and 3 of this guide.

Figure 14. Miss Lopez's Class Schedule.

10-minute Blocks		Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1st 10 Minutes	Grouping and Focus	Whole-group Direct Instruction: Comprehension	Whole-group Review: Comprehension	Whole-group Review: Comprehension	Whole-group Direct Instruction: Vocabulary	Whole-group Review: Vocabulary
	Grouping and Focus	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
2nd 10 Minutes	Grouping and Focus	Whole-group Direct Instruction: Comprehension	Groups 1 and 3 Independent Practice (Pairs): Comprehension (Text Reading)	Groups 1 and 2 Partner Reading: Fluency	Whole-group Direct Instruction: Vocabulary	Groups 2 and 3 Independent Practice (Pairs): Vocabulary
	Grouping and Focus	n/a	Group 2 with Teacher: Fluency with Connected Text	Group 3 with Teacher: Decoding and Word Recognition	n/a	Group 1 with Teacher: Vocabulary and Comprehension
3rd 10 Minutes	Grouping and Focus	Whole-group Guided Practice: Comprehension	Groups 1 and 3 Independent Practice (Pairs): Comprehension (Text Reading)	Groups 1 and 2 Partner Reading: Fluency	Whole-group Guided Practice: Vocabulary	Groups 2 and 3 Independent Practice in Pairs: Vocabulary
	Grouping and Focus	n/a	Group 2 with Teacher: Fluency with Connected Text	Group 3 with Teacher: Decoding and Word Recognition	n/a	Group 1 with Teacher: Vocabulary and Comprehension
4th 10 Minutes	Grouping and Focus	Groups 1 and 2 Independent Practice (Pairs): Comprehension (Text Reading)	Groups 1 and 2 Partner Reading (Pairs): Fluency	Groups 2 and 3 Independent Practice (Pairs): Comprehension (Text Reading)	Groups 1 and 3 Independent Practice (Pairs): Vocabulary	Groups 1 and 2 Partner Reading: Fluency and Comprehension
	Grouping and Focus	Group 3 with Teacher: Review Comprehension Lesson; Decoding and Word Recognition	Group 3 with Teacher: Review Comprehension Lesson; Decoding and Word Recognition	Group 1 with Teacher: Vocabulary and Comprehension	Group 2 with Teacher: Fluency	n/a
5th 10 Minutes	Grouping and Focus	Groups 1 and 2 Independent Practice (Pairs): Comprehension (Text Reading)	Groups 1 and 2 Partner Reading (Pairs): Fluency	Groups 2 and 3 Independent Practice (Pairs): Comprehension (Text Reading)	Groups 1 and 3 Independent Practice (Pairs): Vocabulary	Groups 1 and 2 Partner Reading: Fluency and Comprehension
	Grouping and Focus	Small Group 3 with Teacher: Review Comprehension Lesson; Decoding and Word Recognition	Small Group 3 with Teacher: Review Comprehension Lesson; Decoding and Word Recognition	Group 1 with Teacher: Vocabulary and Comprehension	Group 2 with Teacher: Fluency Progress Monitoring	Group 3 with Teacher: Review Vocabulary Lesson; Decoding and Word Recognition

Monday:
On Monday, Miss Lopez will teach a comprehension strategy to the entire class for approximately 20 minutes. After this, she will give students guided practice in the strategy (includes reading connected text). During the last 20 minutes of class, Miss Lopez will meet with Group 3, the students who need to focus on word reading and decoding, to support them in practicing the comprehension strategy and to directly teach and provide practice in decoding and word reading, while Groups 1 and 2 continue to read and practice applying the comprehension strategy in pairs. Miss Lopez will assign homework related to the comprehension strategy she taught during this lesson.

Tuesday:
On Tuesday, Miss Lopez will briefly review the strategy she taught on Monday and review the homework that was assigned. This is important so that she will know whether the students are ready for independent practice. Once she determines they are ready, she will assign independent practice using the strategy. Students will apply the strategy in different levels of text depending on their reading levels. While students are working independently, Miss Lopez will meet with Group 2, and then with Group 3, for 20 minutes each.

Wednesday:
On Wednesday, Miss Lopez will again start the class with 10 minutes of whole-class review of the comprehension strategy that was taught on Monday. Then she will meet with Group 3 for 20 minutes to continue her instruction in word-reading skills and strategies. During this time, Groups 1 and 2 will partner read to support reading fluency. For the last 20 minutes of the class, Miss Lopez will meet with Group 1 and focus on comprehension and vocabulary while Groups 2 and 3 engage in independent practice of the comprehension strategy during reading of connected text.

Thursday:
Thursday's lesson will be similar to Monday's lesson, but Miss Lopez will focus on teaching a vocabulary-learning strategy to the entire class with guided practice. During the last 20 minutes, Miss Lopez will meet with Group 2 to work on fluency while Groups 1 and 3 independently practice the vocabulary strategy in pairs. Again, Miss Lopez will assign homework that aligns with what she taught in class.

Friday:
On Friday, Miss Lopez will first do a short review with her whole class. She will then meet with Group 1 and then Group 3 while the other students work in pairs on fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary.

This schedule is just one example. There are many other ways to design a weekly schedule for effective instruction. Teachers must consider the needs of each student, each small group, and the class as a whole. The needs of the students will dictate the balance between small-group and whole-class instruction, as well as the instructional focus of each lesson.

AN ALTERNATIVE SCHEDULE FOR READING INTERVENTION CLASSES

If students in a reading intervention class have very similar needs, a schedule such as the one in Figure 15 (on the following page) may be appropriate. The number of minutes dedicated to each activity may be adjusted (or whole activities eliminated) according to the needs reflected on student assessments. At the same time, if many students in the group have severe word reading difficulties, more time should be devoted to systematic instruction in word recognition (see Chapter 9: Word Recognition).

Figure 15. Sample Instructional Sequence for Reading Instruction (Based on a 45-minute Class).

Every Day for the First 4–6 Weeks of Intervention	
Component(s)	Time Range (in mins.)
Fluency (Partner Reading)	7–10
Vocabulary Instruction (Prefixes, Suffixes, Base Words, and Roots)	8–10
Multisyllable Word Reading Instruction and Practice	18–24
Spelling Dictation	4–6

Sample Weekly Schedule for Remainder of Intervention	
Component(s)	Time Range (in mins.)
Monday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Multisyllable Word Reading Practice or Vocabulary Word Part Review	6–8
Vocabulary Instruction	15–25
Spelling Dictation	6–8
Tuesday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Vocabulary Review and Practice	5–7
Comprehension Strategy Instruction (Modeling and Guided Practice)	10–15
Passage Reading, Applying Comprehension Strategy	15–20
Wednesday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Vocabulary Review and Practice	5–7
Comprehension Strategy Instruction, continued	8–10
Passage Reading, Applying Comprehension Strategy	20–25

(figure continued on the next page)

Sample Weekly Schedule for Remainder of Intervention	
Component(s)	Time Range (in mins.)
Thursday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Multisyllable Word Reading Practice or Vocabulary Word Part Review	6–8
Vocabulary Review and Practice	8–10
Comprehension Strategy Instruction, continued; Passage Reading, Applying Comprehension Strategy	25–35
Friday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Comprehension Review	6–8
Expository Writing (Write a summary of the passage or an essay using the same text structure as the passage, guided by a graphic organizer.)	25–35

MANAGING SMALL-GROUP INSTRUCTION

Teachers who have not previously implemented small-group instruction may feel overwhelmed by such a schedule. It can be helpful to begin by incorporating small-group instruction a little at a time, working with small groups one or two days a week at first and then gradually adding small-group lessons as the teacher and students become comfortable with this instructional arrangement.

As you plan lessons, keep in mind that even though students need direct instruction in reading skills and strategies, they also need daily practice reading interesting text at their independent or instructional reading levels. This reading may be done independently, in pairs, or chorally and may provide opportunities to apply comprehension strategies, vocabulary strategies, or word reading skills, or to build fluency. When students engage in guided and independent practice of strategies and skills, most of this practice occurs in the context of reading text. Practicing does not mean completing worksheets. This manual contains many examples of lesson plans with guided and independent practice activities designed to support student learning.

Classroom management is very important in small-group instructional formats. While the teacher works with a small group, other students must be able to work without direct teacher supervision. Implementing this model successfully requires that students learn and practice regular routines. Directly teaching these routines is the key to sanity for the teacher and successful progress for the students. In other words, teachers directly teach students what they want the students to do as they work in pairs, when they have completed an assignment, or in other situations in which students will be expected to work independently of the teacher (see page 225 for an example of a lesson designed to teach a partner reading routine).

By middle school, some students who struggle with reading are several years behind their normally developing peers. In order to catch up, struggling readers must learn at a faster rate than higher-performing students. This means that there is absolutely no time to waste. Every minute of class time is precious. While the teacher is working with a small group, the other students must be actively engaged in practicing strategies and skills they are learning. Students are not given "seatwork" to keep them occupied. Every activity is purposeful and directed at the critical skills students need to be competent, successful readers.

Note that students may change groups as often as appropriate, depending on their rates of progress in comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, and word recognition. It is important to monitor progress carefully so students are not "held back," receiving instruction that no longer meets their needs.

Part 2 | Effective Instruction for Struggling Readers

Chapter 4
Components of Effective Instruction

After conducting assessments, Miss Lopez should be aware of her students' needs in the following areas:

- Comprehension.
- Vocabulary.
- Fluency.
- Word recognition.

She has also designed a flexible grouping system that will allow her to work with homogenous, small groups when necessary. She feels that she has a grasp on what her students need to learn, but is overwhelmed by the challenge of giving them the help they need. She is not sure how to structure her lessons to meet her students' needs. The following chapter will discuss how to organize and plan effective instruction.

Researchers have identified key lesson components that make instruction more effective for struggling readers (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002; Swanson & Deshler, 2003). The components are listed on the following page (and explained in more detail later in this chapter):

- Statement of objective or purpose.
- Daily review.
- Explicit modeling and teaching.
- Guided practice.
- Independent practice.
- Teaching for generalization.
- Monitoring student learning.
- Periodic review (multiple opportunities for practice).

TERMS TO KNOW

Corrective feedback	Specific clarification provided by the teacher in order to give students information about their errors
Generalization	The ability to apply a rule or pattern to a new context or setting (i.e., applying a strategy learned in reading class to a social studies assignment)
Objective	The aim or goal of the lesson; what the teacher wants students to learn
Overlearning	Learning to the point of mastery, or automaticity
Positive feedback	Specific praise provided by the teacher to reinforce students' correct responses and encourage student effort
Prior knowledge	Background knowledge or knowledge that students already have from previous experience; a key component of Schema Theory, or the belief that new knowledge must be integrated with previous knowledge in order to achieve comprehension
Scaffolding	Adjusting or extending instruction so that students are able to be successful with challenging tasks. This support is temporary and is removed when no longer needed.

Bos & Vaughn, 2006; Denton & Hocker, 2006; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002; Harris & Hodges, 1995; The Encarta World English Dictionary

STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVE OR PURPOSE

The **objective** of the lesson must be clear to the teacher before it can be clear to the students. Be aware of what you want your students to learn and teach with that goal in mind.

Provide students with a step-by-step presentation of information. Present only a few ideas at once and connect new material to **prior knowledge**. During this stage of the lesson, an effective teacher will provide a supportive framework illustrating how the new information being presented is related to information that students already know. Using this framework, students are able to access knowledge currently in their minds and then connect this prior knowledge to the new subject matter being introduced (Swanson & Deshler, 2003).

DAILY REVIEW

A daily review is more than just checking to see whether homework assignments are complete. A review of material covered the day before gives Miss Lopez the opportunity to see whether her students have mastered the material, and it gives students an opportunity to **overlearn—**to learn to the point of mastery, or automaticity. Overlearning leads to long-term retention and provides connections for future learning (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002). In the daily review:

1. Review quickly the material taught in the previous lesson.
2. Review previous learning with specific consideration for whether students have retained key concepts.
3. Present information visually and explicitly. In other words, present information clearly enough that your students have no doubt about what it is you want them to recall. One method of presenting information in this way is to clearly post essential steps of previously taught strategies or concepts around the classroom. If students do not display adequate knowledge of the material already covered, adjust instruction or reteach material as needed.

EXPLICIT MODELING AND TEACHING

Model the strategy or demonstrate the skill by thinking aloud. This type of modeling allows the thinking process to become observable and gives students a clear picture of what the strategy being taught looks like. It is important that teachers not assume that a student understands the execution of a skill or the thinking process involved in applying a strategy. Therefore, careful modeling is essential. If you are teaching a simple skill, you may need only to demonstrate the skill or model the procedure.

Repeated questioning throughout the presentation of new information gives the teacher an opportunity to assess the students' levels of understanding and correct any misconceptions before moving on (Swanson & Deshler, 2003).

Finally, after teaching a skill or strategy, carefully monitor student understanding and adjust instruction accordingly. If students are not fully grasping a concept, it is important to adjust instruction to meet their needs.

In summary, when presenting new information, be sure to:

- Be mindful of what you want your students to learn.
- Connect new material to students' prior knowledge.
- Model and/or demonstrate the new strategy or skill.
- Question the students' understanding of the new material.
- Monitor the students' understanding and adapt instruction as needed.

HELPFUL HABIT

During the modeling phase of instruction, try to assure that English language learners and others with limited oral vocabularies are observing the teacher—not trying to listen, write, copy, and watch at the same time. Because of their limited English skills, they benefit from having their full attention on the teacher.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Guided practice gives students the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned with guidance from the teacher. It is important that Miss Lopez provides guidance while students work on their assignments—not wait until they are finished to check for accuracy. This is the time to give students helpful hints and clarify any misconceptions they might have (UTCRLA, 2003d). Providing this type of guidance while students are working will ensure that students are practicing a skill or learning a concept correctly. Without guidance, some students will practice a skill incorrectly and, consequently, become confused. When students practice their mistakes, those mistakes become bad habits.

An effective teacher provides **scaffolding**, or support, to students in the initial stages of learning a new strategy or skill. Scaffolding allows students to apply a new strategy or skill in a safe environment by providing specific support directly where assistance is needed.

For example, if a student is having difficulty with the concept of asking questions during reading in order to monitor his or her own comprehension, a teacher may scaffold by starting a question for the student (or students) and then having the student finish the question. For example, while reading text about the Civil War, the teacher may start a question like the following:

> **Teacher:**
> Where did Abraham Lincoln …
>
> **Student or students:**
> ... give his speech?

Through supported application of skills and strategies, a student will be able to reach the goal of mastery. Scaffolding will be discussed further in the following chapter, Delivering Effective Instruction.

Guided practice should directly reflect the objective of instruction. During this time, Miss Lopez's job is to ensure that students have a clear understanding of the strategy or skill that has just been presented. Students who have problems remembering new material often benefit from practicing in a variety of formats and contexts. Teachers should ensure that students are given ample time to understand new concepts before moving on to independent practice. Overall, students may need multiple opportunities to practice with guidance from the teacher.

This phase in the lesson is an excellent time to involve students in actively responding to questions. Student responses should guide the teacher in making decisions about how best to scaffold or support student learning. In addition to providing extra practice opportunities, questioning can help teachers assess student progress and knowledge of concepts.

Teachers can ask for the following kinds of responses:

- **Choral response:** All of the students answer together.
- **Partner response:** Students respond to a partner. Assign each student in a pair a number. "Ones tell twos why the character …"
- **Silent response:** Students raise thumbs up or down to indicate whether they agree or disagree, or engage in some other silent response.
- **Individual selection:** Pose a question to the whole class and then strategically select an individual student to answer the question. Remember to say the student's name after the question so that all students think they might be called on and will rehearse an answer in anticipation of being selected.

It is critical for students to practice correct responses. When a student gives a correct response, restate the correct response and have the class repeat the correct response as well. This will give the students an opportunity to practice correct reading and responding. For example:

Point to a word on the board.

> **Teacher:**
> What is this word, Justin?
>
> **Student:**
> *Island*. (individual selection)
>
> **Teacher:**
> That's right, *island*. Everyone, what is this word?
>
> **Class:**
> *Island*. (choral response)

Or:

> **Teacher:**
> What does it mean that he was *elated*, Sara?
>
> **Student:**
> It means he was very happy and excited.
>
> **Teacher:**
> That's right, *elated* means very happy and excited. Everyone, what does *elated* mean?
>
> **Class:**
> Very happy and excited.

During guided practice, it is essential to offer **positive** and **corrective feedback**, as appropriate. When students read a word incorrectly or give an incorrect response, they are essentially practicing and reinforcing that incorrect response (Denton & Hocker, 2006). Positive and corrective feedback will be discussed further in the next chapter. One example of providing corrective feedback is given on the following page.

Error-correction example (Carnine, Silbert, Kame'enui, & Tarver, 2004):

Student (reading orally):
She longed to see the is-land …

Teacher:
That word is *island*. Say the word.

Student:
Island.

Teacher:
Good. Please reread the sentence.

Student:
She longed to see the island her grandmother told stories about …

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

When students are consistently responding to questions and applying a skill or strategy correctly during guided practice, then they are ready to apply their new knowledge independently. Independent practice reinforces concepts taught and allows students to learn information on their own. Independent practice should parallel the goals of the lesson and be directly relevant to guided practice (Carnine, Silbert, Kame'enui, & Tarver, 2004). The goal of independent practice is for students to develop automaticity, or mastery of a strategy or skill. Once the strategy or skill becomes a habit, it will be easier for students to generalize their new knowledge. When students begin to generalize, they realize that this new strategy is not just for reading class, but also for any class and any reading. Teachers can tell students explicitly so that they are able to apply skills and strategies to a wide range of circumstances. For example, a teacher may ask questions such as, "Can you think of a time you might use this strategy outside of this class?"

When planning for independent practice, a teacher may reflect, "Am I giving the students an opportunity to apply the strategy or skill that was taught without support?" If, through direct instruction and guided practice, students were taught how to categorize words, they should have several opportunities to practice categorizing words independently. Sometimes teachers make the mistake of asking students to practice a related skill during independent practice instead of the exact strategy or skill that was taught. A multiple-choice worksheet asking students to choose the category that a word belongs to is related to categorization. However, this activity is not as effective as giving students a list of words and asking them to categorize them appropriately. Students will probably not be able to accomplish a task such as categorization independently unless they have had sufficient explicit instruction, modeling, and guided practice.

GENERALIZATION

Generalization occurs when students can apply their new strategies and skills in other contexts or settings outside the reading classroom. Struggling readers usually do not generalize automatically. Teachers should plan instruction so that students have ample practice applying their new skills and strategies in a variety of settings. Teachers can also lead discussions to make students aware of how they can use their new skills and strategies in other classes. If teachers are aware of the instructional expectations in other classes, they can remind their students to use the strategies they learn in reading class in their other classes.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Monitoring student learning refers to the process of gathering information regularly through student assessments. The information gathered should be directly connected to a student's instructional focus. For example, if diagnostic assessments established that a student needed to work on word recognition, a teacher may monitor student growth through repeated assessments of ORF with a retell or word list reading.

Once you establish a routine of regular progress monitoring, you can use the data collected as a guide to planning instruction. This data will help you know when you need to reteach concepts and when you need to adapt instruction.

Four main ways to adjust instruction are defined in the following table.

Figure 16. Guide to Adapting Instruction.

Adaptation Category	Definition	Examples
Instructional Content	Skills and concepts that are the focus of teaching and learning	Determining main ideas Reading words with closed syllable patterns Summarization
Instructional Activity	The actual lessons used to teach and reinforce skills and concepts	Semantic mapping Main idea strategy Teaching the multisyllable word reading strategy
Delivery of Instruction	The procedures and routines used to teach instructional activities	Grouping—whole class, small group, or partners Modeling and thinking aloud Connecting to background knowledge Multiple opportunities for practice
Instructional Material	Supplemental aids that are used to teach and reinforce skills and concepts	Narrative or expository text Manipulatives Charts Flashcards Recorded text

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

For further discussion of progress monitoring and adapting instruction, please refer to the previous chapter on assessment.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES FOR PRACTICE

If Miss Lopez wants her students to have long-term retention of material learned, she must plan and provide for daily, weekly, and monthly review of strategies and skills.

Swanson and Deshler (2003) give a "big picture" look at what current research says about instructional practice. They found that students need to practice newly learned material thoroughly, but distributed practice is better for retention. Distributed practice means that concepts learned in one unit of study are carried over for review and connection to new information in another unit of study. Connections between related materials should be pointed out explicitly to students. In their book *Effective Teaching Strategies That Accommodate Diverse Learners,* Kame'enui and Carnine (1998) suggest that teachers space reviews over time. Therefore, they posit, it is essential for teachers to keep a cumulative list of strategies and skills covered and then space the review of this material over time through a variety of activities. Effective teachers understand that it is their job to find out what their students know, to teach them what they do not know, to guide them and support them as they learn, and to provide several opportunities for students to apply their newly learned skills or strategies.

Extensive Distributed Practice → **Generalization** → **Long-term Retention**

Chapter 5
Delivering Effective Instruction

Are there teacher behaviors that make a difference in student learning? Absolutely. Teachers who have a repertoire of certain teaching behaviors are more effective than teachers who are unaware of these teaching practices. The teaching skills and strategies proven to improve student learning have come to be known as "features of effective instruction." (For descriptions of the features and supporting research see: Bos & Vaughn, 2006; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002.)

Most teachers know what good teaching looks like. You can peek inside a classroom and know whether students and teachers are engaged in learning. But many teachers do not know the specific teaching skills that research has shown to increase student learning. Through learning and practicing these skills, teachers can gain a new sense of empowerment and confidence in their craft.

Some important elements of effective instruction for students with reading difficulties (Bos & Vaughn, 2006; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002) are:

- Explicit instruction.
- Targeted instruction.
- Time on task.
- Quick pacing of lessons.
- Positive feedback.
- Corrective feedback.
- Student motivation.

TERMS TO KNOW

Autonomy	Personal independence
Corrective feedback	Specific clarification provided by the teacher in order to give students information about their errors
Explicit instruction	Instruction that is clear and obvious so that students do not have to guess what they are expected to learn
Motivation	A feeling of interest or enthusiasm that makes a student want to complete a task or improve his or her skills

Positive feedback	Specific praise provided by the teacher to reinforce students' correct responses and encourage student effort
Quick pacing of lessons	Instruction that moves at a manageable pace for students while taking advantage of every minute. Quick pacing minimizes unnecessary teacher talk and transition time between activities.
Scaffolding	Adjusting and extending instruction so that students are able to be successful with challenging tasks. This support is temporary and is removed when no longer needed.
Scope and sequence	The content and objectives included in a curriculum and the order in which they are presented
Self-regulation	A student's ability to monitor his or her own progress and make adjustments to complete a task as necessary
Targeted instruction	Instruction that is based on assessments. This type of instruction targets student weaknesses, builds on strengths, and is designed to teach students exactly what they need to learn
Time on task	Time when students are actively engaged in learning and applying what they have learned

Bos & Vaughn, 2006; Denton & Hocker, 2006; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002; The Encarta World English Dictionary

EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION

When instruction is explicit, students know exactly what they are expected to learn. To provide a clear objective to the student, the objective must first be clear to the teacher. That is why the instructional planning discussed in the previous chapter is so important. **Explicit instruction** is provided through:

- A clear statement of the objective.
- Modeling.
- Demonstration.
- Understandable explanation.

The following is an example of explicitly teaching the sight word *said*:

Point to the word said *on a flashcard or the board.*

Teacher:
This word is *said*. What's this word?

Students:
Said.

Teacher:
That's right, s*aid*.

Point to each letter.

Teacher:
Said is spelled S-A-I-D. Everyone, spell s*aid*.

Students:
S-A-I-D.

Still pointing to the word.

Teacher:
What word?

Students:
Said.

(Carnine, Silbert, Kame'enui, & Tarver, 2004)

The teacher may ask individual students to read the word, then ask students to read a list of previously learned words, including the word s*aid*. The students may now move on to reading sentences or text containing the word s*aid*.

The above scenario is a simple example of explicit instruction. The main idea is this: Teachers should not make students guess or infer what they are supposed to learn. Therefore, it is important to know the objectives of lessons and to express these objectives simply and clearly to your students.

TARGETED INSTRUCTION

Targeted instruction is based on the results of ongoing student assessments. Using information from assessments, teachers are able to teach students what they need to learn. At the beginning of the year, or when a student enters the reading class, the first order of business is assessment. Refer to Part I: Assessing Struggling Readers at the Secondary Level for an in-depth discussion. Assessment is essential to identify each student's strengths and needs. Following the initial assessment, it is important to regularly collect relevant data to define students' progress or lack of progress in areas such as fluency, comprehension, and word recognition. This regular observation of students' learning should guide the teacher's design of instructional objectives and adaptations, and indicate when reteaching is needed.

One way to support students' specific learning needs is through **scaffolding**. An effective teacher scaffolds to help the student move from what he or she already knows to new learning. With appropriate scaffolding, or support, a student will be able to accomplish tasks that would otherwise be impossible to accomplish independently. Teaching struggling readers requires that the teacher be constantly aware of "where students are" and "where they need to be." Instructional support, or scaffolding, is temporary and should be taken away as soon as a student is able to perform a task without help. Just as a father hanging onto the seat of his daughter's bike while she is learning to ride will eventually let go and watch her glide down the street on her own, an effective teacher must know when to support a student and when to encourage independence. Subsequently, once a task is mastered, an effective teacher will raise expectations and provide necessary support, thus repeating the cycle of scaffolding (Denton & Hocker, 2006).

Examples of scaffolding include but are not limited to (Denton & Hocker, 2006):

- Choosing text at the student's instructional level so that the text is challenging but capable of being read with support.
- Providing a partial response to a question and asking the student or students to complete it.
- Acknowledging a partially correct response and helping the student correct or refine it.
- Organizing tasks into smaller steps.
- Connecting the topic of instruction to students' prior knowledge and experience.
- Providing hints rather than telling a student an answer when he/she does not respond.

TIME ON TASK

Time on task refers to the time students are actively engaged in learning and applying what they have learned (Carroll, 1963). On-task behavior is usually observable. Student behaviors that would indicate time on task include:

- Making direct eye contact with the teacher.
- Giving answers to the teacher's questions that are directly relevant to instruction.
- Asking the teacher to clarify instructional information.
- Applying a strategy or skill appropriately.
- Performing a task appropriately.

Effective teachers constantly monitor their classrooms for active engagement in the lesson and know how to employ techniques designed to increase time on task. Some effective techniques Mastropieri and Scruggs (2002) suggest are:

- Plan activities that require students to be actively involved, with a minimum amount of time spent sitting and listening.
- Praise students who are on task.
- Question students frequently. To maximize student engagement, pause between asking the question and calling on a student to answer. This will help ensure that all students think actively about the question since they do not know who will be called on to answer it.
- Set a timer to ring at random intervals and award students who are on task when the timer rings.
- Provide ample visuals and materials to make learning concrete.

If struggling readers are to close the gap with their peers, they must make progress at a *faster rate* than average readers. This requires increased instructional time (Bos & Vaughn, 2006). Therefore, it is imperative that instruction be designed deliberately to decrease "downtime" and increase students' time on task.

QUICK PACING OF LESSONS

Quick pacing of lessons increases time on task and instructional time (Bos & Vaughn, 2006). Effective teachers are constantly aware of their instructional pacing in relation to the responsiveness of their students.

Planning is a prerequisite to quick pacing. In order to move at a pace that is manageable for students but also keeps them actively engaged, an effective teacher must adequately plan the content to be covered.

First of all, it is important that teachers use data from assessments to help plan their lessons. Effective teachers know their students' strengths and needs and set objectives based on student needs. Next, they must consider the **scope and sequence** of the curriculum. This refers to the amount of material to be covered and the order in which it will be presented. It is difficult to modify the pacing, or speed of instruction, if the scope and sequence are not clear. Some school districts have curriculum guides with a suggested scope and sequence for each grade level. This is an excellent resource. Remember, however, that struggling readers may need a modified curriculum that takes into account their areas of need. Teachers might want to think of themselves as emergency room doctors who treat the greatest needs of their students first. In other words, if a patient has a splinter and a broken leg, which will the doctor treat first? Perhaps a teacher has a student who is unable to write a multiparagraph essay and also unable to read more than 30 WCPM on grade level. Which is the emergency? Although there are important writing standards for middle school students, the greater need is fluent reading. Assessment and progress monitoring can lead a teacher to a "diagnosis," and strong instructional design can help the teacher provide the "treatment" effectively.

Besides quick pacing across lessons, pacing within lessons should be energetic with little "downtime." Pacing is improved when teachers are well organized and when students know and use routines for transitions and activities.

Furthermore, adequate planning for active student involvement reduces behavior difficulties. Behavior problems may increase if students are bored or when lessons are too easy or too difficult.

POSITIVE FEEDBACK

Positive feedback is authentic and specific. For example, "Good job! Well done!" and "Way to go!" are less meaningful to students than, "I can see that you are previewing the chapter by looking at the charts and graphs. Good strategy." or, "You recognized the open syllable in that word. Nice work." If a teacher is continually giving out praise with no observation to back it up, older struggling readers will notice. They may assume that empty praise from a teacher is a sign that they are not doing anything worthy of sincere praise. It can be useful to praise an unsuccessful effort, provided you specifically praise the *attempt* but also correct the mistake. For example, if a student mispronounces a word you may say, "You read the first part of that word correctly, but the last part is incorrect." (Point to the letters *sh*). "What sound does this make? That's right, *sh* says /sh/. Now can you sound out the word?"

Appropriate statements for positive feedback include:

- You recognized the parts of that word. Good work.
- Very impressive that you remembered how to write that word.

- You are following the steps of the strategy so carefully! That should help you understand what you are reading.
- Nice job of making notes while you read. That should help you remember what you are reading.
- You read that passage with so much expression. Nice work.

CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Corrective feedback provides students with information about their mistakes. If a student continually performs a task, applies a strategy, or reads a word incorrectly, the student is essentially practicing the mistake, and the mistake will become habit (Denton & Hocker, 2006).

When giving corrective feedback, there are a few things to remember. Corrective feedback is simply providing information and, therefore, should be given in a neutral tone (Denton & Hocker, 2006). Your classroom needs to be a place where older struggling readers are not afraid to make mistakes—a place where students know that you understand their instructional needs and that you will support and challenge them appropriately. When giving corrective feedback, try not to provide the feedback too quickly. Give the student time to self-correct.

Appropriate statements for corrective feedback include:

- (*After pointing to the sound that was read incorrectly)*: What sound does this make? Can you try to read the word again?
- The word you wrote is *signal*. Can you write *single*?
- That's not quite right. Can you take another look?
- Yes, that is partially correct. Can you give me more information?
- Very close. This word is *special*.
- Watch me. I'll show you how to use the strategy. (*Model again.*)

(Denton & Hocker, 2006)

HELPFUL HABIT | To give corrective feedback, simply provide a correct model and have students repeat the correct response two or three times.

ENGAGED READING PRACTICE

Even though it is very important to teach students strategies and skills to improve reading outcomes, it is absolutely essential that students are given ample time every day to be actively engaged in reading. To be engaged in reading, students need to have a purpose for reading and they need interesting text that is at an appropriate level, so that they can appreciate and understand what they are reading. Sustained silent reading (SSR) is popular, but it is not associated with improved reading outcomes—perhaps because students are not engaged appropriately in reading. If a student chooses a book to read during SSR that is not at an appropriate level, the student will most likely be looking at pictures instead of reading. The

student might be quiet, but will probably not be reading.

Students may engage in reading in a variety of formats. Individual silent reading is appropriate if text is on the students' instructional or independent reading levels. With difficult text, it may be more appropriate to have students read orally, but "round robin" reading, in which students take turns reading a paragraph or section while others "follow along," is not likely to actively engage students in reading. Other, more useful, grouping formats for engaged oral reading practice include peer partners and small groups that meet with the teacher. Partner reading is described in detail in Chapter 8: Fluency. When students read orally in a small group, the teacher is able to provide appropriate text, scaffold students when they struggle, and prompt students to apply reading skills and strategies they are learning.

The following sections describe reading strategies and instructional practices that are supported by research. We hope these tools will be part of the foundation of effective instruction in your classroom.

ADDRESS STUDENT MOTIVATION

When designing instruction for middle school readers, it is essential to think about **motivation**. One of the greatest challenges that teachers of older struggling readers face is motivating these students to persevere in their quest to improve their reading. Teachers can help increase student motivation by encouraging **autonomy**, or personal independence; making learning relevant; and teaching students how to self-regulate.

Generally speaking, adolescents are in search of control, autonomy, and independence. Adolescence is a time of exploring how to gain and handle this control. By creating a classroom environment that encourages autonomy, teachers can support the urge for independence in their students. First, teachers can be aware of this need and create opportunities for their students to make their own choices. For example, teachers may allow their students to choose their own reading material when appropriate (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Reed, Schallert, Beth, & Woodruff, 2004). Simply giving students a choice between two passages to read when practicing a new strategy or skill can encourage student engagement.

Another way to encourage student autonomy is to develop a classroom library. The presence of diverse and abundant reading material in the classroom is invaluable (Guthrie, Schafer, Von Secker, & Alban, 2000). As teachers get to know their students, they become aware of their students' interests and can keep these interests in mind while ordering books for the classroom or walking the aisles of a discount bookstore. Students are appreciative when they know teachers have added a book to the classroom library "for them." It may take some time to collect and/or purchase reading material that is of high interest to students. A classroom library is a work in progress, growing each year with the needs and interests of different students. This type of library may consist of books from several different genres such as fiction, nonfiction, action/adventure, mystery, poetry, joke books, classics, childhood favorites, autobiography/biography, short stories, sports, and historical fiction. A classroom library may also include baskets of comic books, magazines, newspapers, books by popular authors such as Gary Paulsen or Louis Sachar, and children's picture books. Picture books are an excellent tool for introducing new units of study. Teachers must focus on the high demands of the curriculum, and, as noted earlier, sustained silent reading programs cannot replace effective instruction. However, even 10 to 15 minutes of independent reading time each week gives students the opportunity to select their own reading material and to feel a sense of empowerment. Teachers have observed that students can get "hooked" quickly when reading books of their own choosing and then want to check out the books to finish reading at home. Middle school students will often check out picture books to read to a younger sibling at home.

Another aspect of motivation is relevance. If you can show students how the content of the lesson is truly relevant, or important to them, they will be more likely to tune in and engage in the lesson. To successfully show students this relevance, teachers must first determine students' needs and try to understand what is relevant to them. In her article "Motivating Adolescent Readers Through Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction," Emily Swan (2004) gives several examples of how teachers can help their students make concrete connections to what they are learning. As an introduction to the concept of revolution, a social studies teacher shows his class a 10-minute video clip from an episode of the cartoon *The Simpsons* in which the character Bart and his friends take over a summer camp run by abusive camp counselors. An English teacher introduces her students to the concept of civil rights through an activity in class in which certain students are purposefully discriminated against. The more we listen to our students and understand what is important to them, the better we will be at adapting our teaching to be clearly relevant to our students (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004).

A primary goal of our efforts to motivate our students is to enable them to develop **self-regulation—**to be able to redirect the focus of completing a task when they realize that their current approach is not productive (Reed et al., 2004). For example, imagine a group of students working together to complete an assignment. They are sitting by the window and are able to see several of their friends running around the track for gym class. The conversation drifts from the assignment to social conversation about their friends. A self-regulatory student might suggest that the group find somewhere to sit away from the window so that they can concentrate and complete their task. It is important to instill in students this ability to self-regulate so that they will not only self-regulate in reading class, but also in other classes, at home, and one day at college or work. One activity that may promote self-regulation is to have a class discussion to identify and list the smaller goals or substeps necessary to complete a particular assignment. Then, as students are working on the assignment, the teacher periodically directs them to stop and ask themselves whether they are being productive. Is their current approach helping them accomplish the substeps? Do they need to change how they are working in any way? By talking through this process with students, teachers give them guided practice on self-regulation (Reed et al., 2004).

Biancarosa and Snow (2004) note that students must be competent in order to improve their reading performance but that competence alone is not enough. Competence must be accompanied by engagement in order to make reading performance gains, and neither is sufficient without the other. Fostering an environment that encourages autonomy supports student engagement in learning, but this autonomy must be coupled with instructional support and guided practice designed to build reading competence (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004). It is not enough to provide instruction to struggling middle school readers, but neither is it enough to attend to student motivation without providing effective instruction. The next section includes a description of instructional principles that are particularly important in teaching struggling readers. Miss Lopez has a tough job ahead of her. Motivating older students is a daily, sometimes hourly, endeavor, but it is a joy to get to know these young people and encourage their motivation.

Part 3 | Research-supported Instructional Practices

As struggling readers get older, the performance gap between them and average students their age continues to widen (Stanovich, 1986). In addition to basic skills instruction, struggling middle school readers may also need explicit instruction in strategies that will help them think about and understand what they read (Bryant, 2003). Struggling readers are often seen as inefficient processors of information and therefore need to be directly taught strategies to improve their reading skills (Swanson & Deshler, 2003). Swanson and Deshler, in their analysis of recent research on adolescents with learning disabilities, state that the overall goal of strategy instruction for older readers is to empower students to apply these strategies independently. Teachers of struggling readers must remember the goal of enabling students to be independent readers. Combined with the components of effective instruction discussed in the previous chapter, instruction in reading strategies in the areas of comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, and word recognition will allow students to move from relying heavily on teacher guidance to becoming independent learners.

It is clear that reading teachers need to know the major components of reading, but it is also helpful if struggling readers understand these terms. At the start of the year, teachers can define **comprehension**, **vocabulary**, **fluency**, and **word recognition** simply and clearly for students. (See Terms to Know on the following page for student-friendly definitions.) This way, the teacher and students will have a common language to use when talking about reading strategies. Explain to the students that assessments you have given them helped to determine their strengths and needs in comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, and word recognition. This may be a good time to talk with students individually about their assessment scores and to develop short-term and annual goals. Perhaps students can work independently in small groups or partners while you speak with students one on one. It is important to be both honest and encouraging when talking with older struggling readers. Most of the time, these students know that they have trouble reading, but they may have never been told their specific strengths and needs. Be sure to emphasize both. Students are often reminded of their weaknesses; it is encouraging for them to also be aware of their strengths. Additionally, it is possible that they have never had instruction in strategies designed to improve

their reading. It is helpful for an older struggling reader to take ownership of his/her needs. For example, a student might be able to clearly state and recognize: "I read fluently but I need to work on understanding what I read, and there are strategies I can use to help me with this."

Now that students understand these terms, post definitions for *comprehension*, *vocabulary*, *fluency*, and *word recognition* in your room. These are the components of reading in which your students should improve.

Before beginning to teach specific strategies or skills:

- Explain to students that throughout the school year, you will be teaching them several strategies in the areas of comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, and word recognition.
- Tell students that you will give them a lot of practice and provide guidance when they first learn a strategy, but as they begin to catch on, you will expect them to use these strategies independently.
- Emphasize that the strategies you teach are not just for your reading class—they are for all reading. Ask students to brainstorm places and settings in which they will need to be able to read. Encourage students to practice using the reading strategies they learn in your class when they are:
    - In another class.
    - Working on homework.
    - Reading a magazine, newspaper, etc.

TERMS TO KNOW

Comprehension	The ability to understand what is read—the ultimate goal of reading
Fluency	The ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with expression
Skill instruction	Teaching students to perform a specific activity. Example: teaching students how to summarize text.
Strategy instruction	Teaching students to use a series of steps to work through solving a problem or completing a task. Example: teaching students to answer multiple-choice questions by reading all of the answer possibilities, eliminating any obviously incorrect responses, and then rereading the text to verify the best answer.
Think aloud	A type of modeling in which the teacher verbalizes what he or she is thinking in order to make the thought process apparent to students
Vocabulary	Words a person recognizes and uses orally or in writing
Word recognition	The accurate reading of words

Bos & Vaughn, 2006; NRP, 2000

SAMPLE LESSONS IN THIS BOOK

In the following sections, sample lesson plans targeting comprehension, vocabulary, word recognition, and fluency will be discussed in detail. The sample lessons are complete and can be implemented as they are or adapted to meet the needs of a particular class. Each plan is intended to be a sample of one lesson in a series of **skill instruction** and **strategy instruction** lessons. For example, one of the lesson plans included in this section teaches students how to summarize text. This sample lesson is designed to be merely one of several lessons designed to teach students to summarize text independently.

For the most part, the sample lesson plans are not designed to be taught in one class period. Students might need several opportunities for guided practice before moving on to independent practice. Then, after students are able to apply what they learn independently, they will need cumulative practice throughout the year.

Your goal is to arm your students with a toolkit of effective skills and strategies that they will eventually be able to apply independently with a variety of texts. The process of teaching new skills or strategies should be cumulative. This is why planning is so important.

The sample lessons that follow are designed:

- To be implemented directly in the classroom (usually not in a single class period, but over several class periods).
- To be a model and a guide for designing a series of lessons that teach and give multiple opportunities to practice each particular skill or strategy.

Note: The Daily Review component of each sample lesson describes a review of objectives and content that may have been covered on the previous day. This is not meant to dictate what should be taught on the day before the lesson, but an example of a quick review. Of course, teachers need to review the specific material that they taught in the previous lesson and merely use the sample Daily Review as a guide.

Chapter 6
Comprehension

Most struggling middle school readers have deficits in reading comprehension. Comprehension, the ability to gain meaning from text, is essentially the ultimate goal of reading. In order to provide appropriate instruction, it is helpful to be familiar with the characteristics and needs of struggling readers in the area of comprehension. Figure 17 lists some of these characteristics.

Figure 17. Characteristics of Struggling vs. Effective Readers.

Struggling Readers	Effective Readers
Have difficulty gaining meaning from text.	Continuously monitor reading for understanding, linking the content with their prior knowledge.
Have limited knowledge of strategies for gaining information from text.	Use a variety of effective reading strategies before, during, and after reading.
Need to be continually reminded that understanding and enjoyment are the primary goals of reading. Even when a student is working on word recognition or fluency, the main goal is comprehension.	Set a purpose for reading and adjust their rate and strategies depending on the text and content.

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

Comprehension strategies are employed before, during, and after reading. Effective readers automatically employ strategies to understand what they are reading. Struggling readers, however, need explicit instruction on how to use strategies to assist them in understanding what they read as well as ample practice in using these strategies with a variety of texts. Figure 18 lists some of these strategies.

Figure 18. Strategies Used by Effective Readers.

Before Reading	During Reading	After Reading
Establish purpose for reading	Identify main ideas and supporting details	Summarize
Activate background knowledge	Create mental images: "Make a movie in your head" Make inferences Reread or use "'fix-up"' strategies when they do not understand	Make inferences
Make predictions	Make informed predictions/ verify predictions	Verify predictions
Generate questions about the text	Generate questions about the text	Generate questions about the text Summarize what was learned to respond to the questions
Evaluate text structure	Use text structure as a framework for comprehension	
	Monitor understanding of words and use vocabulary strategies such as recognition of word parts and roots when they encounter unfamiliar words	
	Monitor comprehension for understanding	

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

The comprehension lessons described in this book are organized in the following manner:

Before, During, and After Reading	Previewing Text and Question Generation
During Reading	Question Generation Mental Imagery Log Main Idea Strategy Identifying Text Structures and Using Graphic Organizers
After Reading	Summarizing Text Wrap-up/Main Idea Log

BEFORE- AND DURING-READING COMPREHENSION **SAMPLE LESSON**

Previewing Text and Question Generation

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The following question types are adapted with permission from Raphael, T. E., Highfield, K., & Au, K. H. (2006). *QAR now*. New York: Scholastic.

The ideas and materials for previewing and question generation were adapted with permission from materials developed by the Teacher Quality Research Project through funding from the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Educational Sciences, grant contract number R305M050121A (Enhancing the Quality of Expository Text Instruction and Comprehension Through Content and Case-situated Professional Development; D. Simmons, S. Vaughn, & M. Edmonds).

The portion of this lesson on learning to ask and answer different types of questions is an adaptation of the Question-Answer-Relationship strategy (UTCRLA, 2003d; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; NRP, 2000; Raphael, 1986).

INTRODUCTION

The Question Generation Routine has two parts—previewing the text before reading and generating different kinds of questions during and after reading.

When students preview text and learn to ask questions about what they read, they understand and learn more from text. In particular, students benefit when, prior to reading, teachers: (a) preteach key words featured in the text and (b) identify the most important idea in the reading. For most text, this means identifying key names, places, or concepts that are important to understanding the text and preteaching them.

Question generation is one of the strategies recommended by the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) in its synthesis of the research on reading comprehension. Generating questions during reading has been effective at improving the comprehension of students of all ability levels in grades 4–9 and in college (Pressley et al., 1992; Rosenshine, Meister, & Chapman, 1996). Research has also demonstrated that approaches to reading comprehension that include question generation improve the achievement of students with learning disabilities (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996; Palinscar & Brown, 1989; Therrien, Wickstrom, & Jones, 2006) and that English language learners benefit from efforts to improve their ability to generate questions during reading (Garcia, 2003; Francis et al., 2006). English language learners

taught to self-generate questions in their native language were able to transfer the strategy to reading in English and demonstrate improvements on standardized measures of comprehension administered in both languages (Muniz-Swicegood, 1994).

The question generation lessons described here include four stages in which students first learn to preview text and then to generate low-level literal questions and progress to generating higher-level questions. Taboada & Guthrie (2006) did a study in which they found that generating higher-level questions that required inferences from text enabled students to gain higher levels of understanding of concepts in expository text such as that found in content area textbooks.

The next section provides an overview of the Question Generation Routine. This routine is most appropriate for narrative text such as literature and social studies text, which contains many proper nouns. It can also be applied to other expository text, such as science text, by selecting nouns that represent key concepts, or "big-idea words". It is less applicable to math text, unless students are reading biographies of mathematicians or some other extended text selection. The sample lessons in this section are based on a social studies unit on Texas history.

OVERVIEW OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL ROUTINE

Step #1: Preteach Key Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns ("Big-idea Words")

Students may be unfamiliar with key words that are presented in text. Sometimes not knowing the key names, events, places, or other proper nouns prevents students from adequately understanding and learning from text. You can assist them by taking a few minutes to preteach the key proper nouns or critical concept nouns that are truly essential for understanding the passage.

What is a key proper noun? It is a person, place, or thing that is essential for understanding the meaning of the selected text. A key proper noun is *not* a proper noun of low importance. If there are no key proper nouns in the text, this step can be eliminated; however, it may be useful to preteach key nouns that are *not* proper nouns, if they are unfamiliar and if understanding of these words is essential for comprehending the selection. These will be referred to as critical concept nouns, or "big-idea words."

Step #2: Introduce the "Big Idea"

Students benefit from text for which they have an advanced organizer that gives them some background on the most important thing they will be learning. Teachers assist students when they tell them the most important thing they want the students to understand and remember from the reading. Providing this information prior to reading or discussing text is useful.

Step #3: Previewing Text

Students learn from previewing text when the purpose is to identify key ideas, link content to students' background knowledge, and connect text to previously read text/content. The role for students is to quickly review the material, state what they know, and make predictions about what they'll learn. Teachers help students when they keep previewing *brief and to the point* and when they confirm and extend correct responses and disconfirm incorrect responses.

Step #4: Students Asking and Answering Questions

> Students with reading difficulties benefit from instruction that teaches them how to answer questions and how to develop questions. When students are provided meaningful opportunities to ask and answer questions during and after reading, they become more cognizant of their understanding. Learning to ask and answer different types of questions is an adaptation of the Question-Answer-Relationship strategy (UTCRLA, 2003d; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; NRP, 2000; Raphael, 1986).

It is usually best to introduce one type of question at a time; model how to answer each question type; provide guided practice as you scaffold instruction, providing support and feedback to students so that they can ask and answer questions appropriately; and ask students to generate different types of questions, calling on their classmates to answer them.

OBJECTIVE

- Students will learn important unfamiliar proper nouns or critical concept nouns that are central to understanding a text passage.
- Students will learn to preview the text and to connect key concepts with what they already know.

MATERIALS

- Planning Sheet for preparing the lesson (Figure 20).
- Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy poster, for review activity (see Appendix).
- Text passage or chapter.
- Learning logs (see Appendix).
- Overhead projector, chalkboard, or chart paper.
- List of important proper nouns or critical concept nouns (transparency of learning log can be used).

PREPARATION

1. Read through the passage or chapter and select the important proper nouns. If there are no proper nouns in the passage, select other nouns that are absolutely essential for understanding the passage (critical concept nouns, or "big-idea words"). Depending upon the subject area you teach, the number of appropriate words to select may range from zero to five.

   Proper nouns and critical concept nouns are essential to understanding the meaning of the selected text. These words may not occur again in the same text but may be studied in another context such as in a lesson for another content area. A general guideline is to identify 1–2 "who," 1–2 "where,"

and 1–2 "what" proper nouns.

For example, in an excerpt from a social studies text, possible important proper nouns are: *eastern hemisphere, Bering Strait, North Atlantic, Leanderthal Lady,* and *Beringia*.

Similarly, critical concept nouns, or "big-idea words," represent concepts that are essential for understanding the text. This is *not* the same as preteaching all of the vocabulary words for the selection.

Sample "big-idea words" from a health selection might include: *bacteria*, *pathogen*, *streptococcus*, and *cholera.*

Most important proper nouns or critical concept nouns selected for this lesson should be *unfamiliar* to many students, but some of these words may be familiar to some students. Review these words to ensure students can read them and know what they are.

2. Identify the "big idea" of the passage. Ask yourself, "What do you think is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?"

   A Planning Sheet (Figure 20) is provided to organize the planning process.

DAILY REVIEW

Quickly review a skill, strategy, or concept that was previously taught and that the students need to practice. The following is an example based on the sample lesson Teaching the Multisyllable Word Recognition Strategy, found on page 257.

As needed, refer to the poster with the steps for the multisyllable strategy written on it. (This poster should be clearly visible in the room for student reference as they learn the strategy.)

Figure 19. Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy.

Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy

1. Find the vowels.
2. Look for word parts you know.
3. Read each word part.
4. Read the parts quickly.
5. Make it sound like a real word.

Adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005). REWARDS: Multisyllabic word reading strategies. *Longmont, CO: Sopris West.*

Teacher:
Before we start today's lesson, let's quickly review our strategy, or plan, for reading words with more than one syllable. What is the first thing you do when you come to a long word you don't know…Steven?

Student:
Find the vowels in the word.

Teacher:
Yes, you find the vowels because every syllable will have a vowel sound. What will you do next…Tamika?

Student:
You look for parts you know, especially at the beginning or end of the word.

Teacher:
Exactly right. What is the next step…Juana?

Student:
Read the parts. Then you put the parts together to read the word.

Teacher:
Yes. But sometimes the word doesn't sound quite right. Then what do you do…Marcus?

Student:
You have to play with it to make it sound right.

Teacher:
Yes. Good memory. Sometimes this step is hard. Let's try reading a word that you might need to work with so that it will sound like a real word.

Display the word dedicate *on the chalkboard or overhead.*

Teacher:
I see a closed syllable, *ded*, followed by an open syllable, *i* (*pronounce with a long "i" sound*), and then a silent *e* syllable, *cate*. If I put them together I would say *ded-I-cate* (*pronounce the "i" with a long "i" sound*). That doesn't sound quite right. Work with your partner to change the *i* sound and tell your partner the real word.

Give partners about 15 seconds.

What's the word—everyone?

Students:
Dedicate

Teacher:
Yes, *dedicate*. Remember, when you read a word with more than one syllable, sometimes the vowels don't follow the rules. Try other vowel sounds until it sounds like a real word.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

1. Introduce the strategy.

 Teacher:
 Today we will begin to learn a new strategy that will help you understand and remember the important ideas you read. Often, you are asked to answer questions

about what you read. You'll be able to answer more questions correctly if you learn how to *ask yourself* questions as you read and after you read. We're going to take several days to learn how to ask ourselves different kinds of questions when we are reading. First, let me tell you about the whole strategy. Then we'll learn the first step.

2. Provide an overview of the Question Generation Routine.

    Teacher:
    The first step is *previewing*. You preview a text *before* reading. We will be working on the previewing step today. Previewing has two parts: 1) identifying important proper nouns, or "big-idea words," and 2) predicting what we will learn by thinking of what we already know about the big idea of the passage.

    The next step is called "Ask the question." We will practice asking and answering different types of questions about what we read, just like teachers do.

3. Introduce the rationale for preteaching important proper nouns, or "big-idea words".

    Teacher:
    Textbooks are filled with lots of information. Sometimes there are important words that are hard to pronounce or that we haven't heard of before. If we don't know these words it can be difficult to understand what we read. Some of these words are proper nouns—proper nouns are names of people, places, or things. I'm going to teach you a few of the important proper nouns you will see in the passage before we start reading. When you know these proper nouns, it makes reading easier.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Expository or narrative
Grouping: Whole class or small group

Note: This sample lesson, based on social studies text, will focus on preteaching proper nouns. Modify the lesson if you are preteaching critical concept nouns ("big-idea words") instead of proper nouns.

1. Present and discuss 3–5 preselected important proper nouns, or "big-idea words".

    Write each word and a brief definition on the chalkboard, chart paper, or transparency (you may use a transparency of the student log for this). Definitions should be short and easily understandable to students.

    - Sample introduction of the important proper noun *Leanderthal Lady*:

      The Leanderthal Lady is a skeleton of a woman who lived 9,500 years ago. Workers discovered the skeleton near Leander, Texas, not too long ago.

    - Definition to write on chart: Leanderthal Lady—9,500-year-old skeleton found near Leander.

    - Teach the other proper nouns in the same way. Then read through the list chorally with students so they become familiar with reading the new words.

- Have students record the important proper nouns and their definitions in their learning logs.

2. Introduce the "big idea" (the topic of the selection).

   Give the students a brief summary of the selected passage.

   > **Teacher:**
   > We will learn about how the earliest people got to Texas. Many people believe they may have been hunters who followed herds from Asia into North America.

3. Introduce method for previewing.

   Model for students how to preview the passage by doing a **think aloud**. During your preview, you should tell students the "big idea" of the text first. Then go through previewing procedures to make connections to the big idea and to prior learning. As you model using a think aloud process, be sure to focus on the reasons for your predictions.

   Note: Previewing should be brief and focused on connecting the big idea and prior learning to headings and visuals such as illustrations, maps, and diagrams. As a rule, you should not spend more than 10 minutes in any lesson on previewing.

   > Sample think aloud for a passage about Patrisia Gonzales:
   >
   > **Teacher:**
   > When I look at this passage, the first thing I see is the title: *First Trail to Texas*. After reading the title and subheadings and browsing the chapter, I know that the big idea is that the earliest Texans may have been hunters who followed herds from Asia to North America. So I think we are going to learn about the path they followed to get here. There is also a map with lines from Asia to North America to South America. Maybe they will tell us where other people went, too. I also see a picture of elephant-like animals, and it says, "The first Americans hunted mammoths and other large mammals." These must be mammoths, and maybe these are the animals that the people followed to Texas so they could hunt them. Earlier we read about the Leanderthal Lady, which was discovered almost 10,000 years ago, so I think we will learn that the earliest Texans came here 10,000 years ago or maybe much earlier.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class or small group

Using a different brief selection (such as a section of a chapter), preteach important proper nouns or critical concept nouns ("big-idea words"), and provide students with the overall "big idea" in no more than 1–2 sentences. Then have students preview the passage with you. Ask students what they notice about headings and visuals. Connect their responses to the "big idea" and their prior learning. Finally, create a prediction statement together by asking the questions:

- What do you think you will learn about ________ (the big idea)?
- Why do you think you will learn that?

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

Using a different brief selection, preteach important proper nouns or critical concept nouns and provide students with the overall "big idea" of the passage in no more than 1–2 sentences. Then have students work in partners to preview the chapter and "think aloud" to make connections to the big idea and to prior learning. Circulate through the room to monitor and scaffold. Ask students to state the reasons for their predictions.

Ask the questions:

- What do you think you will learn about ________ (the big idea)?
- Why do you think you will learn that?

Ask some pairs to share their predictions and to tell *why* they are making those predictions (based on headings, illustrations, diagrams, etc.).

GENERALIZATION

Ask students for examples of situations in which previewing text would be helpful as they prepare to read. Emphasize the fact that they can preview text in all of their classes by taking a few minutes to read the title, headings, and examine the illustrations, and then to think about what they may learn from the passage.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Each time students read an unfamiliar passage, have them first use the previewing routine in pairs or small groups. Circulate through the room to monitor students' ability to accurately connect information from headings and visual materials to previously learned material to make valid predictions. Ask questions that require students to tell the *reasons* for their predictions.

PERIODIC/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Use the previewing routine each time students read unfamiliar text. Once students become skilled at making valid predictions, turn the process over to them, but continue to preteach important proper nouns or "big-idea words" and to remind students to preview. Occasionally, return to previewing in partners so that you can monitor the process.

Figure 20. Previewing Planning Sheet.

PLANNING SHEET
PREVIEWING

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

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BEFORE- AND DURING-READING COMPREHENSION **SAMPLE LESSON**

Generating Level 1 (“Right There”) Questions

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The following question types are adapted with permission from Raphael, T. E., Highfield, K., & Au, K. H. (2006). *QAR now*. New York: Scholastic.

The ideas and materials for previewing and question generation were adapted with permission from materials developed by the Teacher Quality Research Project through funding from the U.S. Department of Education’s Institute of Educational Sciences, grant contract number R305M050121A (Enhancing the Quality of Expository Text Instruction and Comprehension Through Content and Case-situated Professional Development; D. Simmons, S. Vaughn, & M. Edmonds).

The portion of this lesson on learning to ask and answer different types of questions is an adaptation of the Question-Answer-Relationship strategy (UTCRLA, 2003d; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; NRP, 2000; Raphael, 1986).

OBJECTIVE

Students will increase literal comprehension of text by generating “right there” questions.

MATERIALS

- Text passage or chapter.
- Overhead projector, chalkboard, or chart paper.
- Learning logs (see Appendix).
- Red question cards (see Appendix).
- Transparency of Figure 22.

PREPARATION

1. Read through the passage or chapter and select the important proper nouns. If there are no proper nouns in the passage, select other nouns that are absolutely essential for understanding the passage (critical concept nouns, or "big-idea words"). Depending upon the subject area you teach, the number of appropriate words to select may range from zero to five.

   Proper nouns and critical concept nouns are essential to understanding the meaning of the selected text. These words may not occur again in the same text but may be studied in another context such as in a lesson for another content area. A general guideline is to identify 1–2 "who," 1–2 "where," and 1–2 "what" proper nouns.

   For example, in an excerpt from a social studies text, possible important proper nouns are: *eastern hemisphere, Bering Strait, North Atlantic, Leanderthal Lady,* and *Beringia*.

   Similarly, critical concept nouns, or "big-idea words," represent concepts that are essential for understanding the text. This is *not* the same as preteaching all of the vocabulary words for the selection.

   Sample "big-idea words" from a health selection might include: *bacteria*, *pathogen*, *streptococcus*, and *cholera.*

   Most important proper nouns or critical concept nouns selected for this lesson should be *unfamiliar* to many students, but some of these words may be familiar to some students. Review these words to ensure students can read them and know what they are.

   Note: Previewing occurs only *once* for a passage or reading. If students will be reading the same passage over the course of 2 or more days, you should do the following:

   - On Day 1, introduce the important proper nouns or "big-idea words," have students write them in learning logs, and read through the list. Introduce the big idea and then preview the text.
   - On subsequent days of reading the same passage, have students review the list of important proper nouns (e.g., chorally read, read with partners), and tell them the big idea of the passage. It is not necessary to do the entire prediction activity again.

2. Identify the "big idea" of the passage. Ask yourself, "What do you think is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?"

3. Identify several Level 1 questions. Level 1 questions are literal comprehension questions. They can be answered using information taken directly from the text, so they are "right there" in the text. Example Level 1 "right there" questions for a social studies passage are:

   - How long ago did the Mound Builders move to the Caddoan Mounds?
   - Who were the Caddo people descendants of?
   - What kind of work did the Caddo do?
   - What did the Caddo trade?
   - In what shape did the Caddo make their houses?
   - What materials did the Caddo use to make their houses?

DAILY REVIEW

1. Preteach important proper nouns or critical concept nouns.

   Introduce 3–5 new important proper nouns or critical concept nouns and provide brief definitions. Review reasons for preteaching important proper nouns or "big-idea words".

   Have students copy important proper nouns/concept nouns and definitions in their learning logs.

   Read chorally the list of important proper nouns/concept nouns.

2. Preview the passage.

   Present the big idea of the passage.

   Remind students how to preview a passage. Students should look for key concepts by reading the title, bold print, and subheadings. They should look at the pictures or other information that stands out. Students should then connect the key concepts to the big idea and to what they already know and say how they made the connection. Assist students in making connections and correct misinformation.

   Go through the preview as a whole-class activity. Call on students to say the key concepts and to make connections. Validate all students' ideas, while making sure that information is accurate. List only accurate connections and information on the chart paper or chalkboard.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Tell students that today they will learn how to ask themselves questions that can be answered using ideas found "right there" in the text.

> **Teacher:**
> Teachers ask questions to see whether students understand what they read. There are several types of questions that you can ask, and understanding the different types will make it easier to find the answers. Some questions require you to find facts about what you read, while others require you to draw conclusions or make inferences. There are two reasons why it is important to create and answer questions when you read. First, creating and answering questions helps you understand what you read, and second, it helps you remember important information about what you read.

MODEL AND TEACH

Model how to ask and answer "right there" questions.

> **Teacher:**
> Questions usually start with *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *why*, or *how*. When teachers create questions, they try to use lots of different question stems to make sure students understand different kinds of information.

1. Introduce the Level 1, "right there" question type.

 Teacher:
 Today we are going to learn about the first type of question. We call this a "right there" question because the information needed to answer it can be found in one place, word-for-word in the text. "Right there" questions can usually be answered in one word or one sentence. Answering "right there" questions is usually easy and requires little thinking or effort. If you look on your question cards, you will see the different question types: "right there," "putting it together," and "making connections". Today we will just be practicing the "right there" questions.

Figure 21. "Right There" (Red) Question Card.

Level 1—Right There

❑ Questions can be answered in one word or one sentence

❑ Answers can be found word-for-word in the text

➢ Who? ➢ Where?
➢ What? ➢ Why?
➢ When? ➢ How?

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2. Use a short passage from your text to model how to create a "right there" question. Give students the passage or have it on the overhead projector. Preteach any difficult vocabulary words.

 After reading the passage out loud to students, model creating "right there" questions. For example:

 Teacher:
 Let's see, I need to make up a question that I can find in one place in the passage. The first sentence says, "More than 1,200 years ago, Mound Builders migrated, or moved, south into the Piney Woods region to the site of the Caddoan Mounds." There is a lot of information in that sentence. One fact is that the Mound Builders moved to the Caddoan Mounds more than 1,200 years ago. I think I can turn that fact into a question. 1,200 years ago is a "when," so I'll start with that. When did the Mound Builders move to the Caddoan Mounds? Let me check the answer. More than 1,200 years ago. OK. That looks like a "right there" question because I can easily find the answer in one place, word-for-word, in my reading. The Mound Builders moved to the Caddoan Mounds more than 1,200 years ago. Now I'll make up some more "right there" questions, and you see whether you can find the answers in your reading…

3. If students have difficulty writing "right there" questions, it may be helpful to have them first recognize "right there" questions. You might provide them with several questions and model with a "think aloud," deciding whether each is a "right there" question.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class or small group

Practice creating and answering "right there" questions with your class. Remind students to look at their question cards to remember what a "right there" question is. It might be helpful to stick with a short section or paragraph during initial modeling and guided practice.

Provide more guided practice in whole-class or small-group formats. Some students may need additional guided practice over several days to master the process of generating "right there" questions.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

Using a different brief selection, preteach important proper nouns or critical concept nouns and provide students with the overall "big idea" of the passage in no more than 1–2 sentences. Then have students work in partners to quickly preview the chapter.

Next, have students work in partners to generate "right there" questions about the selection. Have students write their questions in their learning logs. They should also record their answers to the questions, along with evidence supporting each answer. Circulate and provide feedback and scaffolding as needed.

Ask pairs to share their "right there" questions and to tell where in the text the answer to each question can be found.

GENERALIZATION

Ask students for examples of situations in which asking themselves "right there" questions might help them understand and remember what they read. Emphasize the fact that they can preview text and ask themselves "right there" questions in all of their classes.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Each time students read an unfamiliar passage, have them use the previewing routine and generate Level 1 questions in pairs or small groups. Circulate through the room to monitor students' responses. Ask questions that require students to tell the reasons for their predictions and to show where they found the answers to the Level 1 questions they generated.

PERIODIC/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Use the previewing and question generation routine each time students read unfamiliar text. Once students become skilled at making valid predictions and generating Level 1 questions, turn the process over to them, but continue to preteach important proper nouns or "big-idea words" and to remind students to preview and generate questions. Occasionally, return to previewing and question generation in partners so that you can monitor the process.

Figure 22. Level 1 "Right There" Questions Planning Sheet.

PLANNING SHEET
LEVEL 1 QUESTIONS

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

3. Model Level 1 Questions

Questions to use as examples:

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BEFORE- AND DURING-READING COMPREHENSION **SAMPLE LESSON**

Generating Level 2 (“Putting It Together”) Questions

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The following question types are adapted with permission from Raphael, T. E., Highfield, K., & Au, K. H. (2006). *QAR now*. New York: Scholastic.

The ideas and materials for previewing and question generation were adapted with permission from materials developed by the Teacher Quality Research Project through funding from the U.S. Department of Education’s Institute of Educational Sciences, grant contract number R305M050121A (Enhancing the Quality of Expository Text Instruction and Comprehension Through Content and Case-situated Professional Development; D. Simmons, S. Vaughn, & M. Edmonds).

The portion of this lesson on learning to ask and answer different types of questions is an adaptation of the Question-Answer-Relationship strategy (UTCRLA, 2003d; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; NRP, 2000; Raphael, 1986).

OBJECTIVE

Students will increase literal and inferential comprehension of text by generating “putting it together” questions.

MATERIALS

- Text passage or chapter.
- Overhead projector, chalkboard, or chart paper.
- Learning logs (see Appendix).
- White question cards (see Appendix).
- Transparency of Figure 24.

PREPARATION

Read the passage and identify the following:

- 3–5 important proper nouns or key concept nouns.
- The "big idea".
- Several Level 2, "putting it together" questions. Level 2 questions can be answered using ideas found in different places in the text or in a different text. Example "putting it together" questions include:
    - What are adobe villages?
    - Why were the Jumano called pueblo people?
    - Why did the Jumano have to irrigate their crops?

DAILY REVIEW

Preteach important proper nouns or critical concept nouns and preview the reading.

1. Introduce 3–5 new important proper nouns or "big-idea words" and provide brief definitions. Review reasons for preteaching important proper nouns. Read the list with class.
2. Have students copy important proper nouns or critical concept nouns and definitions in their learning logs.
3. Present the "big idea." Remind students how to preview a passage. Students should look for key concepts by reading the title, bold print, and subheadings. They should look at the pictures or other information that stands out. Students should then connect the key concepts to what they already know and to the big idea and say how they made the connection. Assist students in making connections and correct misinformation.
4. Go through the preview as a whole-class activity. Call on students to say the key concepts and to make connections to what they already know and what they expect to learn. Validate all students' ideas, while making sure that information is accurate. List only accurate connections and information on the chart paper, chalkboard, or transparency.
5. Ask a few students to generate Level 1, "right there" questions about the first one or two paragraphs of the reading.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Tell students that today they will learn more about generating questions.

Teacher:
Why do we ask questions when we read?

Answers should include: "to check what we know about what we read," "to test our understanding," and "to help us remember important information about we read".

MODEL AND TEACH

1. Model creating "putting it together" questions.

   Teacher:
   Remember that you can ask several types of questions and that understanding the different types will make it easier to find the answers. Some questions require you to find facts about what you read, while others require you to draw conclusions or make inferences. Last week we worked on asking and answering "right there" questions—the kinds of questions for which you can find the answer, word for word, in just one place in your reading.

2. Introduce the Level 2, "putting it together" question type.

   Teacher:
   This week we are going to learn about "putting it together" questions. Teachers like these questions because in order to find the answer, you have to put information together. That is, you usually have to use information from more than one place in your reading and put that information together to write an answer. "Putting it together" questions usually take a sentence or more to answer. Not only are "putting it together" questions a little more difficult to answer than "right there" questions, but they can also be harder to ask.

FIGURE 23. "PUTTING IT TOGETHER" (WHITE) QUESTION CARD.

Level 2—Putting It Together

- ❑ Questions can be answered by looking in the text
- ❑ Answers require one or more sentences
- ❑ To answer the questions, you have to look in more than one place and put information together

➢ Who?	➢ Where?
➢ What?	➢ Why?
➢ When?	➢ How?

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3. Model the process of generating Level 2 questions using a think aloud.

   Teacher:
   This passage is about the Jumano people. It says that different groups lived in adobe villages. And then it says the Spanish called all these groups Pueblo. Later it says the Jumano people are called Pueblo Jumano. So I can combine that information to make a question. Why were Jumano people called Pueblo Jumano? They were called Pueblo Jumano because at that time the Spanish called all the groups that lived in adobe villages Pueblo. I have to know that the Jumano lived in adobe villages and that the Spanish called the groups of people that lived in adobe villages Pueblo. So I had to put information together from different parts of the passage to answer that question. Let's try some more…

4. Model this process several times.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class or small groups

1. Ask students several more "putting it together" questions and talk about the process you are using to generate these questions (finding ideas in two parts of the text that can go together and combining them to answer one question).
2. Read 2–3 paragraphs to students and as a class or small group, have students practice forming Level 2 questions. Have students give the answers to the questions they generate and tell where in the text the information to answer the questions can be found.
3. Give feedback and continue to model how to create and answer these questions as needed.

   Students will likely need quite a lot of practice generating Level 2 questions. Do not go on to Level 3 questions until students are successful and comfortable with Level 2 questions.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

Using a different brief selection, preteach important proper nouns, and provide students with the overall "big idea" of the passage in no more than 1–2 sentences. Then have students work in partners to quickly preview the chapter.

Next, have students work in partners to generate "putting it together" questions about the selection. Have students write their questions in their learning logs, along with the answers and evidence (where the answers are found).

Circulate and provide feedback and scaffolding as needed. Be prepared to model again as needed. If several students are confused, stop the independent practice and return to modeling and additional guided practice.

Ask pairs to share their "putting it together" questions and to tell where in the text the answer to each question can be found.

GENERALIZATION

Ask students for examples of situations in which asking themselves "putting it together" questions might help them understand and remember what they read. Emphasize the fact that they can preview text and ask themselves "putting it together" questions in all of their classes.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Each time students read an unfamiliar passage, have them use the previewing routine and generate both Level 1 and Level 2 questions in pairs or small groups. Circulate through the room to monitor students' responses. Ask questions that require students to tell the reasons for their predictions and to show where they found the answers to the Level 1 and Level 2 questions they generated.

PERIODIC/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Use the previewing and question generation routine each time students read unfamiliar text. Once students become skilled at making valid predictions and generating Level 1 and Level 2 questions, turn the process over to them, but continue to preteach important proper nouns or "big-idea words" and to remind students to preview and generate questions. Occasionally, return to previewing and question generation in partners so that you can monitor the process.

Figure 24. Level 2 "Putting It Together" Questions Planning Sheet.

PLANNING SHEET
LEVEL 2 QUESTIONS

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

3. Model Level 2 Questions

Questions to use as examples:

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BEFORE- AND DURING-READING COMPREHENSION **SAMPLE LESSON**

Generating Level 3 (“Making Connections”) Questions

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The following question types are adapted with permission from Raphael, T. E., Highfield, K., & Au, K. H. (2006). *QAR now*. New York: Scholastic.

The ideas and materials for previewing and question generation were adapted with permission from materials developed by the Teacher Quality Research Project through funding from the U.S. Department of Education’s Institute of Educational Sciences, grant contract number R305M050121A (Enhancing the Quality of Expository Text Instruction and Comprehension Through Content and Case-situated Professional Development; D. Simmons, S. Vaughn, & M. Edmonds).

The portion of this lesson on learning to ask and answer different types of questions is an adaptation of the Question-Answer-Relationship strategy (UTCRLA, 2003d; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; NRP, 2000; Raphael, 1986).

OBJECTIVE

Students will increase inferential comprehension of text by generating “making connections” questions.

MATERIALS

- Text passage or chapter.
- Overhead projector, chalkboard, or chart paper.
- Learning logs (see Appendix).
- Blue question cards (see Appendix).
- Transparency of Figure 26.

PREPARATION

Read the passage and identify the following:

- Important proper nouns or critical concept nouns.
- The "big idea".
- Several Level 3, "making connections" questions. Level 3 questions require students to use information from the text along with background knowledge/prior learning to make inferences. Example Level 3 questions for a social studies passage are:
    - What are some of the reasons that Patrisia Gonzales might not have had many friends in school?
    - How do you think Patrisia Gonzales' family influenced her decision to teach others about Native American life?
    - Give an example of what Patrisia Gonzales might mean when she tells kids to "Open your hearts to all the endless possibilities that life might want to give you. And never give up on living a happy life."
    - How is the biography of Patrisia Gonzales related to the other passages we have read in this chapter?
    - How is the life of Patrisia Gonzales the same as or different from [another biography you have read]?

DAILY REVIEW

Grouping: Whole class

Preteach important proper nouns or critical concept nouns and preview the reading:

1. Introduce 3–5 new important proper nouns or critical concept nouns and provide brief definitions. Review reasons for preteaching important proper nouns or "big-idea words." Read the list with class.
2. Have students copy important proper nouns/critical concept nouns and definitions in their learning logs.
3. Present the "big idea."
4. Go through the preview as a whole-class activity. Call on students to say the key concepts and to make connections. Validate all students' ideas, while making sure that information is accurate. List only accurate connections and information on the chart paper, chalkboard, or transparency.
5. Read the first two paragraphs of the selection to the students, or have them read the paragraphs orally with partners, and have students generate 1–2 Level 1 and/or Level 2 questions. Ask some students to share their questions with the class and to provide the answers to the questions with an explanation of where in the text the answers are located.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Tell students that today they will learn more about generating questions.

> **Teacher:**
> Why do we ask questions when we read?

Answers should include: "to check what we know about what we read," "to test our understanding," and "to help us remember important information about we read".

> Remember that you can ask several types of questions and that understanding the different types will make it easier to find the answers. Some questions require you to find facts about what you read, while others require you to draw conclusions or make inferences. Last week we worked on asking and answering "putting it together" questions, the kinds of questions that you can answer by combining information from more than one place in your reading. Today we will learn how to form and answer "making connections" questions. When you answer "making connections" questions, you use information you already know along with information from the reading. Teachers ask many "making connections" questions because good readers connect what they are reading with information they already know.

MODEL AND TEACH

1. Introduce the Level 3, "making connections" question type.

   Teacher:
   "Making connections" questions are different from "right there" and "putting it together" questions because you cannot answer them only by looking in the passage. To answer a "making connections" question, you need to think about what you just read and make connections to what you already know. Level 3 questions often start with the following question stems:

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

FIGURE 25. "MAKING CONNECTIONS" (BLUE) QUESTION CARD.

Level 3—Making Connections

❏ Questions cannot be answered by using text alone

❏ Answers require you to think about what you just read, what you already know, and how it fits together

➢ How is ____ like (similar to) ____ ?
➢ How is _____ different from ____ ?
➢ How is _______ related to ______ ?

Adapted with permission from materials developed by the Teacher Quality Research Project through funding from the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Educational Sciences, grant contract number R305M050121A (Enhancing the Quality of Expository Text Instruction and Comprehension Through Content and Case-situated Professional Development; D. Simmons, S. Vaughn, & M. Edmonds).

Note: The goal for Level 3 questions is to make extensions/connections to text. Students should try to "stay with the text" and integrate the text with their prior learning instead of answering questions "away from the text" without any connection to what they are reading.

2. Read a short passage with your class.

3. Model how to create a "making connections" question.

   After reading the passage with students, discuss a few important ideas from the passage. Then model Level 3 questions.

   > **Teacher:**
   > This passage about Patrisia Gonzales talks about a woman who is alive today and who is part Kickapoo, part Comanche, and part Mexican. To write a Level 3 question, I have to ask about something that is related to what I've read but that I have to think a little bit more about. One question I have about this passage is: How is this passage related to the other passages in the People of the Mountains and Plains lesson? To answer this question, we have to think about what we've already read and relate it to what we learned today. So, we've read about different groups that lived in the mountains and plains areas of Texas a long time ago. Today we are reading about Patrisia Gonzales, who is a descendent of several of these groups. I think this passage is related to the other passages in this lesson because the authors want us to know that there are people living today who are related to those same groups of people who lived in Texas a long time ago. Let's try to create some more Level 3, "making connections" questions…

   Ask students several more "making connections" questions and talk about the process you are using to generate these questions (connecting ideas in the text with ideas they have already learned or already know about).

4. Since Level 3 questions are the most difficult to generate and to answer, be sure to provide students with many models of this process and to return to modeling as often as needed.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class or small groups

1. Read 2–3 paragraphs to students, and as a class or small group, have students practice forming Level 3 questions. Have students provide answers to their questions and explain how they used information from the text as well as background information to do so. Remind students that their questions may begin with the stems:

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

2. Give feedback and continue to model how to create and answer these questions as needed.

   Students will likely need quite a lot of practice generating Level 3 questions. Do not go on to independent practice until students are successful and comfortable with Level 3 questions.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

Using a different brief selection, preteach important proper nouns and provide students with the overall "big idea" of the passage in no more than 1–2 sentences. Then have students work in partners to quickly preview the chapter.

Next, have students work in partners to generate "making connections" questions about the selection. Have students write their questions in their learning logs, along with answers and evidence supporting the answers.

Circulate and provide feedback and scaffolding as needed. Be prepared to model again as needed. If several students are confused, stop the independent practice and return to modeling and additional guided practice.

Ask pairs to share their "making connections" questions and explain how they used information in the text as well as background information to answer each question.

GENERALIZATION

Ask students for examples of situations in which asking themselves "making connections" questions might help them understand and remember what they read. Emphasize the fact that they can preview text and ask themselves "making connections" questions in all of their classes.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Each time students read an unfamiliar passage, have them use the previewing routine and generate Level 1, 2, and 3 questions in pairs or small groups. Circulate through the room to monitor students' responses. Ask students to share the reasons for their predictions, show where they found the answers to their Level 1 and Level 2 questions, and explain how they combined information in the text with background knowledge to answer their Level 3 questions. Provide more modeling and guided practice, as needed.

PERIODIC/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Use the previewing and question generation routine each time students read unfamiliar text. Once students become skilled at making valid predictions and generating all three levels of questions, turn the process over to them. Continue to preteach important proper nouns or "big-idea words" and to remind students to preview and generate questions. Occasionally, return to previewing and question generation in partners so that you can monitor the process.

Figure 26. Level 3 "Making Connections" Questions Planning Sheet.

PLANNING SHEET
LEVEL 3 QUESTIONS

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

3. Model Level 3 Questions

Questions to use as examples:

Adapted with permission from materials developed by the Teacher Quality Research Project through funding from the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Educational Sciences, grant contract number R305M050121A (Enhancing the Quality of Expository Text Instruction and Comprehension Through Content and Case-situated Professional Development; D. Simmons, S. Vaughn, & M. Edmonds).

DURING-READING **SAMPLE LESSON**
Mental Imagery Log

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Lesson adapted from: University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). *Meeting the needs of struggling readers: A resource for secondary English language arts teachers*. Austin, TX: Author; and based on research by McNeil, 1992; Wood & Harmon, 2001; and Gambrell & Bales, 1986.

OBJECTIVE

Students will create mental images as they read and describe their mental images with words or illustrations.

MATERIALS

- Overhead transparency of short passage.
- Overhead transparency of blank mental imagery log (see Figure 27).
- Several blank mental imagery logs (student copies).
- Several copies of a short passage or chapter.

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
Yesterday we began reading… Who or what was the story about? Good. Can anyone remember…?

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
When I say the word *mental*, to what part of the body am I referring?

Accept responses.

That's right, the head—more specifically, the mind. Today I am going to teach you a strategy that will help you understand what you are reading. We are going to make pictures in our

minds called mental images. Forming mental images, or pictures, while you are reading will help you better understand and remember what you read.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Narrative or expository (works best to introduce with narrative text)
Grouping: Whole class

Introduce Mental Imagery

First, review the five senses with students: touch, taste, smell, sight, hearing.

Then tell students to close their eyes. Circulate around the room.

Teacher:
I want you to form a picture of a dog in your mind.

Think about how the dog in your mind looks, smells, feels, and sounds.

What color is your dog, Shelly? What kind of tail does your dog have, Jim? What does your dog smell like, Jose?...

Continue the same steps with other familiar objects such as shoes, cars, a room, etc.

Then read a sentence to your students and ask them to make a picture of the sentence in their mind. Then ask students what words in the sentence help them build the mental image.

Teacher:
Listen to this sentence. While I read it, make a picture of the sentence in your mind. "With a screech of its wheels, the bright red car sped around the corner."

What word tells you that the car is moving quickly?

Students:
Sped.

Teacher:
That's right, *sped*. So now our mental image is moving. We are making movies in our minds.

What do you see, Joe? What do you hear, Maria? Do you smell anything, Lisa? What kind of car do you see, James?...

Model Mental Imagery

Model the process of completing a mental imagery log (see Figure 27).

1. Project a short passage on the overhead.
2. Read the passage to the class. Ask students to make movies in their minds as they listen and follow along.

3. Tell the students that you are going to teach them to write a description or draw a picture of their mental images after reading each paragraph.

4. Reread the passage one paragraph at a time, and ask students to listen to the words and form a mental image or make a movie in their minds. Allow students to close their eyes while you read.

5. After reading each paragraph, stop and "think aloud" as you complete the mental imagery log at the overhead projector.

   > **Teacher:**
   > While I was reading that paragraph, I saw the ship with its sails up, cargo in place, and pots of food still dangling over cold fires. But all of the people were gone. So, on my mental imagery log, I can write, "The ship looked occupied, but the people were gone."

   Write the sentence on the mental imagery log transparency while you are saying it.

   > Or I can draw a picture. The words that really help me make a picture in my mind are "pots full of food dangling over a cold fire."

   Underline these words in the paragraph.

   > This image really captures how the people seemed to have just disappeared. So I will draw a picture of a large pot with food, hanging over a fire that has gone out.

   Sketch the picture on the mental imagery log transparency.

6. Repeat steps 4 and 5 for several paragraphs.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Basic

Grouping: Partners or small groups

1. Give each group a blank mental imagery log and a brief passage or chapter.
2. Have students begin reading the passage or chapter with a partner.
3. Partners take turns reading one paragraph at a time.
4. After reading each paragraph, partners stop and share their mental images.
5. Partners help each other identify and underline any words that helped form their mental images.
6. Partners decide whether they are going to write a sentence describing their images or draw a picture. Then the students write a sentence or draw a picture in the appropriate space on the log.

During group practice, circulate around the room and listen. Remind students to make movies in their minds while they are reading.

Variation

Grouping: Whole class

1. Give students five different colors of highlighters or map pencils.
2. Choose a short passage that is very descriptive in nature.
3. Give each student a copy of the passage and project your copy on an overhead.
4. Ask students to listen for descriptive words while you read the passage aloud.
5. Reread the passage together and highlight sensory words or phrases together. For example, highlight anything that describes sound with blue, smell with yellow, etc.

HELPFUL HABIT | Most students love to see their writing projected on the overhead. If a student writes an especially descriptive paragraph, make an overhead transparency and use his/her writing for this exercise. If a student has unreadable handwriting, type the paragraph for the transparency.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Individuals

For independent practice, students will be expected to complete a mental imagery log on their own. This will not be on the same day of teacher modeling and guided practice. Students will most likely need several opportunities for guided practice before they are ready for independent practice. They will then need several opportunities to practice independently. This is true with teaching any strategy or skill. Students must be given opportunities to practice often so that the strategy or skill becomes a habit. One way to conduct independent practice for this strategy is below:

1. Give each student a copy of a passage or chapter and a blank mental imagery log.
2. Read the first paragraph to the class while the students follow along. Before you read, remind the students to make movies in their minds as they follow along.
3. Ask students to write a sentence or draw a picture in the appropriate space on their logs.

HELPFUL HABIT | Reluctant readers are usually reluctant writers. Set a timer for an exact time, even if it is only 2 minutes, and ask students to write or draw continuously until the timer rings and then promptly stop. Gradually, increase the amount of time that students are asked to write continuously.

4. When students are finished writing, ask for a volunteer to share his/her response. Project the blank log on the overhead and fill in with students' shared responses. Ask students to share which words from the text helped them form their mental images.
5. Continue this process, one paragraph at a time, until the passage or chapter is complete. Depending on the level of the text, you might continue reading each paragraph to the class, or you might ask students to read one paragraph at a time silently.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
Can anyone think of where the mental imagery strategy might be useful outside of this class?

Student:
When we read stories in English class?

Teacher:
Definitely. What story are you reading in English class right now?

Student:
We're reading *To Kill a Mockingbird*. We're reading the courtroom scene.

Teacher:
Oh, I love that book. So what should you be picturing in your mind as you read about the trial?

Student:
We should picture the courtroom with the judge and lawyers and all the townspeople watching the trial. We should also picture the jury.

Teacher:
That's exactly right. So when you go to English class today, pay attention as you are reading and make movies in your minds while you are reading. Tomorrow I am going to ask you whether making mental images helped you understand what you read in English class.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check for appropriate responses on mental imagery logs.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Prepare by reading the text in advance and marking places conducive to creating a mental image. While reading with the class, stop at these places and ask students to make mental images. Ask questions about the images. Ask for words in the text that helped students form their images.

Periodically remind students to make movies in their mind while they read. Have students write descriptions or draw pictures of their mental images *and* give evidence from the text to support their images. Asking students to provide evidence is very important.

Periodically, or each day for a period of time, have students complete mental imagery logs in pairs or individually for paragraphs in assigned reading.

Figure 27. Mental Imagery Log.

MENTAL IMAGERY LOG	
Title:	
Paragraph 1	Paragraph 5
Paragraph 2	Paragraph 6
Paragraph 3	Paragraph 7
Paragraph 4	Paragraph 8

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Meeting the needs of struggling readers: A resource for secondary English language arts teachers. *Austin, TX: Author; based on McNeil, J. D. (1992).* Reading comprehension: New directions for classroom practice *(3rd ed.). New York: Harper Collins; Wood, K. D., & Harmon, J. M. (2001).* Strategies for integrating reading and writing in middle and high school classrooms. *Westerville, OH: National Middle School Association; and Gambrell, L. B., & Bales, R. J. (1986). Mental imagery and the comprehension-monitoring of fourth- and fifth-grade poor readers.* Reading Research Quarterly, 21*, 454–464.*

DURING-READING **SAMPLE LESSON**

Main Idea Strategy

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Vocabulary routine adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005b). *REWARDS Plus: Reading strategies applied to social studies passages*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Main idea strategy adapted with permission from Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., Dimino, J., Schumm, J. S., & Bryant, D. (2001). *Collaborative strategic reading: Strategies for improving comprehension*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

TERMS TO KNOW

Detail	A specific, minor piece of information related to the topic
Main idea	What the text is mostly about
Topic	The subject addressed by the author

Encarta World English Dictionary; Vaughn & Klingner, 1999

The Get the Gist strategy was developed as a way to help students understand the concept of main idea (Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998; Vaughn, Klingner, & Schumm, 1996). It teaches students to pay attention to the most relevant information in the text and guides them to developing a main idea statement based on the following information:

- Who or what the paragraph is about (the topic of the paragraph, which will usually be the subject of the main idea statement).
- The most important information about the “who” or “what”.

Students are taught to combine the above elements into a main idea statement with 10 words or less, eliminating nonessential details.

OBJECTIVE

The students will determine the **topic**, **main idea**, and important **details** of a paragraph.

MATERIALS

- Copies of a short passage or chapter.
- Blank main idea form overhead transparency.
- Transparencies of pictures or cartoons depicting simple actions.
- Several blank main idea forms (see Figure 29).

DAILY REVIEW

Spend 3–5 minutes on vocabulary review.

1. Show the previous day's words and definitions on a transparency or chart. Read each word to the students and have students repeat each one.

feisty	Strong and not afraid of arguing with people
pact	An agreement or a sworn promise
desolate	Very lonely and unhappy
dominant	More important or powerful than other people or things
anonymous	Written, given, or made by someone who does not want their name to be known
motive	A reason for doing something

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

2. Briefly review the meaning of each word. Note that these are student-friendly definitions that are easy for students to understand.
3. Ask students questions to promote deep understanding of the words. Have students discuss each question with a partner. Then call on partners to respond. Always ask students to give reasons for their answers. There can be more than one correct answer to these questions. The important thing is that the student's reasoning reflects the true meaning of the vocabulary words.

Teacher:
When might a *pact* be a *motive* for a crime?

(If someone has made a sworn agreement, they might commit a crime to keep their promise.)

Can a *feisty* person be *desolate*?

(If a person is really strong and not afraid of arguing with people, they might not have a lot of friends. They might feel very lonely sometimes.)

Why might a *dominant* person give an *anonymous* gift?

(Sometimes powerful or important people might not want anyone to know when they give someone a gift. They might want it to be a secret so they don't have a lot of publicity. Maybe if it were public that they did something nice then others would think they were "soft" or not as powerful.)

HELPFUL HABIT | Laminate a piece of construction paper and place it under each word you are asking students to read. It works as a guide to help the reader keep his or her place and the rest of the students focused on the word being read.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today I am going to show you a strategy, or plan of action, that will help you determine the main idea of each paragraph as you read. It is important to be able to identify main ideas so you can monitor your understanding as you are reading.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Expository

Grouping: Whole class

1. Define main idea through the Get the Gist strategy.

   Teacher:
   The name of the strategy you will be learning today is "Get the Gist." If you get the gist of something you read or hear or see on TV, you understand the most important ideas. The Get the Gist strategy is a step-by-step way to help you find the most important ideas in paragraphs you read. The strategy has three parts:

   - Ask yourself, "Who or what is the paragraph about?"
   - Ask yourself, "What is the most important information about the 'who' or 'what?'"
   - Say it in a main idea statement with 10 words or less.

   One way to introduce this strategy to students is to teach it without text.

2. Project a cartoon or picture of an animal doing something. No words are necessary, just a character involved in some sort of action. For instance, you might project a transparency of a dog jumping to catch a Frisbee in his mouth. Perhaps there are surrounding trees, flowers, and sunshine. Now ask the students to look at the cartoon.

   Teacher:
   In one or two words, tell me who or what this cartoon is about.

   Students:
   A dog.

Teacher:
What is the most important thing about the dog?

Students:
He's jumping to catch a Frisbee.

Some students may mention the flowers, or the trees, or that it is a sunny day. If this happens, ask questions to guide students to see the difference between the most important idea and non-essential details.

Teacher:
Is the sunny day the most important thing about the cartoon? If we just looked at this picture, would we say, "This is a picture of a dog on a sunny day," or would we say, "This is a picture of a dog jumping to catch a Frisbee"?

Now that the students have identified "who" or "what" the cartoon is about, and the most important information about the "who" or the "what," ask them to count on their fingers to come up with a main idea statement that has 10 words or less. For example:

- The dog is jumping to catch a Frisbee. (8 words)
- The dog is catching a Frisbee in his mouth. (9 words)
- The dog leaps to catch a Frisbee. (7 words)

3. Repeat with other cartoons or pictures if needed, until students clearly understand the concept of main idea and the Get the Gist strategy.
4. Give students a copy of a short passage. The sample lesson is from a science passage about hurricanes.

   - Project a blank main idea form on the overhead (See Figure 29).
   - Preview the passage: Look at illustrations, title, headings, and bold words.
   - Write the title or topic of the selection on the line provided.
   - Prior knowledge: Ask students to think about what they already know about the topic. Accept responses.
   - Read the first paragraph with the students.
   - Reread the paragraph one or two sentences at a time. Think aloud as you identify who or what the paragraph is about and the most important thing about the "who" or "what." Be sure to include in the think aloud the *process* of deciding what is the most important thing and *why*. Record in appropriate spaces on the main idea form.
   - Think aloud the process of identifying important details in the passage. Ask questions such as, "Is this detail important?" "The important information in this sentence is…" "This detail is not important because…" Then record important details in the appropriate column.
   - Think aloud how you make sure that all of the important details are related to the main idea.

- After reading an additional paragraph, show students sample main idea statements, some that are correct and some that are incorrect. Discuss each statement and determine whether it is an accurate statement of the main idea.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

1. Give partners a blank main idea form.
2. Working with a partner, have students read the next paragraph and use the Get the Gist strategy. Ask students to work with their partners to come up with a main idea statement that includes:
    - Who or what the paragraph is about.
    - The most important thing about the "who" or the "what" stated in 10 words or less.
3. Share main idea statements with the class. Think aloud with the class to modify any statements that are inaccurate or incomplete. Also emphasize that all of the main idea statements do not have to be exactly the same in order to be correct.
4. Ask students to record important details that relate to the main idea.
5. Circulate around the room and be available to clarify and check for accurate details. Continue to ask questions such as, "What are the most important details?"
6. At the overhead, ask partners to share the important details and tell why they think the details they selected are important.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners, then individual

Provide an additional short passage or the next few paragraphs in a chapter and have students use a main idea form to develop a main idea statement and record key details.

Initially, have students work with a partner, and after students are more proficient, ask them to use this strategy independently.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
Think about your other classes. Raise your hand if you can think of a way to use the Get the Gist strategy in another class.

Student:
We could use the strategy in science class.

Teacher:
How would that look?

Student:
Well, we could find the main idea of each paragraph as we read the chapter.

Teacher:
That's right. Do you have to have a main idea form to do that?

Student:
Well, we could draw our own form, or we could just come up with a main idea statement for each paragraph and write down the important details.

Teacher:
Good thinking. Does anyone have a science textbook? Let's quickly look at a chapter together and see how we could take notes using the Get the Gist strategy…

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check accuracy of main idea statements and key details.

- Does the main idea statement encompass the significant details of the paragraph?
- Are the details accurate?
- Did students select key details that relate directly to the main idea?

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Students determine the main idea of an entire passage or chapter. This is particularly important in narrative text because state tests, such as the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS), can ask students to identify a correct main idea statement for multiple paragraphs or an entire passage.

- Have students write the main idea statements for each paragraph in the passage.
- Use these statements to determine the main idea of the entire passage.

Students may also use the main idea statements of each paragraph to write a summary of the entire passage or chapter (See page 123 for a sample lesson). Students may also extend the main idea strategy to complete a main idea log (see Figure 53) or some other note-taking form.

Figure 28. Sample Partially Completed Main Idea Form.

MAIN IDEA FORM			
Name(s) ______ Date ______			
Title or Topic of the Selection What are hurricanes?			
Paragraph	Who or What is the Paragraph About?	Most Important Information About the "Who" or "What"	Key Details
1	Hurricanes	are large tropical storms with heavy winds.	• Winds more than 74 mph • Large areas of rain • Produce tornadoes • Cause flooding
2	Hurricanes	form over warm ocean water.	• Water must be over 79 degrees F • If have winds less than 74 mph are called tropical storms
3	Hurricanes	have calm centers with very powerful winds around them.	• Center is called the eye • Eye is 10–30 miles wide • Wind around eye can gust to 186 mph

Note: The complete main idea statement is formed by combining the "Who or What" column with the "Most Important Information" column.

Adapted with permission from Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., Dimino, J., Schumm, J. S., & Bryant, D. (2001). Collaborative strategic reading: Strategies for improving comprehension. *Longmont, CO: Sopris West.*

Figure 29. Main Idea Form.

MAIN IDEA FORM			
Name(s) ______________________ Date ____________			
Title or Topic of the Selection ______________________			
Paragraph	Who or What is the Paragraph About?	Most Important Information About the "Who" or "What"	Key Details

Note: The complete main idea statement is formed by combining the "Who or What" column with the "Most Important Information" column.

Adapted with permission from Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., Dimino, J., Schumm, J. S., & Bryant, D. (2001). Collaborative strategic reading: Strategies for improving comprehension. *Longmont, CO: Sopris West.*

DURING READING

Identifying Text Structures and Using Graphic Organizers

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Portions of this section on developing and using graphic organizers were adapted from Lenz, B. K. (1983). Promoting active learning through effective instruction: Using advance organizers. *Pointer, 27*, 11–13; Sprick, R., Sprick, M., & Garrison, M., (1993). *Interventions: Collaborative planning for students at risk*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West; and University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). *Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices*. Austin, TX: Author.

TEXT STRUCTURES

Good readers use text structure as a context for comprehension. Text structure refers to the organization of text. It is important that students are aware of and are able to recognize different types of text structures. When students identify text structures, they are more likely to activate background knowledge, preview the text efficiently, and understand the purpose of the text. The explicit teaching of text structures and how to recognize them is particularly important for students with learning disabilities and for English language learners (Dickson, Simmons, & Kameenui, 1998). Understanding the relationships among the ideas presented in text alleviates some of the complexity of information-dense expository text. Teachers can support students' understanding of text by using graphic organizers to illustrate how text is organized.

The two broad categories of text that older readers will encounter are narrative text and expository text. Saenz and Fuchs (2002) found that secondary students with learning disabilities must be taught the distinctions between expository and narrative text structures, and this is likely true for other struggling readers as well. It is important to explicitly teach the purpose, characteristics, and key terms related to each type of text. Explain to students how recognizing text structure will help them better understand, or comprehend, what they read.

Narrative text structure is commonly found in English language arts and social studies textbooks, particularly in biographies. Sometimes other textbooks provide biographies of leaders in a subject area (such as famous mathematicians or scientists). Figure 30 describes key elements of narrative text.

Figure 30. Elements of Narrative Text.

Examples	Fiction, Historical Fiction, Science Fiction, Plays, Autobiographies, Biographies, Fantasies, Mysteries, Legends, Folktales, Myths	
Purpose	To entertain or inform	
Characteristics	Follow a familiar story structure **Beginning**: Introduction of setting, characters, and conflict **Middle**: Progression of plot, which includes rising action, climax, and falling action **End**: Resolution or solution to the problem	
Narrative Terms (student-friendly definitions)	**Exposition**	Introduction of setting, characters, background information, and conflict
	Setting	Time and place
	Characters	People, animals, or other entities in the text
	Conflict	Problem
	Internal Conflict	A character's struggle within himself/herself
	External Conflict	A character's struggle with another character
	Rising Action	Events leading up to the climax; trying to solve the problem
	Climax	Emotional high point of the story; conflict is addressed
	Falling Action	Consequences or events caused by the climax
	Resolution	Final outcome

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

Expository texts can have several different text structures, and within one text, the text structure can change multiple times. This can present particular challenges to middle school readers. Figure 31 illustrates elements of expository text. It is helpful to explicitly teach students how to recognize different text structures. Focus on one structure at a time and add more as students master each one.

Figure 31. Elements of Expository Text.

Examples	Newspapers Textbooks Magazine Articles Brochures Catalogues	
Purpose	To inform	
Characteristics	Titles Headings Subheadings Boldface Words Charts Tables Diagrams Graphics	
Organization	One expository passage may be organized using several different text structures.	
Types of Organization	**Cause-Effect**	How or why an event happened; what resulted from an event
	Chronology/Sequence	The order of events/steps in a process
	Compare/Contrast	How two or more things are alike/different
	Description/ Categorization	How something looks, moves, works, etc.; a definition or characterization
	Problem-Solution	What's wrong and how to fix it
	Position-Reason	Why a point or idea should be supported; what's wrong with an idea

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

As they attempt to identify expository text structures, it can be helpful for students to locate signal words commonly associated with different text structures. A list of signal words for each text structure is included in Figure 32 and in the Appendix.

Signal words can help students think about the relationships between ideas, but signal words should be only one piece of information that is used to determine the text structure. Some signal words can indicate more than one text structure. For example, the phrase "for this reason" may signal a cause-and-effect structure or a position-reason structure. It is important that students learn to *focus on what the author is trying to communicate about the information in the text*, rather than relying on only signal words. Figure 33 illustrates the connection between the author's purpose and the text structure typically associated with it. A copy of this figure is included in the Appendix and can be used as a class handout.

As mentioned above, sometimes one passage may contain several different text structures. When there are multiple text structures in a single passage or when it is difficult to identify a text structure, teachers find it helpful to return to the primary focus of the passage or of the lesson. Teachers may ask themselves questions such as, "What is it I want students to know and be able to do as a result of reading the text?" and "What is the organizational pattern inherent in that primary focus?" For example, if a section of science text describes an activity in which students determine what will happen as a result of mixing certain chemicals, the overarching structure may be cause and effect. If, on the other hand, the focus is on comparing mixtures and solutions, the overarching structure may be compare/contrast. If the text describes an activity in which students combine substances and then determine whether this results in mixtures or solutions, the overarching structure is probably description/categorization.

Figure 32. Signal Words.

Cause-Effect		
How or why an event happened; what resulted from an event		
Accordingly	For this reason	Next
As a result of	Hence	Resulting from
Because	How	Since
Begins with	If...then	So that
Consequently	In order to	Therefore
Due to	Is caused by	Thus
Effects of	It follows	When...then
Finally	Leads/led to	Whether

Chronological Order/Temporal Sequencing		
The order of events/steps in a process		
After	Following	On (date)
Afterward	Formerly	Preceding
Around	Immediately	Previously
As soon as	In front of	Second
At last	In the middle	Shortly
Before	Initially	Soon
Between	Last	Then
During	Later	Third
Eventually	Meanwhile	To begin with
Ever since	Next	Until
Finally	Not long after	When
First	Now	While

Compare/Contrast		
How two or more things are alike/different		
Although	Even though	Nevertheless
And	However	On the contrary
As opposed to	In common	On the other hand
As well as	In comparison	Opposite
Better	In contrast	Otherwise
Both	In the same way	Same
But	Instead of	Similar to
Compared with	Just as/like	Similarly
Despite	Less	Still
Different from	Likewise	Whereas
Either	More than	Yet

(figure continued on the next page)

Description/Categorization		
How something looks, moves, works, etc.; a definition or characterization		
Above	Down	Near
Across	For example	On top of
Along	For instance	Onto
Appears to be	Furthermore	Outside
As in	Generally	Over
Behind	Identify	Refers to
Below	In addition	Such as
Beside	In back of	To illustrate
Between	In front of	To the right/left
Consists of	Including	Typically
Describe	Looks like	Under

Problem-Solution		
What's wrong and how to fix it		
Answer	Problem	The problem facing
Challenge	Puzzle	The task was
Clarification	Question	Theory
Difficulty	Reply	This had to be accomplished
Dilemma	Resolution	To fix the problem
How to resolve the issue	Response	To overcome this
Lies	Riddle	Trouble
Obstacles	Solution	Unknown
One solution was	Solved by	What to do
Overcomes	The challenge was	What was discovered
Predicament		

Position-Reason		
Why a point or idea should be supported; what's wrong with an idea		
Accordingly	It is contended	Therefore
As illustrated by	It is evident that	Thesis
Because	It will be argued that	This contradicts the fact that
Consequently	Must take into account	This must be counterbalanced by
For instance	Since	This view is supported by
For this reason	The claim is limited due to	Turn more attention to
In conclusion	The implication is	What is critical
In order for	The position is	What is more central is
It can be established	The strengths of	

Figure 33. Identifying Text Structure.

If the author wants you to know...	The text structure will be...
How or why an event happened; what resulted from an event	**Cause-Effect**
The order of events/steps in a process	**Chronological Order/Sequencing**
How two or more things are alike/different	**Compare/Contrast**
How something looks, moves, works, etc.; a definition or characterization	**Description/Categorization**
What's wrong and how to fix it	**Problem-Solution**
Why a point or idea should be supported; what's wrong with an idea	**Position-Reason**

USING GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS TO HELP STUDENTS ORGANIZE INFORMATION

Graphic organizers help students understand what they read by connecting prior knowledge to new learning (Schwartz, Ellsworth, Graham, & Knight, 1998) and making the relationships within and between concepts clear and visual. Such organizers can be used before, during, and after reading to help students connect new information to prior knowledge, compare and contrast, sequence events, identify important information in the text, see part-to-whole relationships, and categorize information (Schwartz, Ellsworth, Graham, & Knight, 1998; Sprick, Sprick, & Garrison, 1993). Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, and Wei (2004) examined the research on using graphic organizers with students with learning difficulties and concluded that, "Across the board, when the students were taught to use graphic organizers, large effect sizes were demonstrated on researcher-developed reading comprehension post-tests" (p. 114).

Several premade graphic organizers can work well with different types of text. These are often provided with textbooks, but teachers should ensure they correspond to the primary focus of the lesson. It is also relatively easy to design effective graphic organizers yourself that will meet the needs of the specific content of a text.

The steps to designing a graphic organizer are simple but require that teachers have a strong grasp of the concepts they plan to teach and what they expect their students to learn.

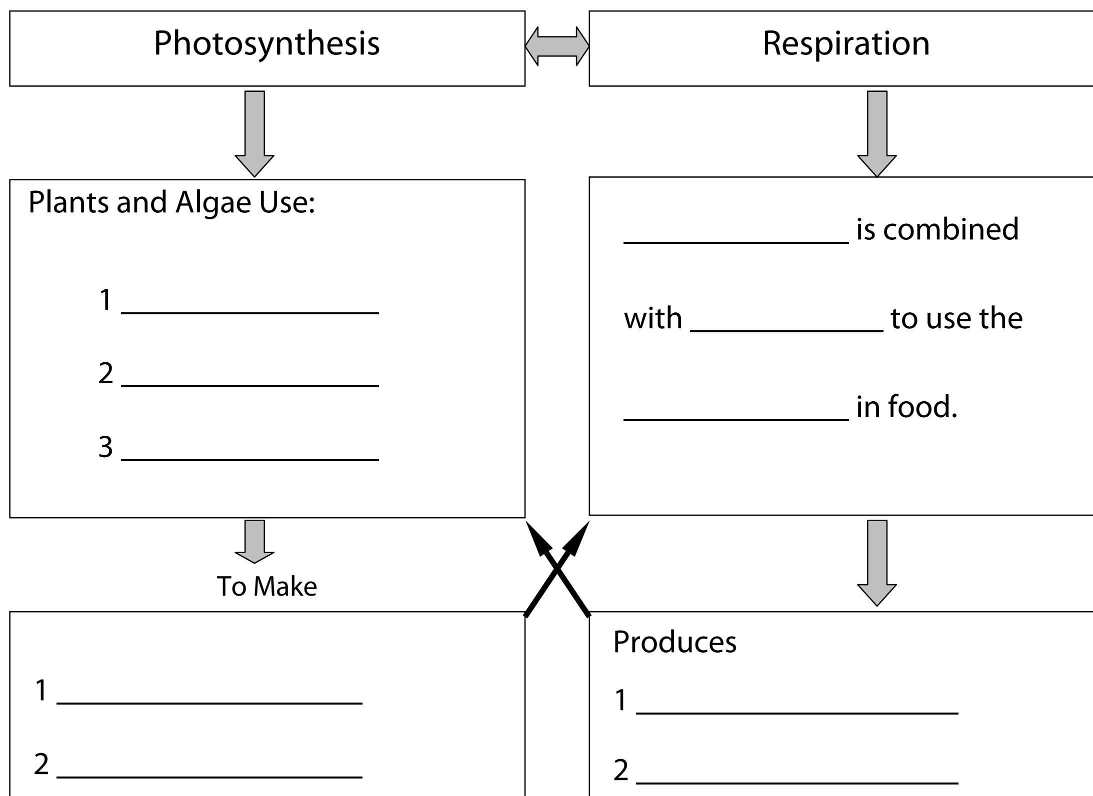
HOW TO DESIGN A GRAPHIC ORGANIZER

1. Read the text and list or outline the most important concepts, or "big ideas," that students need to learn.

2. Identify the overarching text structure of the passage or of a section of the passage.
3. Organize the key concepts in a way that shows how they are related to one another. Your goal is to present the key concepts visually for students.
4. Provide relevant background information such as the relationship to previous lessons. Look for ways to connect to students' prior knowledge.
5. Add any terms, phrases, or ideas that clarify the relationships.
6. Check that the major relationships within and between concepts are clear and presented as simply as possible.
7. Provide blank space for students to fill in appropriate information. Students should be actively engaged in completing the organizer.

It is not necessary to add any peripheral information or "busywork" for students. It is important that the graphic organizer shows only the essential information that students need to learn. Figure 34 shows a graphic organizer that was created specifically for a science lesson.

Figure 34. Teacher-developed Graphic Organizer.



HOW TO USE A GRAPHIC ORGANIZER

Before reading:

- Show the graphic organizer to students and discuss students' prior knowledge.
- Use the graphic organizer as a tool to preview the chapter or text.
- Ask students to make predictions about the text based on the graphic organizer.

During reading:

- Have students fill in important information as they read the text.
- Confirm and/or modify students' predictions about the text.

After reading:

- Have students write a summary of the chapter or text using the graphic organizer as a guide.
- Have students use the graphic organizer to present the content orally to a peer, tutor, or mentor.
- Have students write study guide or test questions based on the graphic organizer.

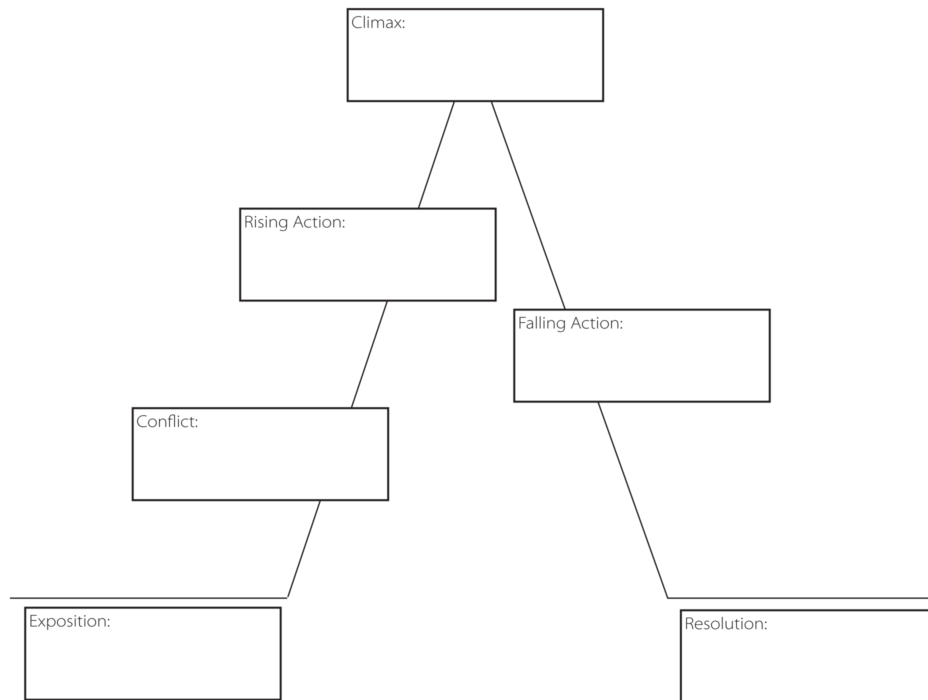
SAMPLE GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS

There are several types of graphic organizers that work well for different purposes. Samples of the following types are included in the Appendix.

Story Map

A story map is a graphic organizer designed for narrative text. Story maps may include elements such as exposition or introduction, conflict or problem, rising action, climax, falling action, and the resolution. Story maps may also contain a description of the characters and setting. Figure 35 is a sample story map.

Figure 35. Sample Story Map.

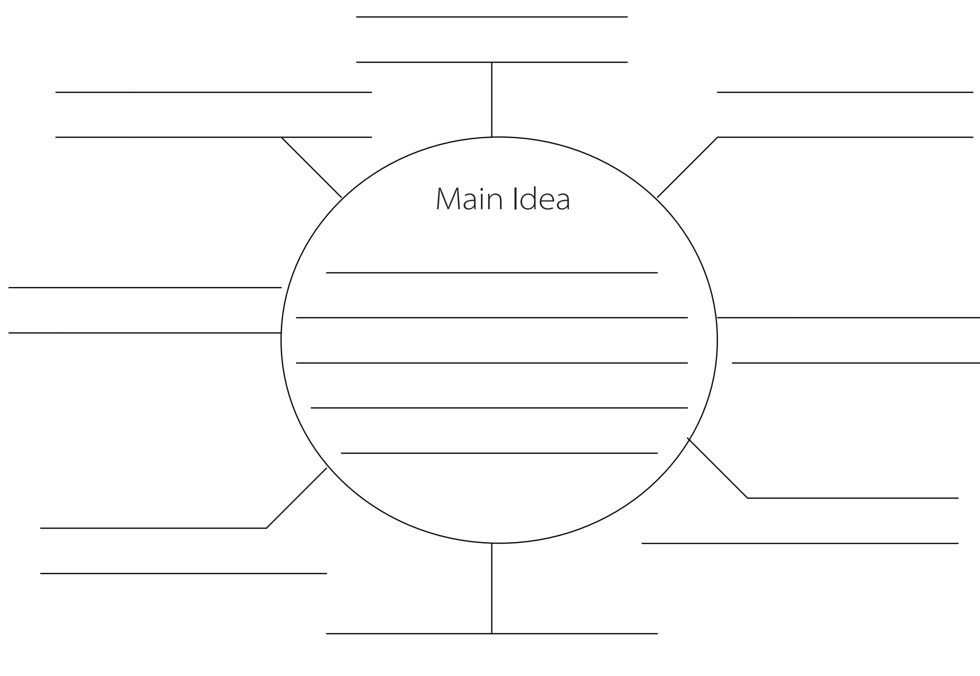


Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

Main Idea Web

A main idea web is a simple graphic organizer that can be used with paragraphs, sections of a chapter, or entire textbook chapters.

Figure 36. Main Idea Web.



Know and Learn Charts

The Know and Learn Chart is a simple variation of the Know, Want to Know, and Learned (K-W-L) Chart (Ogle, 1986). This organizer can be made with two pieces of chart paper—one completed before and one after reading, or it can be written on the chalkboard or an overhead transparency. The goal of this organizer is to show students how to think about what they already know about a topic before reading and then to verify and modify their thinking after reading. Before reading a passage or chapter, ask students what they already know about the topic. Write all of their responses under the "K" on the chart. Then, after reading the passage or chapter, return to the chart, and with the students, think through which of their answers are correct and which answers need to be changed or modified.

Figure 37. Know and Learn Chart.

Know	**L**earn
What do I already know?	What did I learn?

Adapted with permission from Ogle, D. M. (1986). K-W-L: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. The Reading Teacher, 39*, 564–570.*

Partially Completed Outline

Students can complete this type of organizer either individually or in pairs while they are taking notes or as they read the text. Figure 38 illustrates a portion of a partially completed outline designed for a specific science text.

Figure 38. Sample Partially Completed Outline.

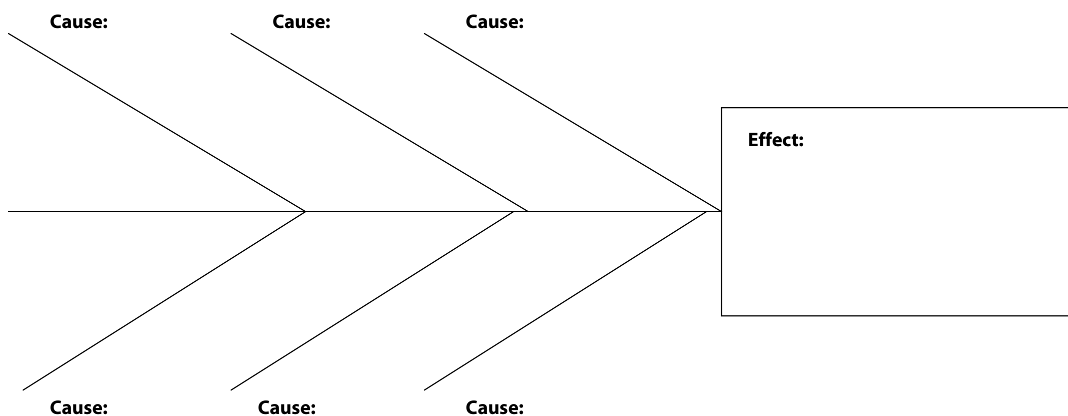
Life in the Ocean
I. Things the oceans provide for organisms A. ____________________ 1. Allows easy ____________________ 2. Ocean organisms use less __________ to move around B. ____ C. ________________ for life processes D. ____________________ outside the parents' bodies E. ____________________________________ (p. 317) F. ____________________________________ (p. 317)

Graphic Organizers Based on Specific Text Structures

Text structures can be represented by a variety of graphic organizers. Teachers may choose to have students compete only one of these organizers to represent a single overarching text structure, or the organizers can be combined or used sequentially to represent more than one important text structure within a lesson.

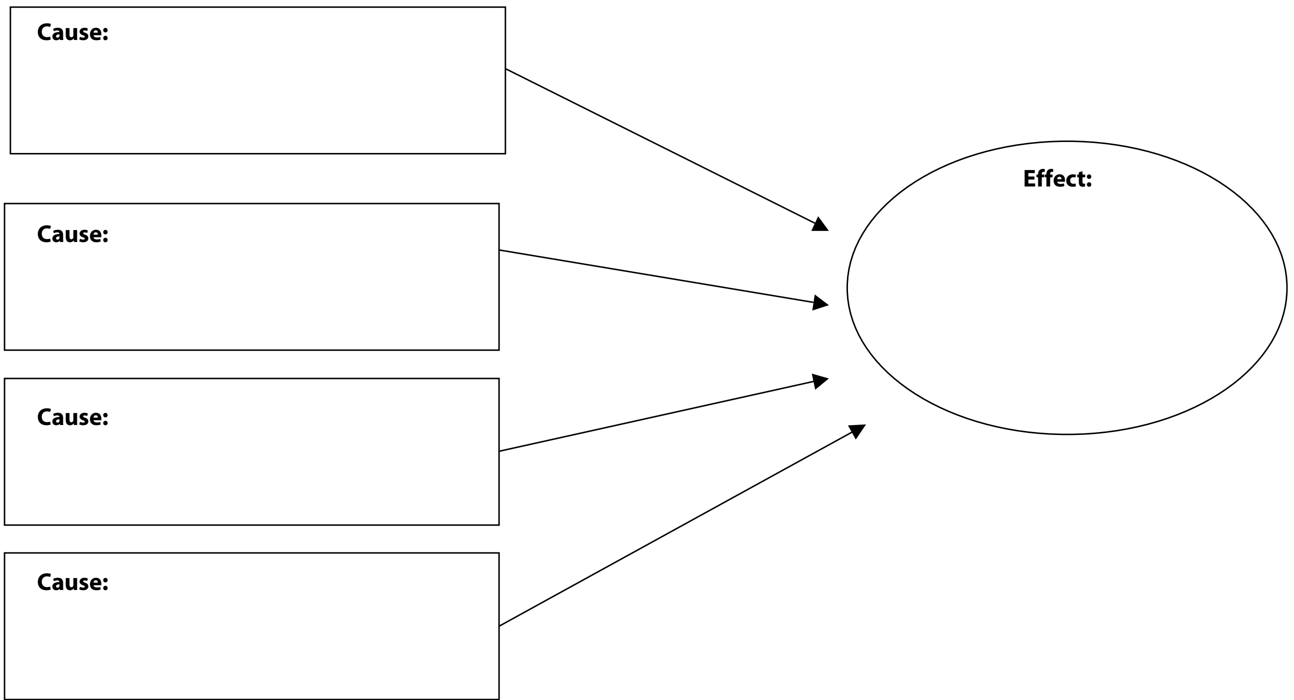
Cause-Effect (how or why an event happened; what resulted from an event)

Figure 39. Cause-Effect Herringbone.



Based on Jones, B. F., Pierce, J., & Hunter, B. (1989). Teaching students to construct graphic representations. Educational Leadership, *46(4), 20–25.*

Figure 40. Cause-Effect Semantic Map.



Chronology/Sequence (the order of events/steps in a process)

Figure 41. Chronology/Sequence Graphic Organizer.

Figure 42. Temporal Sequencing Example.

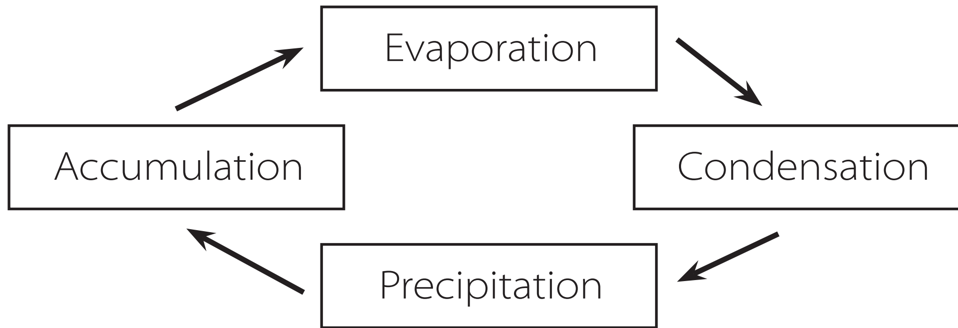
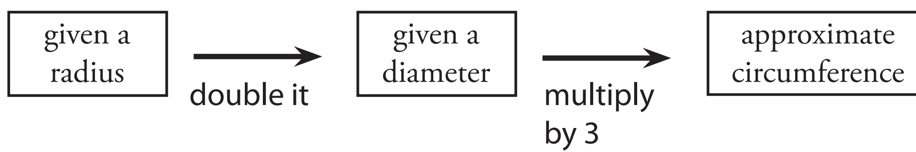
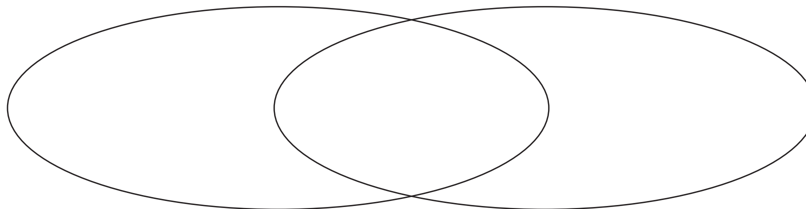


Figure 43. Chronological Ordering/Sequencing Example.



Compare/Contrast (how two or more things are alike/different)

Figure 44. Compare/Contrast Graphic Organizer.



Description/Categorization (how something looks, moves, works, etc.; a definition or characterization)

Figure 45. Description Graphic Organizer (Web).

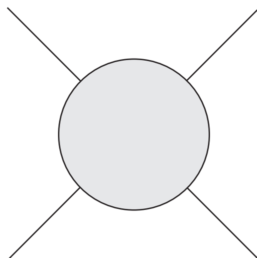


Figure 46. Description Graphic Organizer Example 1 (Chart).

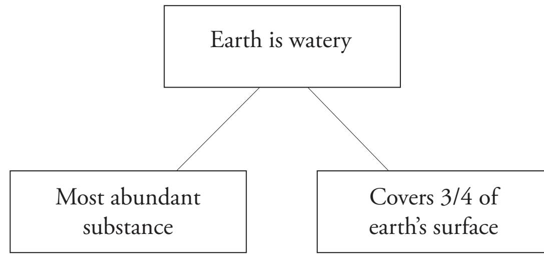
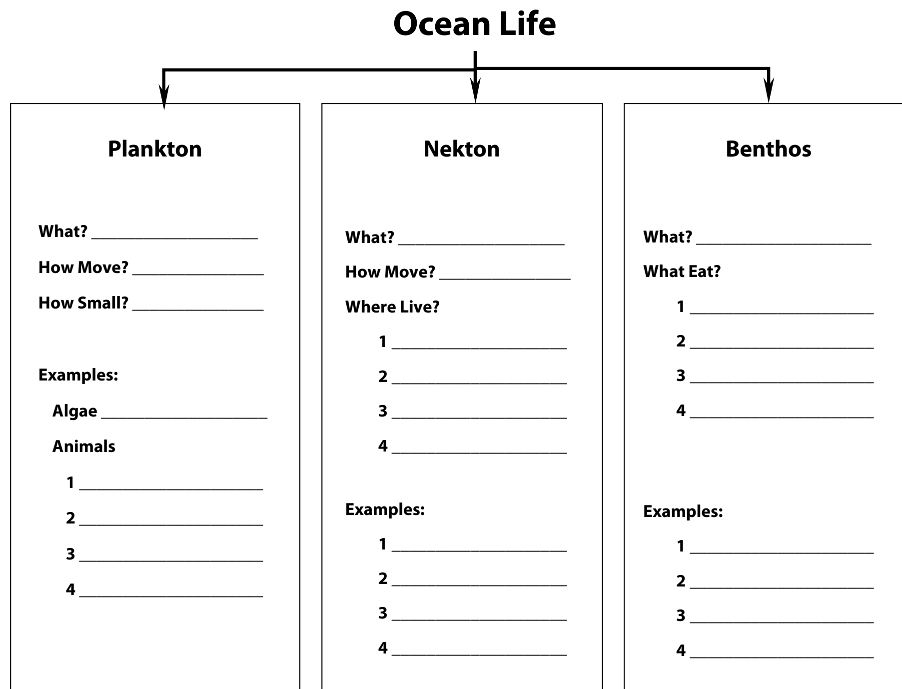


Figure 47. Description Graphic Organizer Example 2 (Chart).



Problem-Solution (what's wrong and how to fix it)

Figure 48. Problem-Solution Graphic Organizer.

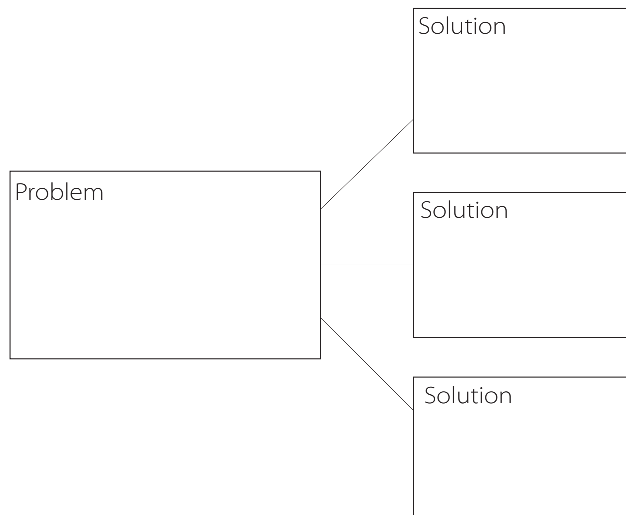
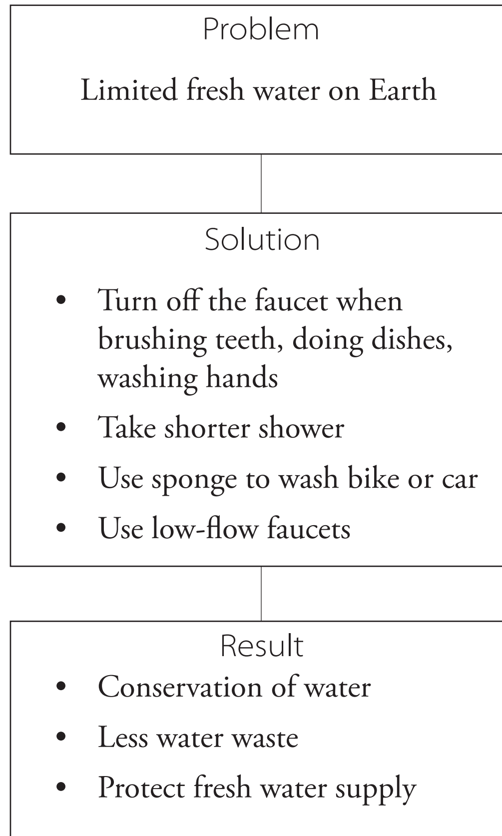
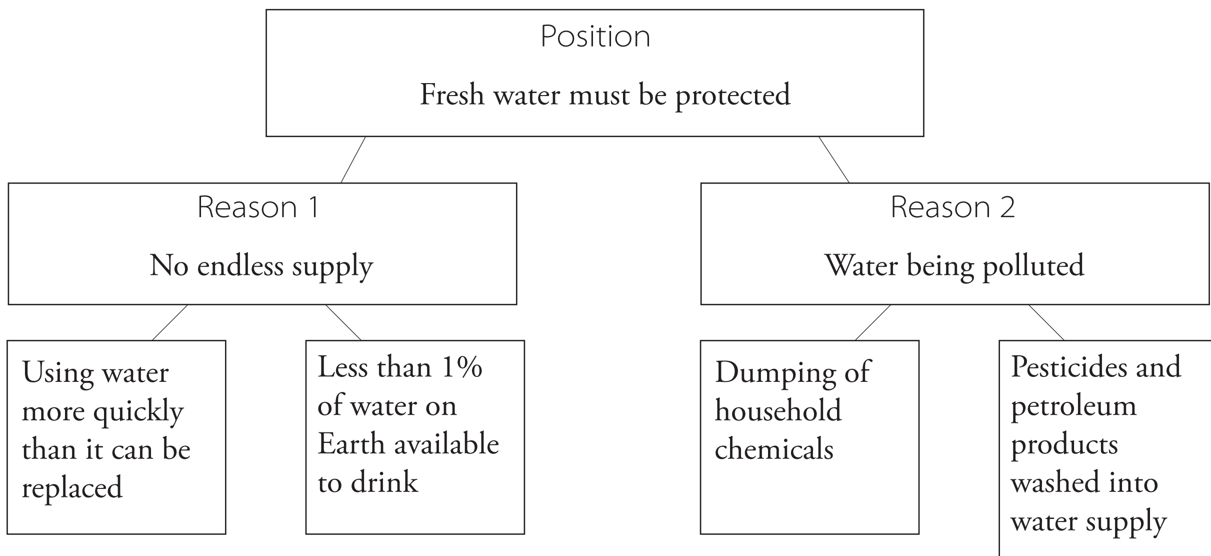


Figure 49. Problem-Solution-Result Graphic Organizer Example.



Position-Reason (why a point or idea should be supported; what's wrong with an idea)

Figure 50. Position-Reason Graphic Organizer Example.



AFTER-READING **SAMPLE LESSON**
Summarizing Text

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005b). *REWARDS Plus: Reading strategies applied to social studies passages*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

OBJECTIVE

Students will write a summary that is concise and includes the most important information from an entire passage.

MATERIALS

- Text (expository or narrative); expository for introductory lessons.
- Figure 51: How to Write a Summary.
- Transparency of a chapter with main idea statements (ideally from a recent lesson).

DAILY REVIEW

Review Get the Gist with students.

> **Teacher:**
> Yesterday we read Chapter 6 and found the main idea of several paragraphs. How did we find the main idea of each paragraph, Joel?

Accept responses. Students should recall that after reading each paragraph they decided who or what the paragraph was mainly about and what was the most important information about the "who" or the "what". Then they came up with a main idea statement in 10 words or less.

Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998; Vaughn, Klingner, & Schumm, 1996; Vaughn & Klingner, 1999

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today we are going to use our main idea statements to come up with a summary of an entire passage. A summary is a shortened version of something, and it contains only the most important points. Summarizing will help you in all reading because the overall goal of any reading is to understand the most important points. Summarizing is a skill you will be expected to use throughout your life. You may be asked to give a summary of a phone conversation or a summary of what was discussed in a meeting. You can impress your friends, your teacher, your parents, and maybe someday even your boss with good summarizing skills.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Expository
Grouping: Whole class

Introduce Summarizing

One way to introduce students to summarizing is through a movie clip.

1. If possible, show your students an appropriate scene or segment from a popular movie.
2. Tell students that you are going to show them several written summaries of the scene and that you want them to pick the best summary. Remind students that a good summary will be a shortened version of the scene and will include only the most important information.
3. Show students several correct examples and incorrect examples of good summaries of the scene. Correct examples should be short summaries that include only the most important points. Incorrect examples can be lengthy and/or include information that is either irrelevant or too general.
4. Discuss each summary with the class and identify whether each statement is an accurate or inaccurate summary of the scene. Elicit discussion to emphasize the reasons that nonexamples are not good summaries.

Model Summarizing

Display the following procedure for writing a summary and lead students through each step.

Figure 51. How to Write a Summary.

Summary: A shortened version of something that includes only the most important ideas.	
HOW TO WRITE A SUMMARY	
Step 1	LIST the main ideas for each paragraph in the passage.
Step 2	UNDERLINE the main idea statements that include the most important ideas from the passage.
Step 3	COMBINE any ideas that could go into one sentence.
Step 4	NUMBER the ideas in a logical order.
Step 5	WRITE your summary in one paragraph.
Step 6	EDIT your summary.

Adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005b). REWARDS Plus: Reading strategies applied to social studies passages. *Longmont, CO: Sopris West.*

Display all of the main idea statements from section one of Chapter 6 on the overhead.

Teacher:
Today we are going to write a summary for Section 1 of Chapter 6. We completed Step 1 of the Summarizing Strategy yesterday in class: LIST the main ideas for each paragraph in the passage. Let's review the statements we wrote. Catherine, will you read the first statement?

Call on individual students to read a main idea statement until you have read through them all.

Step 2 asks us to UNDERLINE the main idea statements that include the most important ideas from the passage. Look at each main idea statement again and discuss with the class which main ideas to keep, which to leave out, and why.

Constantly remind students that only the most important information goes in the summary. Model the process of deciding which ideas are important.

Now that we have identified only those main idea statements that contained the most important information, Step 3 asks us to COMBINE any ideas that could go into one sentence.

Think aloud as you read the statements and identify some that could be combined into a single sentence. Discuss these decisions with the students.

Step 4 says we should NUMBER the ideas in a logical order. We need to read the main idea statements and decide how to put them in order so that they make sense.

Think aloud through the process of ordering the remaining main idea statements.

Teacher:
Once we have underlined the important statements, combined the ones that go together, and numbered all the remaining ideas in an order that makes sense, we are ready to write our summary. The summary should be only one paragraph long.

Continue to think aloud as you write on an overhead transparency a summary that is several sentences in length, is a shortened version of the passage, and contains the most important information from the passage.

The last step is to EDIT the summary. When we edit something we have written, we check for correct capital letters, punctuation, spelling, and, most of all, whether what we have written makes sense.

Model checking capitalization, punctuation, and spelling one at a time. Finally, be sure to read the entire summary to model the process of checking to be sure it makes sense.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Small groups or partners

Step 1. Direct students to look at the next section of Chapter 6. Project the main idea statements for Section 2 of Chapter 6 on the overhead. Pass out one copy of the same main idea statements to each group or pair of students. Give students 2–3 minutes to read all of the main idea statements with their partners or small groups.

Step 2. Give students 1–2 minutes to think about and discuss the section as a whole with their partners or small groups. Then call on individual students to share their thoughts on the big ideas of the section. Next ask students to underline the main idea statements that are most closely related to those big ideas. Give them 2–3 minutes, and then ask for volunteers to share which statements they excluded and why. Based on their responses and the class discussion, underline important statements on the overhead.

Step 3. Give students 2–3 minutes to decide whether any of the statements can be combined into one sentence. Again ask volunteers to share, lead the class in discussion of the decisions, and note which statements can be combined on the overhead.

Step 4. Give students 3–4 minutes to number the statements to put them into a logical order. Again ask volunteers to share, lead the class in discussion of the decisions, and number the statements on the overhead.

Step 5. Give students 5–7 minutes to use the statements to develop a summary of Section 2 of Chapter 6. Then ask for volunteers to share their summaries. Discuss the accuracy of each summary by asking, “Is this a shortened version of the section?” and “Does this summary include the most important information from the section?” If needed, discuss ways to modify the summaries.

Step 6. Give students 3–4 minutes to edit their summaries. Remind them first to check capital letters, then punctuation, then spelling, and, finally, to read their summaries to be sure that they make sense.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

Ask students to read a short passage or chapter one paragraph at a time. Students can alternate reading paragraphs aloud to each other. After each paragraph, tell students to discuss who or what the paragraph was mainly about and the most important information about the "who" or the "what". Then ask students to write a main idea statement for the paragraph in 10 words or less.

Review steps 1–6 of how to write a summary, in Figure 51, and ask students to work through each step with their partner.

Circulate around the room and be available for assistance.

Depending on the length of the chapter or passage, students will probably need 30–60 minutes to complete steps 1–6.

When all pairs have a summary written, ask for volunteers to share their summaries.

Discuss and evaluate each summary.

HELPFUL HABIT | Even though this is independent practice, it is essential that you circulate around the room while groups are working in order to check for understanding and to provide guidance and additional modeling as needed.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
How can you use your summarization skills outside of this class?

Student:
Our English tests always ask us to choose the best summary.

Teacher:
That's right. Many tests will ask you either to choose the best summary or to write a summary yourself. Why do you think teachers want to know whether you can identify or write a summary?

Student:
Because teachers want to know whether we understand the most important information.

Teacher:
Exactly. Summarizing indicates that you most likely understand the most important ideas from your reading.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check that students have appropriately excluded any main idea statements that are irrelevant or redundant.

Check for accurate and concise summaries that are a shortened version of the reading and include the important ideas or information from the entire passage or chapter.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Chapter Summary

Grouping: Pairs, small groups, or individuals

1. Rather than having students read an entire chapter, assign each pair or group of students a section of a chapter to read and complete all six steps of writing a summary.
2. Return to whole group and one section at a time, in consecutive order, have students read their section summary.
3. Write down the summary for each section.

Choosing a Summary

Grouping: Pairs, small groups, or individuals

1. After reading a passage or chapter, show students several correct examples and incorrect examples of summaries.
2. Ask students to choose the best summary.
3. Ask students to share their responses. Discuss why each option is either a correct example or an incorrect example of a summary.

Completing a Summary

Grouping: Pairs or individuals

1. Write a summary of a passage or chapter but leave out one sentence (see Figure 52).
2. Give students three or four sentence choices to complete the summary, with only one sentence being correct.
3. Ask students to choose the best sentence to complete the summary and discuss why the other sentences are incorrect.

Figure 52. Example of Choosing a Summary.

Summary of "The Princess and the Pea" by Hans Christian Andersen
Once upon a time, there was a prince who wanted to marry a princess. He searched and searched, but it was very difficult to find a real princess. During a storm, the old king heard a knock at the city gate and found a girl standing soaking wet in the rain. She said that she was a real princess, but she certainly didn't look like one! The old queen decided to test this girl. She put a single pea underneath 20 mattresses that the princess had to lie upon all night. ______________________________. Now they all knew that this girl was a real princess because only a true princess could be that sensitive. She and the prince were married and the pea was put in a museum.
Which sentence best completes the summary? a. No ordinary person could feel a pea under all those mattresses. b. The next morning, the princess said she didn't sleep at all because she was lying on something hard. c. The mattresses were decorated with gold-and-purple-laced pillows. d. The queen also stacked 20 blankets on top of the 20 mattresses.

AFTER-READING **SAMPLE LESSON**

Wrap-up/Main Idea Log

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). *Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices*. Austin, TX: Author.

OBJECTIVE

Students will complete a main idea log by identifying important information, developing a main idea statement, generating questions, and writing possible test questions based on the information in the text.

MATERIALS

- Textbook chapter or short passage.
- Blank main idea log overhead transparency (see Figure 53 for main idea log).
- Several blank main idea logs (student copies).

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
We have been practicing writing main idea statements. About how many words should the main idea be, Yeimi? That's right, 10. Who can tell me the two components of a main idea? That's right, who or what the paragraph is about and the most important information about the "who" or "what".

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today we are going to learn how to complete a main idea log. Completing a main idea log will help you understand what you read. You can also use this log as a study guide. You will practice finding important information; writing the main idea of a passage in 10 words or less; generating questions; and making up test questions.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Expository
Grouping: Whole class

1. Provide an instructional-level passage to students. (See the Assessing Reading Fluency section of Chapter 2: Selecting and Administering Assessments to learn how to determine whether a text is at a student's frustration, instructional, or independent reading level.)
2. Preview the text: To determine the topic of the article or chapter, direct students to look at the:
   - Title/subtitle.
   - Headings/subheadings.
   - Boldface words.
   - Illustrations.
   - Charts.
   - Graphs.
   - Maps.
   - Diagrams.
3. Prior knowledge: Ask questions about what students already know about the topic of the passage.
4. Read the passage aloud with the students. There are several ways to read a passage with your class:
   a. **Last word:** Modeling fluent reading, the teacher reads the passage aloud and stops at the last word of every sentence. Then, the students chorally read the last word of each sentence. All students are encouraged to follow along with a pencil or finger. It sounds like this:

      Teacher:
      Suddenly, the dog jumped over the…

      Students:
      …fence.

      Teacher:
      The little girl followed after…

Students:
…him.

b. **Choral reading (repeated):** The teacher reads a sentence or two and then students read the same sentences chorally. This way the students have heard a model of fluent reading before they read the sentences.

c. **Choral reading (alternating):** The teacher reads one to two sentences. Then, students read next one to two sentences chorally. Continue to alternate teacher reading and students reading chorally.

d. **Highlighted sections:** Highlight sentences or groups of sentences like you would lines in a play. Students follow along and read their highlighted section at the appropriate time.

5. Project a blank main idea log on an overhead.
6. Think aloud as you complete the form. Identify three or four important ideas from the entire passage. Record the ideas in the first section.
7. Using the important information, create a main idea statement with 10 words or less. Record the statement in the next section. Emphasize that the main idea is concise (10 words or less) and about the entire passage.
8. Generate three questions about the entire passage using question starters: who, what, when, where, why, and how. Record them in the third section.
9. Create at least one question about the passage that students might see on a test. Record it in the final section.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Small groups

1. Provide students with a second instructional-level passage.
2. Ask students to preview the passage and identify the topic.
3. Connect the topic of the passage with students' prior knowledge by questioning or providing statements about the topic.
4. Read the passage with the students.
5. Place a second blank main idea log on an overhead.
6. One section at a time, lead students through each section of the log:

   a. Allow small groups 3–5 minutes to find important ideas. Ask each group to share one important idea from the passage. Record four of these on the overhead log.

   b. Allow small groups 3–5 minutes to formulate a main idea statement. Ask each group to share its statement. Discuss the accuracy of the statements: Are they concise? Are they about the entire passage? Record one example on the overhead log.

c. Allow small groups 4–5 minutes to generate questions. Ask each group to share one question. Record examples on the overhead log.

d. Allow small groups 3–5 minutes to formulate a test question. Ask each group to share its question. Record an example on the overhead log.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Small groups or partners

1. Provide an independent-level passage to partners or small groups.
2. Ask partners or small groups to preview the passage and identify the topic.
3. Direct partners or groups to tell each other one thing they already know about the topic.
4. Have students read the passage aloud to each other.
5. Instruct partners or small groups to complete the main idea log.
6. Circulate around the room and check for accurate responses.
7. Ask partners or groups to share either a main idea statement or a possible test question with the class.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
How could you use the main idea log in your other classes?

Student:
We could use it to study for science or social studies tests.

Teacher:
How would that work?

Student:
We could come up with our own test questions.

Teacher:
That's right. What else?

Student:
As we are reading the chapter, we could write down the most important ideas from the passage and come up with the main idea of the entire chapter. Then we could use our main idea logs to quiz our friends.

Teacher:
Very good. I know you have a social studies test on Friday over Chapter 12. Why don't we complete a main idea log together, and then you can use it to help you study for the test?

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check main idea logs for:

- Important information that is related to the entire text.
- Use of important information to develop the main idea statement.
- Questions that relate to the important information.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Main Idea Logs

Periodically, have students complete a main idea log with an instructional-level passage (guided practice) or an independent-level passage (independent practice).

Main Idea Logs Using Science and Social Studies

Choose an interesting chapter in your students' grade-level science or social studies text. Have students work in partners to complete a main idea log using the science or social studies chapter as the text.

Student-generated Questions

1. After reading a passage, chapter, or story, ask partners or small groups to generate questions and make a quiz over the text.
2. Collect all quizzes.
3. Have each group take a quiz made up by another group in the class.
4. Discuss questions and answers.

Figure 53. Main Idea Log.

MAIN IDEA LOG
Title of passage: ____________________
Identify three or four important ideas from the passage: 1. ____________________ 2. ____________________ 3. ____________________ 4. ____________________
Write the main idea of the entire passage (10 words or less): ____________________ ____________________
Generate three questions about the important ideas: (Who? What? When? Where? Why? How?) 1. ____________________ 2. ____________________ 3. ____________________
Create one question about the passage that might be on a test: ____________________

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Chapter 7
Vocabulary

TERMS TO KNOW

Academic words	More complex, frequently occurring words; words that students will see and use often in academic settings
Common words	Most basic words such as *run*, *dog*, and *play*, used in everyday conversation
Content-specific words	Highly specialized words that are related to a specific discipline and not frequently encountered
Context clues	Surrounding words or phrases that provide a reader with information about the meaning of unfamiliar words
Vocabulary	The words a student is able to recognize and use orally or in writing

Bos & Vaughn, 2006; Beck, Mckeown, & Kucan, 2002; Encarta World English Dictionary; Baumann, Font, Edwards, & Boland, 2005

INTRODUCTION

Comprehension, or understanding, is the ultimate goal of reading (NICHD, 2000). The goal of instruction in **vocabulary**, fluency, and word recognition, then, is to improve reading comprehension. The next sections include lessons to improve vocabulary, word recognition, and fluency skills. These skills are important and necessary because of their relationship to the ultimate goal: comprehension.

Vocabulary Instruction➔Fluency Instruction➔
Word Recognition Instruction➔Comprehension

The next set of lessons will focus on vocabulary instruction. This section will focus on reading vocabulary, or words in print that a student understands. Minimal vocabulary instruction is designed to support the reading of the text, whereas more elaborate instruction shifts the focus from the story to the words. This type of elaborate instruction is particularly important for English language learners (Stahl, 1999).

In order to design effective vocabulary instruction for all students, it is important to know:

- How to identify common, academic, and content-specific words.
- How to choose words to teach.
- How to plan for instruction.

WORD TYPES

In their book *Bringing Words to Life*, Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) suggest that a literate person's vocabulary consists of three tiers, or levels, of words. The first level, which we will call **common words**, includes the most basic words such as *dog*, *go*, *happy*, *walk*, etc. These words, especially in upper grades and with native English speakers, do not normally require explicit instruction. The third level includes **content-specific** words that are rarely seen or used. Content-specific words such as *neptunium* or *sonata* are best taught when students need to know the word in order to understand what they are reading or during a specialized lesson in a content area or elective class.

Teachers should prioritize instruction to focus on **academic words**, or words that students will see often and use often in a variety of settings. (Examples include *coincidence*, *pollution*, *neutral*, and *fortunate*.) These words are particularly important for comprehending textbook material, literature, and academic lectures and conversations.

Figure 54. Which Words Do I Teach?

Which Words do I Teach? 3-Tier Vocabulary			
Type	Definition	Examples	Instruction
Common words	Basic words used often in everyday conversation	dog go happy drink phone play afraid	These words do not need to be explicitly taught, especially in upper grades with native English speakers.
Academic words	More complex, frequently occurring words in academic settings	coincidence pollution neutral fortunate admire plead represent environment collaborate	Teach these words. Students will see and use these words often in academic texts.
Content-specific words	Highly specialized words that are related to a specific discipline	pogrom quagmire locution polyglot neptunium sonata isosceles nova	Teach these words when a specific lesson requires knowledge of the word and underlying concept.

Based on Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2002). Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction. *New York: Guilford.*

CHOOSING WORDS TO TEACH

One mistake that even good teachers make is relying solely on **context clues** to provide word meaning to students. As a teacher of older struggling readers, many of whom with impoverished vocabularies, it is easy to be overwhelmed by the number of words that students need to learn. Heavy reliance on context clues, however, is simply not adequate vocabulary instruction (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). Teachers can make instructional time more efficient by choosing the correct words to teach.

First, preview reading material in search of academic words.

When previewing text, remember to choose words that:

- Students *must know* in order to understand what they read.
- Students *are likely to use and encounter frequently*.

(Lehr, Osborn, & Hiebert, 2004)

In *Narrowing the Language Gap: The Case for Explicit Vocabulary Instruction*, Feldman and Kinsella (2005) suggest guidelines for choosing words to teach:

> **Big-idea words:** These are the words that directly relate to what is being read. Teachers can waste valuable time teaching words that are unfamiliar to students and that are not critical to their understanding of the text. Feldman and Kinsella refer to this as “lexical accessorizing [or] … spending an inordinate amount of time explicating words peripheral to the central themes and issues, yet intriguing to the teacher or a small cadre of precocious students” (p. 9). Similarly, many textbook editions feature vocabulary lists full of rare and unusual words that are indeed unfamiliar to students, but are also unlikely ever to be used or encountered frequently by students (Lehr, Osborn, & Hiebert, 2004). Effective teachers preview the text that students are going to read and teach academic and content-specific words that students must understand in order to comprehend the text.

> **Multiple-meaning words:** It may be particularly important to teach multiple-meaning words, or words that have different meaning in different subject areas. An ocean *wave* in science is different from a *wave* of fear in literature, and these concepts may confuse students if not directly addressed. Multiple-meaning words can be particularly confusing for English language learners. Even simple words like *run* can confuse an English language learner when the word is used to mean very different things in different sentences (e.g., a *run* on a bank versus a *run* in a stocking). In general, it is important to teach words that students are not likely to learn outside of school but that students will encounter again in academic settings.

Here is a helpful checklist for planning vocabulary instruction:

Figure 55. Checklist for Planning Vocabulary Instruction.

Planning for Vocabulary Instruction Checklist	
	PREVIEW the text.
IDENTIFY: (You may not be able to directly teach all of these words.)	
	Academic words and *critical* content-specific words.
	Big-idea and multiple-meaning words.
	Words students must understand in order to comprehend the text.
	Words that may be unfamiliar to students.
ELIMINATE:	
	Words that are adequately defined in context. Discuss these words while reading instead of pre-teaching the words.
	Words likely to be in students' background knowledge. Discuss these words during the activation of prior knowledge part of the lesson.
	Words students may know based on structure: prefix, suffix, or base word. Discuss the meaning of these word parts before or during reading, as necessary.

Based on Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2002). Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction. *New York: Guilford; Feldman, K., & Kinsella, K. (2005).* Narrowing the language gap: The case for explicit vocabulary instruction. *New York: Scholastic; and Lehr, F., Osborn, J., & Hiebert, E. H. (2004).* A focus on vocabulary. *Honolulu, HI: Pacific Resources for Education and Learning.*

The following sections include vocabulary lessons designed to empower students with knowledge of words and their meaning, the ability to understand and use the words they learn, and a curiosity about the words around them. The goal is to give students ownership of their own vocabulary.

The vocabulary lessons are organized in the following manner:

Word knowledge
- Semantic mapping
- Semantic feature analysis
- Generating examples and nonexamples of words

Word consciousness
- Prepared participation
- Possible sentences

Word learning
- Word parts
- Context clues
- Vocabulary strategy

WORD KNOWLEDGE

Semantic mapping (Heimlich & Pittleman, 1986; Reyes & Bos, 1998; Scanlon, Duran, Reyes, & Gallego, 1992; Schifini, 1994), semantic feature analysis (Anders & Bos, 1986; Bos & Anders, 1992; Reyes & Bos, 1998), and generating examples and nonexamples of questions (Baumann & Kame'enui, 1999; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986) are research-based instructional practices designed to teach word meaning. Research suggests that knowledge is stored in categories and that words are linked in our memory to other words, or concepts, based on their relationships to each other (Rumelheart, 1980; Anderson, 1980), so a student's ability to retain new word meaning is directly related to that student's ability to associate the new word with his/her prior knowledge. Therefore, it is important to activate a student's background knowledge when introducing a new word or concept. This approach helps improve retention of new word meaning.

English language learners, in particular, benefit from instruction showing relationships between words, especially synonyms, antonyms, and word family associations (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004; Grognet et al., 2000). It is also helpful to give examples of a new word in different parts of speech (e.g. *enthusiasm*, *enthusiastic*, *enthusiastically*). Provide a meaningful sentence for each word.

Semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis, and word maps are effective because:

- They are flexible, adaptable, and require minimal preparation time.
- They activate students' prior knowledge of words or concepts.
- They help students understand the relationship between words.
- They may improve students' recall of word meaning.

WORD CONSCIOUSNESS

"Word consciousness" refers to a student's interest in and awareness of words (Graves, Juel, & Graves, 1998). A word-conscious student is interested in learning new words and knows a lot of words. This kind of student loves to use words, pursues the discovery of interesting words, and understands that words can be used to communicate precisely and clearly (Graves, Juel, & Graves, 1998). Teachers should encourage students to be word-conscious by modeling their own love of words. Teachers can model their interest in words by pointing out unique or intriguing words during in-class reading. Teachers can also model the use of precise words by explaining to students their own word choices. For example, a teacher may start the day by telling students that during the storms the previous night the winds were howling. Then the teacher could explain that *howling* is a good word to use when describing how strong winds sound because the word *howling* makes us think of the sound of a howling animal. In addition to modeling a love of words and the use of effective words, it is important to praise students for their use of clever or precise words in their speaking or writing (Graves, Juel, & Graves, 1998).

Further suggestions for promoting word consciousness:

- Guide students to understand the difference between the ways words are used in written language and conversation.

- Have students keep a journal of effective written language, including well-written descriptions, figurative language, or dialogue.
- Write a dull version of a particularly well-written paragraph or chapter, and read both versions to the class. Discuss the differences and what makes language effective and exciting.
- Incorporate word plays such as palindromes, puns, jokes, and riddles into your instructional routines (Stahl, 1999).

(Texas Reading Initiative, 2000)

WORD LEARNING

Teachers cannot directly teach students every single word they need to know. They can, however, teach some words directly and then equip students with independent word-learning tools, or ways to figure out word meaning on their own as they read. Teaching students how to recognize and analyze word parts is one such independent word-learning tool. Another way to teach independent word learning is through the use of context clues to infer the meaning of unknown words. Recent research on teaching word learning to middle school students suggests that combining word part clue and context clue strategies is a powerful way to increase your students' ability to discover word meaning independently (Baumann, Font, Edwards, & Boland, 2005; Andersen & Nagy, 1992; Sternberg, 1987). Word parts and context clues may be taught separately, but should eventually be combined so that students realize that they might have to try more than one strategy in order to figure out a word's meaning while they are reading.

WORD KNOWLEDGE **SAMPLE LESSON**
Semantic Mapping

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Based on Heimlich, J. E., & Pittelman, S. V. (1986). *Semantic mapping: Classroom applications*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

TERMS TO KNOW

Criteria chart	A list of standards that define and clarify a task or assignment. This list should be brainstormed and developed with your students.
Rubric	A scoring guide in which the standards from the criteria chart are assigned a point value

INTRODUCTION

The following sample lesson is based on the short story *The Ghost of the Lagoon* by Armstrong Sperry. Semantic mapping can be used with simple or advanced concepts and is equally effective with both narrative and expository text.

OBJECTIVE

The students will associate new word meaning with prior knowledge through the use of a semantic map.

MATERIALS

- Text (narrative or expository).
- Overhead projector, chalkboard, or chart paper.

PREPARATION

Preview the text, looking for academic words, or challenging words that students are likely to see and use often in academic settings. Identify content-specific words that students must know in order to understand the text.

Figure 56. Sample Word List.

The Ghost of the Lagoon by Armstrong Sperry
TARGET WORDS
Island
Harpoon
Phosphorus
Lagoon
Risk
Expedition
Reef
Native
Canoe

Sperry, A. (1984). The ghost of the lagoon. In C. G. Waugh & M. H. Greenberg (Eds.), The Newbery Award Reader: A collection of short fiction by writers who have won the John Newbery Medal *(pp. 261–270). Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.*

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
Yesterday we talked about people we know or have read about who are brave. Who is one person we talked about, Philip? Why was he or she brave?

Accept and briefly discuss responses.

What is one thing a brave person might do? Can anyone think of another word for *brave*?

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today we are going to create a semantic map. Researchers tell us that knowledge is stored in your brain in categories or groups. Words in your memory are linked to other words based on their relationships. So, if you can connect a new word with a word you already know, you will be better able to remember the new word. I'm going to show you how to go through this process today by developing a semantic map. First, I want to introduce you to our story.

We will read *The Ghost of the Lagoon* by Armstrong Sperry. This is a story about a courageous boy, Mako, who lives on the island of Bora Bora. An island is a piece of land surrounded by what? Yes, water. What are some bodies of water that could surround an island?

Accept responses. When a student gives the answer "sea," write "SEA" on the board (or overhead) or just tell the students that in this story the island is in the sea.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Narrative or expository
Grouping: Whole class

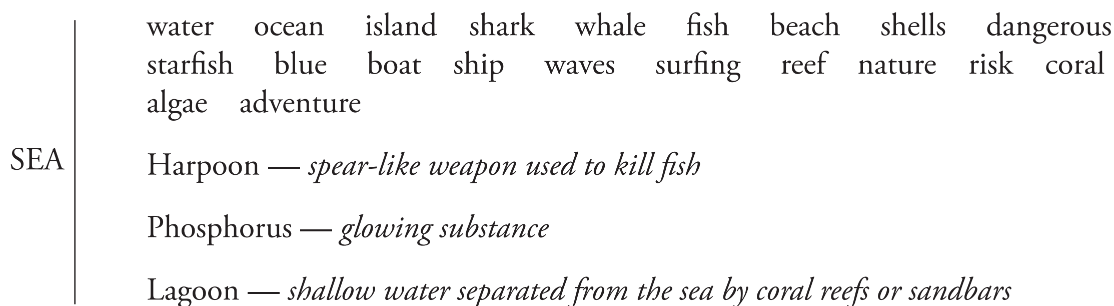
1. Ask students to brainstorm or think of words related to the sea. List all of the words on one-half of the board (or overhead). Write down all appropriate student responses.

   Ask questions to lead students to say target words from the story. For example, if you want students to add *risk* to the list, you might ask, "Sara, you said the sea could be dangerous. What is another word for *danger*?" If you want to add *harpoon*, you might ask, "Does anyone know the name of a spear used to kill sea animals?"

   Some target words may be unknown to students. Add unfamiliar words to the list and give a brief definition for each.

   Here is what the board (or overhead) might look like at this point:

Figure 57. Sample Semantic Map: Phase 1.



2. Draw a circle with the topic in the middle.

3. Read through the list of brainstormed words and model how to come up with categories to group the words. Think aloud.

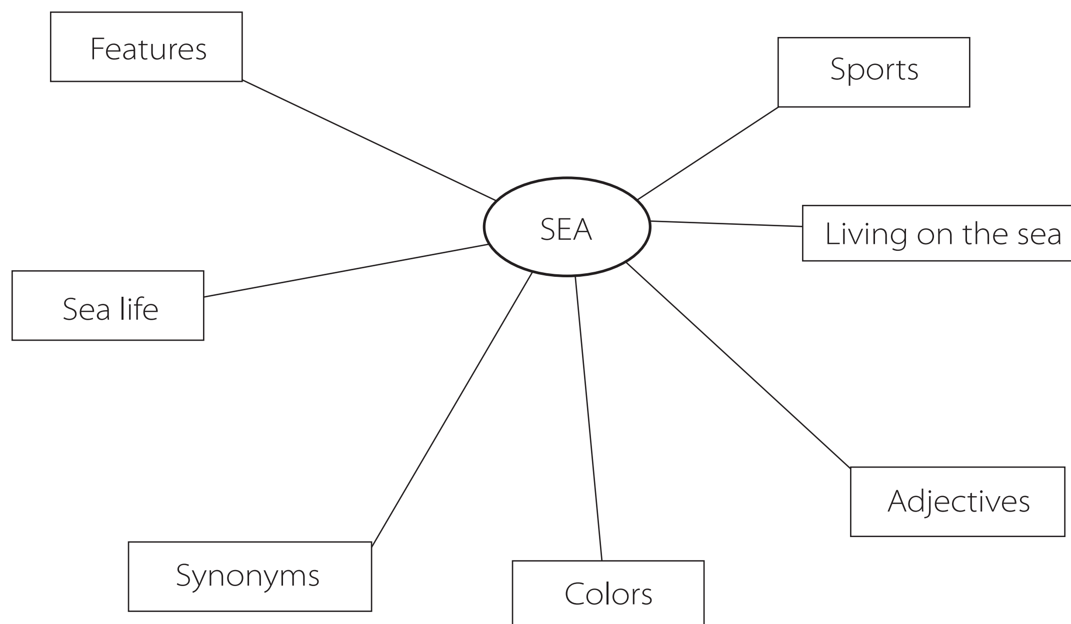
   Teacher:
   I see the words *starfish*, *sharks*, *whales*, *coral*, *algae* … What do these words have in common? They are not all animals, but they are all living. We could have a "sea life" category.

3. Ask students to come up with categories. Write each category in a circle and connect it to the topic.

4. If students have difficulty generating categories, you may need to think aloud and model how to come up with categories several times. You may need to start with a few words at a time. For example:

   Teacher:
   Let's look at a few words together. Would *shark* and *beach* be in the same category? Well, a shark lives in the sea near a beach, but they are not really in the same category. How about *shark* and *starfish*? Yes, both sharks and starfish are animals that live in the sea. So, raise your hand if you can think of a category that both shark and starfish would belong to? Yes, sea animals or sea life would be a good category. Look at our list of words, and raise your hand if you see any other words that would fit into this category...

Figure 58. Sample Semantic Map: Phase 2.



Based on Heimlich, J. E., & Pittelman, S. V. (1986). Semantic mapping: Classroom applications. *Newark, DE: International Reading Association.*

GUIDED PRACTICE

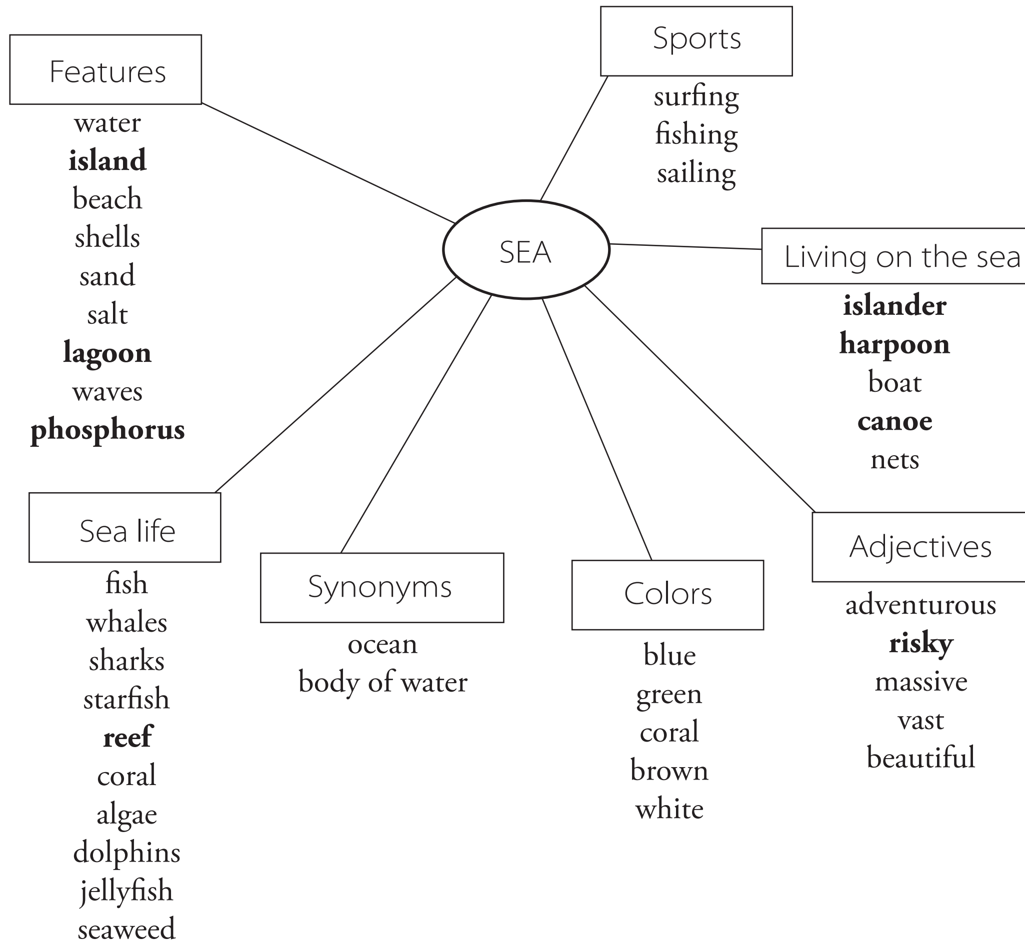
Grouping: Partners

1. Assign partners.
2. Have pairs copy the map. Then ask pairs to generate any remaining category titles and to categorize the brainstormed words.
3. Ask students to come up with additional words for each category.
4. Circulate around the room and be available for guidance and feedback. Check in with each pair of students to check for understanding. Be prepared to model again if needed.

5. Ask pairs to add a blank category to their log to fill in after they read the story or chapter.

On the following sample master map, the target vocabulary words are in bold.

FIGURE 59. SAMPLE SEMANTIC MAP: PHASE 3.



As you circulate around the classroom, ask leading questions to guide student responses. For example, if you hear one pair of students talking about features of the sea, ask them, "Which one of our new words is a feature with shallow water?"

6. Return to the map on the board and whole-class grouping.

7. Ask for student responses to each category and write appropriate responses on a master map. Allow students to add words to their maps based on class discussion and the master map.

READ SELECTION

Grouping: Partners, small group, or whole class

Read the selection: *Ghost of the Lagoon*. Remind students to be aware of target words in the reading and to look for other categories they might want to add to their maps.

AFTER READING

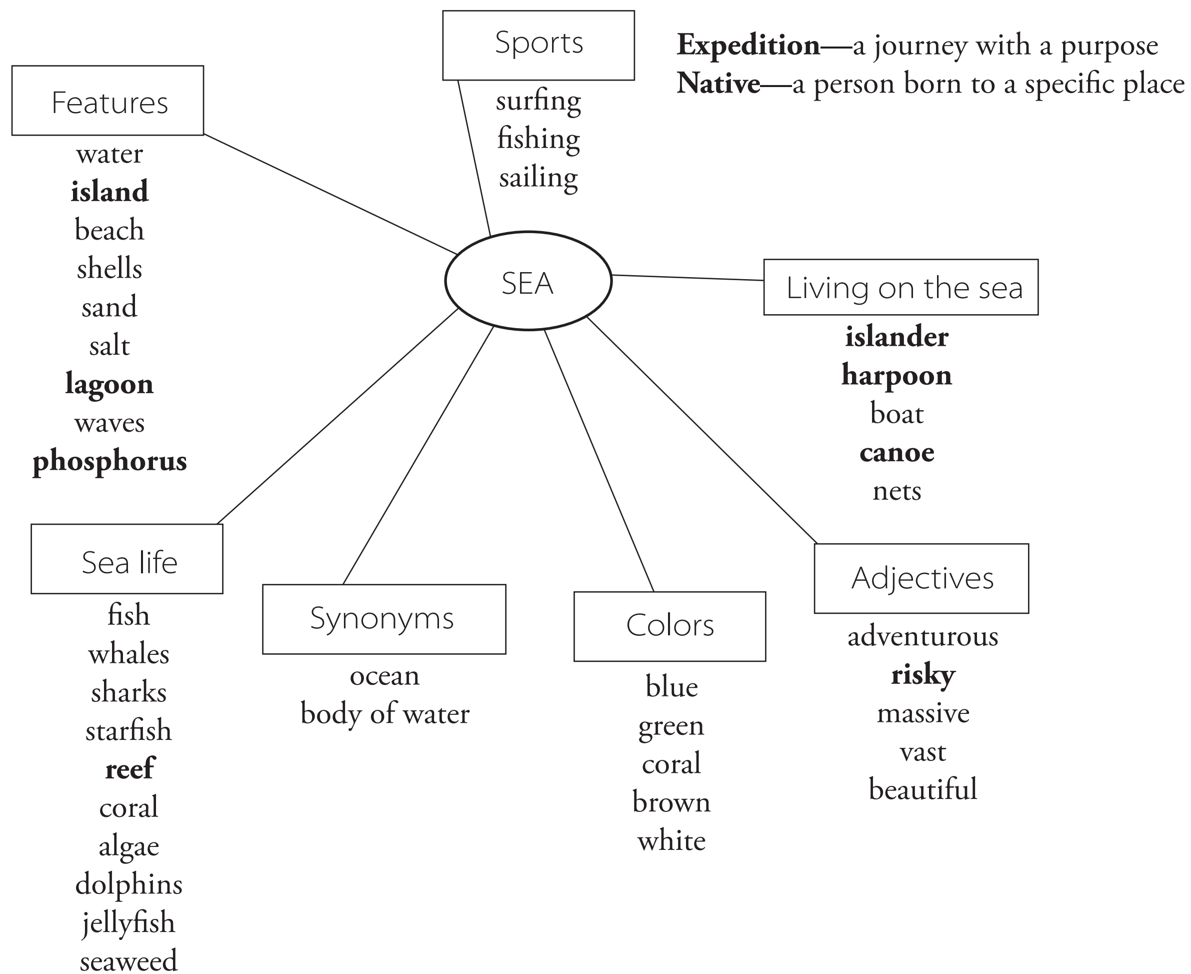
Grouping: Partners

1. When the class is finished reading the selection, return to the master map on the board (or overhead).
2. Discuss the concepts included in the reading. Add new concepts learned during reading such as expedition and native (see following sample map).
3. Ask students whether they discovered any other categories, or groups of things with common characteristics, in the reading. If needed, think aloud for the class.

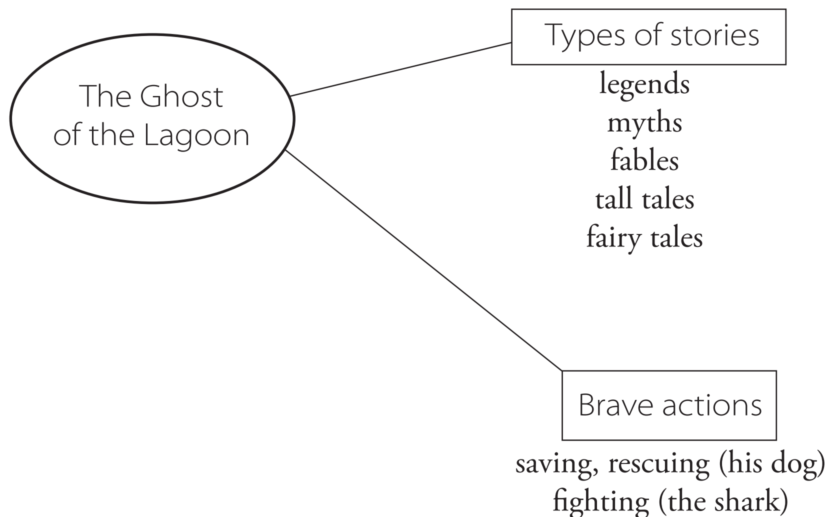
   Teacher:
   Mako was brave several times during the story. So, we could have a category labeled "Brave Actions". Now, find a word in the story that is a brave action.

   Call on students and write responses under the category Brave Actions.
4. Continue to ask students for examples of new categories.
5. Have students work with partners to fill in examples under each new category.
6. When students are finished, ask for responses and discuss. See the following sample of a completed map and additional categories brainstormed after reading.

Figure 60. Completed Sample Semantic Map.



Categories added after reading:



INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

1. Before reading a passage or selection, preview the text for challenging words that students will use and see often (see procedure at the beginning of this lesson).
2. Tell students the topic of the reading passage or selection and lead students to brainstorm a list of words related to the topic. Discuss background knowledge of the topic and help students make connections between what they already know and what they will learn while reading.
3. Working in small groups or partners, ask students to create a semantic map by categorizing the brainstormed list of words. This includes generating logical category titles and placing words in appropriate categories.
4. Return to whole group and discuss students' maps.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
Can anyone think of a way we might use a semantic map in our other classes?

Student:
Sometimes our social studies teacher gives us lots of new words to learn.

Teacher:
How could a semantic map help you understand your social studies reading?

Student:
We could put all the new words in a semantic map.

Teacher:
What would that look like? What would be the first step? Think about our *Ghost of the Lagoon* map.

Student:
We wrote the word in the middle first.

Teacher:
That's right. The word in the middle represents the topic of the reading—one word that tells what the reading is about. What are you reading about in social studies right now?

Student:
We're reading about Martin Luther King Jr. and Rosa Parks.

Teacher:
Good. So, the topic of your semantic map could be civil rights. Let's quickly brainstorm some words related to civil rights so you can get an idea of how this might look in your other classes.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check maps for completion and check that words are accurately matched with categories.

Give students a list of the target vocabulary words along with a few other words from the map. Ask students to write a story that includes 10–12 of the words on the list. Check that students are able to use the words correctly in their writing.

Figure 61. Sample Vocabulary Writing Assignment.

Name of Selection: Ghost of the Lagoon
Directions: Look at the words below. Write a story that includes 10–12 words from the list. Underline each word in your story.
Vocabulary Word List: island, lagoon, risk, expedition, native, canoe, phosphorus, harpoon, shark, beach, sea, adventure, massive, waves, coral reef
Your Story:

HELPFUL HABIT

Struggling readers are usually struggling writers. In order to encourage your students to write creatively, do not penalize students for every writing error. Make a **criteria chart** with students for this assignment, such as the one in Figure 62. Make it clear that there will be no penalty for spelling errors, except for the words on the list and frequently occurring words for which they are responsible, such as *what*, *who*, and *they*. A list of these everyday words may be posted in the room or in students' folders. Tell the students that you expect them to practice spelling the vocabulary words on the new list correctly.

Figure 62. Sample Criteria Chart for Vocabulary Writing Assignment.

Criteria for Writing Assignment
• The story has a beginning, middle, and end. • The story uses 10–12 of the words on the list (vocabulary words). • The vocabulary words are underlined in the story. • The vocabulary words are spelled correctly. • All sentences start with a capital letter and end with a period, question mark, or exclamation point. • The story is interesting and fun to read. • The vocabulary words and our everyday words are used correctly.

Develop a **rubric** (see Figure 63) based on the criteria chart that can be used to grade students' writing.

Figure 63. Sample Rubric for Vocabulary Writing Assignment.

Rubric for Writing Assignment		
The story has a beginning, middle, and an end.		10 pts
Each sentence starts with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point.		25 pts
Vocabulary Words		
	10–12 included	10 pts
	Underlined	10 pts
	Spelled correctly	10 pts
	Used correctly	25 pts
	Everyday words spelled correctly	10 pts
	TOTAL	100 pts

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

When introducing a new concept, follow the semantic mapping procedure. Semantic mapping helps students understand the connections between words by organizing them visually on a map. This is an excellent instructional activity for use in content areas.

WORD KNOWLEDGE **SAMPLE LESSON**

Semantic Feature Analysis

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Based on Anders, P. L., & Boss, C. S. (1986). Semantic feature analysis: An interactive strategy for vocabulary development and text comprehension. *Journal of Reading, 29*, 610–161.

INTRODUCTION

Semantic feature analysis is very similar to semantic mapping in that it draws upon students' prior knowledge, teaches the relationships between words in a visual way, and incorporates discussion as a key element.

Instead of a map, semantic feature analysis uses a grid to organize connections between words. The grid is based on a subject or concept. Down the left side, the teacher writes several words related to the concept. Across the top, the teacher writes several features or characteristics that each word may or may not exhibit.

Discussion is a key element in the effectiveness of this strategy. Encourage students to talk about *how* they decided whether a certain feature applies to a word.

The following sample lesson is based on a typical textbook chapter about the digestive system.

OBJECTIVE

The students will complete a semantic feature analysis grid by drawing from prior knowledge to discuss and identify important features and/or characteristics of words.

MATERIALS

- Textbook chapter or passage.
- Transparency of a blank semantic feature analysis grid (see Appendix).
- Blank semantic feature analysis grids—a teacher copy and student copies (one for each pair/group).

PREPARATION

Preview the chapter, looking for academic words, or challenging words students are likely to see and use often.

Identify content-specific words that students must know in order to comprehend the text.

Figure 64. Sample Word List from a Chapter on the Digestive System.

Digestion	The body's process of breaking down food
Mouth	Opening where food is taken in
Saliva	Clear liquid in the mouth that moistens food and starts the breakdown of starches
Esophagus	Muscular tube where food moves from the mouth to the stomach
Liver	The organ that makes bile and filters blood
Stomach	Muscular organ between esophagus and small intestine where food is broken down and partially digested
Pancreas	Organ near the stomach that produces enzymes that help break down starches, proteins, and fats
Enzyme	A protein that causes a chemical reaction in the body. Our bodies make several different types of enzymes
Mucus	A clear, slimy substance that coats and protects the linings of body passages
Peristalsis	Waves of muscle contractions in the esophagus and intestines that push food through
Small Intestine	Part of the intestine between the stomach and the large intestine. Most chemical digestion takes place here.
Large Intestine	The end section of the digestive system. This intestine is larger in diameter than the small intestine. Its job is to absorb water and form waste to be eliminated from the body.

Encarta World English Dictionary (Online); Prentice Hall Science Explorer: Grade 7, 2002

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
Yesterday we read Chapter 4: The Digestive System. Who can remember an organ in our digestive system and its important function?

Accept responses and briefly review the main ideas of the chapter.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today we are going to complete a semantic feature analysis grid using some of the words we learned reading the chapter. I know this is a long title, but it is easy to remember when you know what the title means. Semantic means the meaning of words, a feature is a characteristic, and analysis (or analyze) means to study or examine. So, we are going to analyze or examine the words we learned by looking at their features, or characteristics. This will help you understand more fully the words and concepts in our reading.

It may be helpful to point to the words of the title—"Semantic," "Feature," and "Analysis"— as you explain the meaning.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Expository or narrative
Grouping: Whole class

Teacher:
Before we look at the words from our chapter, I want to show you how a semantic feature analysis grid works. First of all, we have to figure out what idea or concept we will discuss. Let's say our concept is mammals. Raise your hand if you can give me an example of a mammal.

Accept responses and write the examples down the left side of the grid.

Your grid may look like the following:

Figure 65. Creating a Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Step 1.

Concept: Mammals

Features / Examples										
Bear										
Bat										
Lion										
Seal										
Kangaroo										
Whale										
Ferret										
Human										

Teacher:

Now across the top, we are going to write features, or characteristics, that any or all mammals have. For example, I know that all mammals have hair. I also know that mammals are vertebrates and that some mammals live on land while others live at sea. So I will write these features across the top. Raise you hand if you can give me another characteristic of mammals.

Accept and guide responses as necessary. Ask guiding questions such as, "What do mammals eat?" or "How do mammals move around?".

Your grid may now look something like the sample grid below:

Figure 66. Creating a Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Step 2.

Concept: Mammals

Examples / Features	Has hair	Vertebrate	Lives on land (terrestrial)	Lives at sea (aquatic)	Able to fly	Herbivore (primary consumer)	Carnivore (secondary consumer)	Omnivore	Marsupial	Produces milk
Bear										
Bat										
Lion										
Seal										
Kangaroo										
Whale										
Ferret										
Human										

Teacher:
Now I am going to look at each animal and place a plus sign if the animal exhibits the feature, a minus sign if the animal does not exhibit the feature, and a question mark if I'm not sure (Stahl, 1999). Watch as I think through the first mammal on our list. The first mammal is a bear. I know that bears have hair and are vertebrates. I also know they live on land, not in the sea. Bears definitely don't fly. I know that bears eat meat, but they also eat plants and berries, so I am going to put a plus sign under "Omnivore". Bears don't have pouches, so they are not marsupials. But they do produce milk to feed their young.

Figure 67. Creating a Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Step 3.

Concept: Mammals

Features / Examples	Has hair	Vertebrate	Lives on land (terrestrial)	Lives at sea (aquatic)	Able to fly	Herbivore (primary consumer)	Carnivore (secondary consumer)	Omnivore	Marsupial	Produces milk
Bear	+	+	+	–	–	–	–	+	–	+
Bat										
Lion										
Seal										
Kangaroo										
Whale										
Ferret										
Human										

Call on students individually to come up to the board or overhead and fill in one animal at a time. Discuss answers with the whole class.

A finished chart may look like the following:

Figure 68. Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Completed Example.

Concept: Mammals

Features / Examples	Has hair	Vertebrate	Lives on land (terrestrial)	Lives at sea (aquatic)	Able to fly	Herbivore (primary consumer)	Carnivore (secondary consumer)	Omnivore	Marsupial	Produces milk
Bear	+	+	+	–	–	–	–	+	–	+
Bat	+	+	+	–	+	+	+	–	–	+
Lion	+	+	+	–	–	–	+	–	–	+
Seal	+	+	–	+	–	–	+	–	–	+
Kangaroo	+	+	+	–	–	+	–	–	+	+
Whale	+	+	–	+	–	–	+	–	–	+
Ferret	+	+	+	–	–	–	+	–	–	+
Human	+	+	+	–	–	–	–	+	–	+

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class, sitting with partners

Ask students to open their textbooks to the chapter on the digestive system.

> **Teacher**:
> We are going to complete a grid for the concept: the digestive system. Skim through the chapter and raise your hand if you can tell me a very important word we learned about when reading this chapter. Remember, important words or concepts are often bold, in italics, or found in illustrations. Also, don't forget to look at titles and headings.

Accept responses and then show students the following blank grid on an overhead.

Figure 69. Creating a Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Example 2a.

Concept: The Digestive System

Examples \ Features	A process	An organ	A substance	Part of chemical digestion	Part of mechanical digestion	Breaks down starch	Breaks down protein	Breaks down fat
Digestion								
Mouth								
Saliva								
Esophagus								
Liver								
Stomach								
Pancreas								
Enzyme								
Mucus								
Peristalsis								
Small Intestine								
Large Intestine								

Teacher:
Listen as I think through the first item on our list. Is digestion a process? Yes, I know that digestion is the process of breaking down food, absorbing nutrients, and eliminating waste. Raise your hand if you can tell me what I need to put in this box. That's right, Lucia, I need to put a plus sign because digestion is a process.

Continue to think aloud through the rest of the features. Remember, discussion is a key element of this strategy.

Teacher:
Now let's look at *mouth*. Working with your partner, put a plus sign if a mouth displays the feature, a minus sign if it does not display the feature, and put a question mark in the square if you are not sure.

Allow students to look at their chapter and give them 3–4 minutes to complete the row for "mouth". Circulate around the room and be available for guidance.

Return to the overhead and ask for a volunteer to share their answers. Take time to discuss each answer with the class.

Continue the process above for the next 5–6 terms.

Below is an example of a completed chart. Remember, your class chart may look a little different depending on the discussion with your students. For example, some students may say that mucus is a part of chemical digestion because it lines the stomach and protects it from being burned by the strong acids. Therefore, mucus plays a role in chemical digestion. Other students may say that mucus is not a part of chemical digestion because the substance itself does not chemically break down food. Discussion is the key element of this type of activity. It is OK for students to disagree, as long as they are presenting arguments based on accurate information.

Figure 70. Creating a Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Example 2b.

Concept: The Digestive System

Examples / Features	A process	An organ	A substance	Part of chemical digestion	Part of mechanical digestion	Breaks down starch	Breaks down protein	Breaks down fat
Digestion	+	–	–	+	+	+	+	+
Mouth	–	+	–	+	+	+	–	–
Saliva	–	–	+	+	+	+	–	–
Esophagus	–	+	–	–	?	–	–	–
Liver	–	+	–	+	–	–	–	+
Stomach	–	+	–	+	+	–	+	–
Pancreas	–	+	–	+	–	+	+	+
Enzyme	–	–	+	+	–	+	+	+
Mucus	–	–	+	–	+	–	–	–
Peristalsis	+	–	–	–	?	–	–	–
Small Intestine	–	+	–	+	–	–	+	–
Large Intestine	–	+	–	+	–	–	–	–

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

1. If after guiding your students through the first half of the terms on the grid your students are ready to move on to independent practice, allow them to continue working with their partners to complete the last half of the semantic feature analysis grid.
2. Continue to circulate around the room and be available for guidance as your students are working.
3. Return to the overhead and ask for volunteers to share their answers for each row. Discuss answers with the class.
4. If students think of any other key terms or features, have them fill in the blank row or column.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
How could you use the semantic feature analysis grid in your other classes?

Student:
We could use it to study words in our other classes.

Teacher:
Think about your social studies class. How could the grid help you learn new words in social studies?

Student:
We could work with a partner to make a grid using words related to the subject we are studying.

Teacher:
That's right. When you put words you need to learn in this grid and discuss their characteristics, you are able to see the relationship between those words, which can help you remember what each word means. When learning new words, it always helps to think first about what you already know about the word. Using a semantic feature analysis grid can be helpful when reading new chapters in textbooks and novels. It allows you to keep track of and learn new words. It can also serve as a resource to go back to for a review of the words.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check grids for completion and accuracy.

Give students a list of the terms along with other key terms from the chapter. Ask students to use the terms in complete sentences. Figure 71 provides a sample format for the assignment.

Figure 71. Sample Vocabulary Writing Assignment.

Writing based on: Chapter 4, Section 1
Directions: Using words from the list below, write 10 complete sentences. Each sentence must: • Begin with a capital letter and end with a period, question mark, or exclamation point. • Make sense. • Include two words from the following list.
Vocabulary Word List: digestion, mouth, saliva, absorption, nutrients, esophagus, liver, bile, churning, function, stomach, pancreas, enzyme, starch, protein, fats, health, mucus, peristalsis, small intestine, large intestine, produce, lining, diameter
Your Sentences:

This strategy can be used with both expository and narrative text. The following grids are samples of semantic feature analysis grids based on a novel and a social studies text.

Figure 72. Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Narrative Text Example.

Subject: Characters in a Novel
Example: *Number the Stars* by Lois Lowry

Examples / Features	Brave	Soothing	Belligerent	Unwavering	Jewish	Talented	Imaginative	Gentle	Threatening
Annemarie									
Ellen									
Kristi									
Mrs. Johansen									
Mr. Johansen									
Mr. And Mrs. Rosen									
German soldiers									

Lowry, L. (1989). Number the stars. *New York: Bantam Doubleday Dell Books for Young Readers.*

Figure 73. Semantic Feature Analysis Grid: Expository Text Example.

Subject: Historical Documents

Examples / Features	Lists grievances of colonists to express dissatisfaction with British rule	Gives government the authority to make, apply, and enforce rules and laws	Written after Constitution was sent to states for ratification	Document continues to be relevant in U.S. society today	Influenced the vote in favor of ratification and shaped future interpretations of the Constitution	Reflects values and principles of American democracy	Precedent for documents that followed	Expresses the right to freedom of assembly	Emphasizes government as a means to securing rights
Magna Carta (1215)									
English Bill of Rights (1689)									
Mayflower Compact (1620)									
Declaration of Independence (1776)									
Federalist Papers (1787)									
Anti-Federalist Writings (1787)									
U.S. Constitution (1787)									
Bill of Rights (1791)									

WORD KNOWLEDGE **SAMPLE LESSON**

Generating Examples and Nonexamples

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Adapted with permission from Frayer, D. A., Frederick, W. C., & Klausmeier, H. G. (1969). *A schema for testing the level of concept mastery* (Technical report No. 16). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning.

INTRODUCTION

There are two reasons for providing students with, or having them generate, examples and nonexamples of unfamiliar words.

First, providing both examples and nonexamples can help clarify the meaning of words—students who receive vocabulary instruction that provides more contextual information outperform students who receive only definitions of words (Baumann & Kame'enui, 1991; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986). For example, you might read the following sentence, "In the logographic phase beginners recognize nonphonemic characteristics." A straightforward definition for logographic is "representing words or ideas rather than sounds." Even after hearing this definition, the meaning of the word is probably not perfectly clear. Providing examples and nonexamples of things that are logographic should help you have a sharper understanding of the term. An example of a logographic language is Chinese, and logos found in advertising materials are also logographic. English, Spanish, and Italian are not examples of logographic languages. Your background knowledge will probably help you understand that characters or symbols in logographic languages represent whole words or ideas rather than sounds, as is the case in alphabetic languages. Beginning readers recognize logos (such as the McDonald's arches) or whole words (such as Wal-Mart) and connect them with ideas rather than using letter-sound relationships to read the words.

The second reason to provide students with examples and nonexamples of words, or to have students generate examples and nonexamples, is that this can help them develop an understanding of the concepts underlying key content-specific words. For example, it is critical that students understand various science concepts such as *matter*, *energy*, and *reactions*. When students engage in generating examples and nonexamples of these key concept words, they develop a deeper understanding of the concepts themselves.

One framework for organizing examples and nonexamples of words is a graphic organizer known as the Frayer Model (Frayer, Frederick, & Klausmeier, 1969). This lesson will focus on teaching students to use the Frayer Model, focusing on a science term—*amphibian*. Although this lesson is based on a science text, reading teachers may use the same process to help students learn to generate examples and nonexamples of words in any expository or narrative text. It can be important for reading teachers to teach lessons actually using students' content area textbooks, to encourage students to generalize what they are learning in the reading class to other classes throughout the day.

OBJECTIVE

Students will develop a deep understanding of key words by generating examples and nonexamples of words.

MATERIALS

- Text (narrative or expository).
- Overhead projector, chalkboard, or chart paper.
- Two overhead transparencies of a blank Frayer Model graphic organizer (or drawn on chart paper or on the board; see Appendix).
- Copies of blank Frayer Model graphic organizers for students.

PREPARATION

Preview text looking for academic words and key content-specific words that represent central concepts in the text. Identify one or two important words that are closely related to the topic of the text and that are good candidates for teaching students to generate examples and nonexamples of words. If it is difficult for the teacher to think of clear examples and nonexamples of a term, it is not a good choice to use when students are just learning the strategy.

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
We have learned that scientists classify animals as vertebrates or invertebrates according to whether the animals have a…what…Joseph? Yes, a backbone, or spine running down their bodies. Yesterday we learned that we can separate the vertebrates into classes, or smaller groups. What class of vertebrates live in water and breathe with gills…Samantha? Yes, fish. Today you will learn about another class of vertebrates.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today we are going to learn to generate examples and nonexamples of important vocabulary words. Listing examples and nonexamples of words can help you have a better understanding of important words and can help you remember these words.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Narrative or expository
Grouping: Whole class

1. Explain the concept of examples and nonexamples using a simple word.

    Teacher:
    Let's think about the word *animals*. What are some examples of animals?

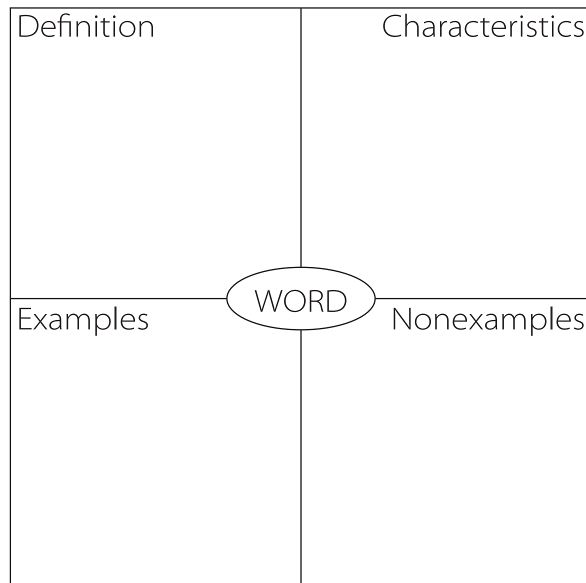
    Accept a few student responses. Don't allow more than a minute or so for this.

    Yes, dogs, snakes, goldfish, and tigers are all examples of animals. A nonexample would be a word that is *not* an example of an animal. That could be almost anything, couldn't it? After all, a boat is not an animal. Neither is a house. But, these nonexamples won't help us understand and remember what animals are. The trick is to come up with nonexamples that are related to the word, but that are not examples of the word. A nonexample of an animal would be a bean plant. Plants are like animals because they are living things, but they are not examples of animals. Another nonexample of an animal is a bacteria. Bacteria are living things but they are not animals. What are some other nonexamples of animals?

    Accept student responses and provide guidance as necessary.

2. Show students the transparency of the blank Frayer Model graphic organizer. Tell them that they will be using it as a framework as they talk about examples and nonexamples of words. Point out that the word will be placed in the center, and that there are spaces to write a definition, characteristics, examples, and nonexamples of the word.

Figure 74. Blank Frayer Model.



Adapted with permission from Frayer, D. A., Frederick, W. C., & Klausmeier, H. G. (1969). A schema for testing the level of concept mastery *(Technical report No. 16). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning.*

3. Distribute blank Frayer Model graphic organizers to students and ask them to copy the information from the transparency as you model the process. Tell them that they will be completing several of these graphic organizers and that they should keep them to use as study guides.

4. Model completing the Frayer Model graphic organizer for the classification *amphibian*. Place the word *amphibian* in the center of the graphic organizer. Think aloud as you write a definition of the term, list characteristics of amphibians, list examples of amphibians, and list animals that are not amphibians in the "Nonexample" space.

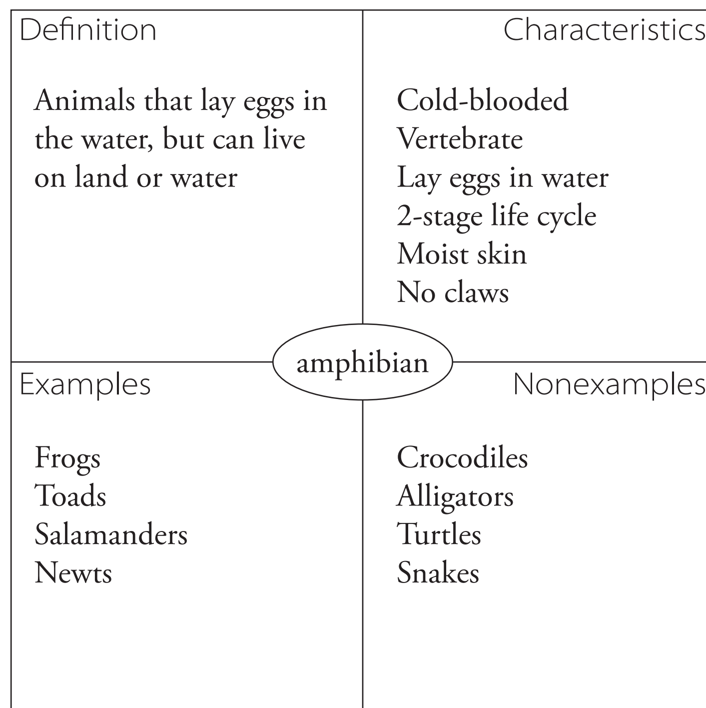
> **Teacher:**
> Yesterday we learned about the class of vertebrates called amphibians. I'm going to put the word *amphibian* in the center of the diagram. We learned that a scientist would define an amphibian as an animal that lays eggs in the water, but can live on land or water. I'll write that definition in the first box. That definition had some of the characteristics of amphibians in it, but I know some other characteristics of amphibians. They are cold-blooded vertebrates, they lay eggs in water, they have a two-stage life cycle, they have moist skin, and they have no claws. I'll put those in the box called "Characteristics". Now I need some examples of amphibians. What are some examples you know of…Ta'Michael? Good, a frog is one example. A toad is also an amphibian, so I'll add that.

Accept answers from the class. Ask students to tell why their examples are classified as amphibians. If any suggested answers are not examples of amphibians, talk about why this is true.

> Now for nonexamples of amphibians—I could write the words *boat* and *story*, but those words wouldn't help me understand more about what an amphibian is, would they? I want to choose words that are related to the word *amphibian*, but are not amphibians. I'm going to write *crocodiles*, since a crocodile is a vertebrate but not an amphibian. Let's add three more nonexamples. Crystal, can you think of one?

Your completed graphic organizer may look something like this:

Figure 75. Completed Frayer Model Example.



Adapted with permission from Frayer, D. A., Frederick, W. C., & Klausmeier, H. G. (1969). A schema for testing the level of concept mastery *(Technical report No. 16). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning.*

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class or small group and partners

1. Put a blank Frayer Model transparency on the overhead and distribute blank Frayer Model sheets to partners.
2. Write the key content-specific word in the middle of your graphic organizer and ask students to do the same.
3. Tell students that they will complete the graphic organizer together as they read the part of the lesson. Before reading the text, provide clear "student-friendly" definitions of the key content-specific word and any other key vocabulary and have students quickly preview the selection, examining illustrations, headings, subheadings, etc. Previewing should take no longer than 1–2 minutes. Ask students what they think they will learn in the selection. Allow no more than 3–5 minutes for this discussion.
4. Have students read the first part of the lesson with their partners. (See directions for partner reading on page 225.)
5. After students have read the first section of the text, work as a class to complete any part of the Frayer Model graphic organizer that can be finished based on that section. Ask students to tell *why* the terms they identify are examples and nonexamples of amphibians.
6. Read the next section of text and continue to add to the graphic organizer as appropriate.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

When students are comfortable with the process, have them continue to work in partners, reading and adding to their graphic organizers. Monitor student work carefully and provide scaffolding and feedback as needed.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
How might writing down examples and nonexamples of words help you in your other classes?

Student:
We can use them to study for our science or social studies tests.

Teacher:
Yes, the Frayer Model graphic organizers can be helpful as study guides. How might completing them help you understand what you are reading?

Student:
If we don't really understand the important words we won't know what the book is trying to say.

Student:
Yes, we can work together and do the examples and nonexamples of important words in social studies like *colonies*, which we are studying now. Then we might understand the book better and make better grades.

Teacher:
That's a good idea. All of your teachers are getting together to talk about using these Frayer Models in different classes, so your other teachers may give you time to work on them when you read your textbooks. If not, you could do them during study hall or after school to help you study.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check graphic organizers for completion and accuracy. Ask students to tell why they put certain words in the "Example" or "Nonexample" boxes.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

1. The next day, review the use of the Frayer Model and the concepts related to the term *amphibian*. If needed, allow students to refer to the Frayer Models they completed the day before to help them recall characteristics, etc., of amphibians. This helps illustrate to students that these models may be helpful study guides. Frequently, have students work in partners to generate examples and nonexamples of key concept words before reading a text selection. This is especially helpful for expository text. Use students' science, math, or social studies textbooks for review and practice of the strategy.
2. On other days, ask students questions that require them to connect two unrelated vocabulary words (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). These may be words that were learned at different times associated with different text. For example, you might ask:
    - Can an *amphibian* live in a *lagoon*? Why or why not?
    - How is *digestion* like an *expedition*?
    - How would you find the *diameter* of a *crustacean*?
    - Could an adventurous person be *renowned*?
    - When might a *courageous* person escape from a dangerous place?
    - Can you be unaware of an *audible* sound?
    - How is being *suspicious* different from being *thoughtful*?
    - Can *collaboration* be *compulsory*?

Always ask students to give reasons for their answers. There can be more than one correct answer to these questions. The important thing is that the student's reasoning reflects the true meaning of the vocabulary words.

12. Use vocabulary words often in the classroom in the course of normal conversation and provide many opportunities and encouragement to students to use vocabulary words, especially academic words. (See p. 137 for a definition of *academic words*.)

WORD CONSCIOUSNESS
SAMPLE LESSON
Prepared Participation

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Based on Feldman, K., & Kinsella, K. (2005). *Narrowing the language gap: The case for explicit vocabulary instruction*. New York: Scholastic.

INTRODUCTION

The Prepared Participation activity, as described by Feldman and Kinsella (2005), gives students the opportunity to use vocabulary words during a classroom discussion, as opposed to reading the words and hearing them used by the teacher. This practice works especially well with both English language learners and students with impoverished vocabularies.

The following lesson is based on a practice suggested by Feldman and Kinsella in *Narrowing the Language Gap: The Case for Explicit Vocabulary Instruction*. It can be used with novel reading (as seen in the example below), chapter reading, or even short passages. Before planning this type of lesson, identify the topic of discussion as well as any academic words in the reading that are related to the topic.

Remember the previous discussion of how to choose words to teach. Preview the text and choose words that:

- Students must know in order to understand what they read.
- Students are likely to use and encounter frequently.

For example, in the novel *Holes*, by Louis Sachar, one important topic is the issue of bullying. In Chapter 30 of *Holes*, a few "big-idea words" related to bullying are *uneasy*, *astonished*, and the phrase *feeble attempt*. These words are used as examples in the following sample lesson.

OBJECTIVE

The student will use new vocabulary words in small-group and whole-class discussions.

MATERIALS

- Textbook or novel.
- Overhead projector, chart paper, or chalkboard.

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
Yesterday we completed Part 1 of *Holes*. Can anyone tell me…? Who remembers…?

Quickly review from a chart or board:

- List of character names.
- Setting locations.
- Major plot events.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today we are going to have a class discussion about bullying. I am going to give you an opportunity to use some of our vocabulary words. First, we will prepare for our discussion, and then we will all participate in the discussion. Using new words in a discussion is an opportunity to practice and learn the new words. Also, the more you actually use a word the more it becomes your own.

MODEL AND TEACH

Grouping: Whole class and partners

1. List several words from the story or passage to be read. Tell the students that the words are in the passage. The following sample words are from *Holes* by Louis Sachar.

   Topic:
   Bullying: Teasing or picking on someone who does not deserve it.

   Related words:

   - *Uneasy*: Feeling uncomfortable.
   - *Feeble attempt*: A failed or weak try.
   - *Astonished*: Surprised.

2. Ask students to make (with partners) a list of examples of bullying they have seen or heard.
3. After students write several examples, ask individual students to read and share items from their lists. Write several examples on the board or overhead.

HELPFUL HABIT | Asking students to read exactly what they wrote will encourage them to be specific in their writing and will discourage students who like to share lengthy stories with the class but refuse to write anything down.

4. Give a few sentence starters and show students how to use their background knowledge about bullying to complete a sentence that includes one of their vocabulary words. For example:
    - "One example of bullying I have seen at our school is…"
    - "I was astonished when I saw…"
5. Model the activity by thinking aloud.

    Teacher:
    We just wrote down several examples of bullying. One example that sticks out to me is the eighth-grader who was teasing the sixth-grader at the bus stop every day. So, if I wanted to complete the first sentence starter, I might write: "One example of bullying I have seen at our school is teasing at the bus stop."

    Record on the board or overhead.

    Or I could write: "I was astonished when I saw the large eighth-grade boy picking on a much smaller sixth-grade boy at the bus stop right next to the school!"

    Record on board or overhead.

    Raise your hand if you can tell me what *astonished* means? That's right. *Astonished* means surprised. So, I was surprised to see such a big kid picking on a smaller kid at the bus stop that was so near to school.

6. Give a few more sentence starters and allow students a few minutes to work with their partners to complete more sentence starters. For example:
    - "Once I made a feeble attempt to stop a bully by …"
    - "Bullying makes me uneasy because …"
7. Circulate around the room and check for understanding. Check that students' sentences are complete, make sense, and that vocabulary words are used appropriately. Ask several volunteers to share one of their sentences and write a few examples on the board or overhead.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

1. Explain that in few minutes you are going to have a class discussion about bullying and that you want each student to be armed with several sentences about their own experience in order to contribute to the discussion. Ask students to expand their current list by writing additional sentences about bullying using sentence starters, vocabulary words, and their own experience as a guide. Circulate around the room and be available to guide as needed.
2. Have students rehearse their sentences with their partners.
3. Lead a structured discussion of the topic. Now that students have practiced reading their sentences, it is time to participate.
4. One at a time, allow students to read one of their rehearsed sentences to the class.
5. Have students elaborate on their sentences and comment on other students' sentences as appropriate.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
How could you use this activity in your other classes?

Student:
We could use it to practice our new vocabulary words.

Teacher:
That's right. Remember, the more you use a word, the more it becomes your own. When I was in college, I used to write my new vocabulary words on an index card and keep the stack of cards in my backpack. I would try to use each of the words during normal conversation at least once each day.

Student:
So we could do that, too. We could even keep track of how many times we use the word each day.

Student:
Yeah, we could keep score.

Teacher:
Or we could keep a chart in the classroom of some important words we need to learn. When any of you use one of the words either in another class or talking to your friends or family, we will keep track on the chart.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

During the class discussion, listen and check for the following:

- Are students using topic and related words correctly?
- Are students responding appropriately to each other's ideas during discussion?

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

The Word Wizard activity (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2001, 2002) involves giving students points or rewards for noticing or using their vocabulary words after initial instruction. This can be accomplished by adding tally marks next to students' names on a Word Wizard chart. Using Word Wizard in your classroom may help you incorporate frequent review and encourage word awareness in your students. This is important because students are not likely to learn and use new words without thinking about and practicing the words after initial vocabulary instruction (Beck & McKeown, 2001).

Keep a list of vocabulary words posted on a word wall or chart. These may be words students used in the Prepared Participation activity. Add a tally next to a word each time a student uses the word correctly in class or each time a student notices or uses the word outside of class and can give the context in which the word was used.

Reward the class with the highest tally marks at the end of each week or each month.

WORD CONSCIOUSNESS
SAMPLE LESSON
Possible Sentences

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Based on Moore, D. W., & Moore, S. A. (1986). Possible sentences. In E. K. Dishner, T. W. Bean, J. E. Readence, & D. W. Moore (Eds.), *Reading in the content areas* (pp. 174–178). Dubuque, IA: Kendall-Hunt; and Stahl, S. A., & Kapinus, B. A. (1991). Possible sentences: Predicting word meanings to teach content area vocabulary. *The Reading Teacher, 45*, 36–43.

INTRODUCTION

The Possible Sentences activity is designed to improve students' comprehension and retention of what they learn (Stahl & Kapinus, 1991). It taps into students' prior knowledge and asks them to make predictions about sentences they might read in a particular passage or chapter. This instructional activity was found to improve students' recall of word meaning and passage comprehension (Stahl & Kapinus, 1991). It is easy to implement; works well with narrative, expository, and content area text; and requires little preparation.

PREPARATION

Preview the text, looking for academic words, or challenging words that students are likely to see and use often.

Choose 6–8 words that are related to the content of the text and might be difficult for students.

Choose 4–6 words that students likely know and can use to form logical sentences with the more difficult words.

Write the 10–12 words on the board or overhead.

Figure 76. Sample Word List for a Passage or Chapter about Frederick Douglass.

Renowned	Slavery
Eloquence	Escape
Abolitionist	Freedom
Emancipation	Brutality
Advocate	Persuade
Recruit	

OBJECTIVE

The students will use prior knowledge to make predictions about sentences they might read in a particular passage or chapter.

MATERIALS

- Chapter or passage.
- Overhead projector, chart paper, or chalkboard.

DAILY REVIEW

Sample Review of Narrative Text

Teacher:
We have been reading the novel, "Amos Fortune". Can anyone give me a word to describe Amos?

Accept responses.

How do we know that Amos is patient? Courageous? … etc.

Sample Review of Expository Text

Teacher:
You have been studying the Civil War in your social studies class. Who can tell me one thing that you have learned about the Civil War?

Accept responses.

Who are some of the important people involved in this war?

Accept and discuss responses.

HELPFUL HABIT | Repeat students' accurate responses. For example, if a student responds, "Abraham Lincoln," you would immediately say, "Yes, that is correct, Cyndi. Abraham Lincoln was an important Civil War figure." And then extend, "Can anyone tell me why Abraham Lincoln was important?"

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Genre: Narrative or expository

> **Teacher:**
> Today we are going to read a passage (or chapter) about Frederick Douglass. Frederick Douglass was an important figure of the Civil War. He was born into slavery. During his lifetime, he escaped from slavery, became known worldwide as an advocate for freedom and the anti-slavery movement, worked for the national government, and had a personal relationship with Abraham Lincoln. Before we read about him, we will review some words included in the passage about him. We will use those words to generate a list of possible sentences that we might read in the chapter. Using your prior knowledge to make predictions about the ideas that will be discussed in the chapter will help you remember important words and understand what you read.

MODEL AND TEACH

Grouping: Whole class

Refer to the 10–12 words written on the board or overhead. Read each word aloud and have students repeat words after you.

HELPFUL HABIT

Even struggling readers like the challenge of reading a few words in front of the class. After you have read each word and had the entire class repeat them, stop and ask for a volunteer to read the first row or first five words. Then ask for another volunteer to read the final five. Next, ask a volunteer to read the entire list and maybe a final volunteer to read the list starting with the last word and moving to the first. This takes only 2 or 3 minutes, but it helps the students solidify the pronunciation of the words. If students have difficulty pronouncing a word, model reading the word one syllable at a time, then reading the whole word, and have students do the same after you.

Ask students to raise their hands if they know what any of the words mean.

Accept responses and write students' definitions next to the word. Clarify or correct students' definitions through questioning. Example: A student says that *escape* means "to run away". Ask follow-up questions to encourage the student to extend the definition.

> **Teacher:**
> Is escaping a special kind of running away? For example, if my dog was playing catch with me in the back yard and ran away from me each time I threw the ball, would I say he was escaping? Why not?

If any words are undefined, you may provide a brief, student-friendly definition next to those words.

> **Teacher:**
> I am thinking about what I already know about slavery and the Civil War. We are about to read a passage (or chapter) about Frederick Douglass. I'm asking myself what type of sentences might we read. Using our preview words, I will predict some possible sentences we might find in our passage. Each sentence must contain at least two of our preview words.

For example, I might think, "I see the word *abolish* in *abolitionist*. *Abolish* means 'to get rid of,' and the abolitionists worked to get rid of slavery." So I could write: "Frederick Douglass supported the abolitionists, who fought to get rid of slavery."

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class and partners

1. Brainstorm possible sentences.

   At this point, the board or overhead might look like this:

FIGURE 77. SETUP FOR POSSIBLE SENTENCES EXAMPLE.

Preview Words
Slavery: Being forced to work for somebody else. **Escape**: To free yourself; get away from danger or harm. **Renowned**: Famous. **Persuade**: Make someone believe something. **Brutality**: Cruel behavior. **Abolitionist**: A person who wanted to get rid of slavery. **Eloquence**: Speaking with expression and persuasion. **Freedom**: Ability to live the way you choose. **Emancipation**: The process of setting someone free. **Recruit**: To get a person to be involved in or work for a cause. **Advocate**: To support or speak in favor of something.
Example Possible Sentence: Frederick Douglass supported the abolitionists who fought to get rid of slavery.

With partners, ask students to think of and write another possible sentence they might read in the chapter or passage. In this way, students are essentially predicting ideas that will be emphasized in the passage. Remind the class that a possible sentence must make sense and include at least two preview words.

Give students 2–3 minutes to think and write. Circulate around the room and be available for guidance and clarification.

Return to the board or overhead and ask several students to share their sentence. Write all possible sentences on the board or overhead. Do not discuss at this point whether the sentence is correct.

Repeat steps 1–3 a few more times or until all preview words are used at least once.

2. Read the chapter or passage.

   With their partners, have students read the passage (or chapter) aloud to each other. Direct pairs to alternate reading one paragraph at a time.

   After each paragraph has been read, ask the reader to tell his or her partner briefly what the paragraph was about.

   Circulate the room, pausing at each pair of students to listen to their reading.

3. Discuss and revise possible sentences.

   After students have read the passage (or chapter), return to the sentences on the board.

   Think aloud: Model the thinking process for the students. Read a sentence and decide, based on the reading, whether the sentence makes sense. If it does, leave it alone. If it does not, think aloud ways to change the sentence to make it correct. For example, if the word *renowned* is used incorrectly in a possible sentence, you might say, "I'm going to look back at the chapter and see how the word *renowned* is used." Then locate and read examples from the text. Discuss how to modify the sentence to make it make sense.

4. Partner practice: Ask students to work with a partner to read through and modify the remaining possible sentences.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

Follow the procedure before reading a selection or a chapter:

1. Preview text for academic words.
2. Write target and known words on the board.
3. As a class, discuss the meaning of each word.
4. With their partners, students generate a list of possible sentences using the procedures described above.
5. Record sentences on the board.
6. With their partners, students read the selection or chapter.
7. With their partners, students read each sentence and decide whether it is logical and based on the word meaning and what was read in the selection or chapter. If a sentence does not make sense, students are expected to change it.
8. Conduct a class discussion. Read through each possible sentence and discuss its accuracy.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
Did thinking of possible sentences help you understand our reading about Frederick Douglas?

Student:
Yes. It made me pay attention. When I saw one of the words we used in the possible sentences, I looked carefully because I wanted to see whether I used it correctly in the possible sentence.

Teacher:
Good. Do you think you could make possible sentences in your other classes?

Student:
Yes. We could make a list of the boldface words in the chapter before we start reading. Then we could think of what types of sentences we might read in the chapter and make possible sentences with the boldface words.

Teacher:
Very good thinking. When you make predictions about what you are going to read, it helps you to anticipate what you are going to learn and to understand the text better, and when you use the vocabulary words in your predictions, it helps you to learn the meaning of the new words.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Grouping: Whole group

Check students' revisions of possible sentences for accuracy and understanding of word meaning.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES FOR PRACTICE

Have students generate additional sentences or a story using the vocabulary words. Assign points when a student uses one of the vocabulary words correctly during class discussion. Explain to students that they "own" their words when they can use them in writing or conversation.

Word Pairs

Using current and previously studied vocabulary words, make a chart like the following sample.

Figure 78. Sample Word Pairs Chart: Uncompleted.

	Similar	Different	No Relation
renowned unknown			
slavery emancipation			
abolitionist astonish			
eloquence persuade			
eloquence brutality			
feeble bully			

Stahl, S., & Kapinus, B. (2001). Word power: What every educator needs to know about teaching vocabulary. *Washington, DC: National Education Association. Reprinted with permission of the NEA Professional Library.*

Ask students to mark an *X* in the box or boxes that indicate the relationship of the words. For example, students may mark that *slavery* and *emancipation* are different. The beauty of this activity is the discussion of the relationships between the words. Discussion about relationships encourages deeper thinking about word meaning.

Your completed chart might look like this:

Figure 79. Sample Word Pairs Chart: Uncompleted.

	Similar	Different	No Relation
renowned unknown		X	
slavery emancipation		X	
abolitionist astonish			X
eloquence persuade	X		
eloquence brutality			X
feeble bully		X	

Stahl, S., & Kapinus, B. (2001). Word power: What every educator needs to know about teaching vocabulary. *Washington, DC: National Education Association. Reprinted with permission of the NEA Professional Library.*

WORD LEARNING **SAMPLE LESSON**

Teaching Word Parts

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Carnine, D. W., Silbert, J., Kame'enui, E. J., & Tarver, S. G. (2004). *Direct instruction reading*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education; and Stahl, S. A., & Shiel, T. G. (1992). Teaching meaning vocabulary: Productive approaches for poor readers. *Reading and Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties, 8*, 223–241.

TERMS TO KNOW

Affix	Any part that is added to a word; a prefix or a suffix
Base word	A word that can stand alone and to which affixes can be added
Prefix	A word part that is attached to the beginning of a word
Root	A unit of meaning that cannot stand alone but that can be used to form words with related meanings
Suffix	A word part that is attached to the end of a word

(Encarta World English Dictionary; Moats, 2000)

INTRODUCTION

It is common for secondary teachers to assume that their older students already have a grasp on the parts that make up words, such as roots, prefixes, and suffixes. All too often, this assumption is wrong for struggling readers. Content and vocabulary become more complex as students get older, and this may frustrate or overwhelm struggling readers. Even more advanced readers can benefit from knowledge of Greek and Latin roots. Therefore, it is important to teach students how to break complex words into smaller parts.

Teaching word parts can help struggling readers:

- Recognize words.

- Decode words quickly and accurately.
- Understand the meaning of words.

Teaching Prefixes

Prefixes may be the easiest word parts to teach because their definitions tend to be more consistent. Whereas suffixes usually indicate a word's part of speech, prefixes usually have a concrete definition. Just 20 prefixes make up approximately 97 percent of prefixed words used in school English (White, Sowell, & Yanagihara, 1989; see Figure 83). Even teaching the top 9 prefixes on this list (if not all 20) will improve students' vocabulary learning (Stahl, 1999; White et al., 1989). Prefix instruction should include abundant examples along with nonexamples and even silly words. It is important to provide nonexamples, or words that look like they have prefixes but that are not really prefixed words. Students must understand that identifying word parts is not always straightforward, and does not always "work" as they expect it to. Giving—and generating—examples of silly words can help students understand how **affixes** work to change the meanings of words.

For instance, instruction of the prefix *re-* (meaning *again*) might include:

- Examples: *Redo*, *rewrite*, *replay*, *reclaim*, *rewind*, *recycle*
- Nonexamples: *Ready*, *reason*, *really*, *regular* (words that begin with *re-* but are not prefixed words)
- Silly words: *Resleep* (to sleep again), *reswim* (to swim again), *redine* (to eat again) (Emphasize that these are not real words.)

Teaching Suffixes

Suffixes are often more difficult to teach because their definitions are not as consistent or concrete. Some suffixes contribute to meaning (*-s* in *books* = more than one book), and others show parts of speech (*-ly* in *patiently* = adverb). Therefore, Stahl (1999) suggests that it is better for students to have a lot of experience with suffixed words rather than learning definitions for specific suffixes. See Figure 84 for a list of common suffixes.

Teaching Roots and Base Words

Roots and base words contain the basic meaning of a word. It is important that students understand this so that they are able to isolate roots and base words. When students are able to recognize and recall the meanings of common roots and base words, they are more able to determine the meaning of complex words.

The most common roots in the English language are Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek. About 60 percent of all English words have Latin and Greek roots (Ebbers, 2003). See Figure 85 for a list of common Latin and Greek roots.

If Latin and Greek roots are not directly taught to students, some struggling readers will look for familiar English words within a larger word and will not be able to isolate the root. For example, if a struggling reader with no knowledge of Latin roots is asked to find the root word of *incredible*, the student may conclude, "I see the word *red*. *Red* is the root." But if a student is familiar with the Latin root *cred*, he or she may be able to deduce: "I see the prefix *in-* and the suffix *-ible*. The root *cred* means *to believe*—and the prefix *in-* means *not*. So *incredible* may mean 'not able to believe.'" This is, of course, the type of logical

thinking we want to instill in our students, but they will not do it automatically.

Teaching How Word Parts Work

First, it is important that students understand the function of word parts. Explain to the students that many words are made of parts that carry meaning. These word parts work together to alter, or change, a word's meaning. As an overall introduction to word parts, define the parts simply. For example:

Prefix: A word part that is attached to the beginning of a word.

Suffix: A word part that is attached to the end of a word.

Root or base word: The basic part of a word that carries meaning. A **base word** can stand alone (example: *depend* in *independent*). A **root** is a word part that carries meaning but cannot stand alone (example: *cred* in *incredible*).

It is important that students understand how word parts function together and not just focus on the definition of the terms prefix, suffix, and root (Stahl, 1999). Explain and give multiple examples of affixes being attached to the beginning or end of words. Then, discuss how the affixes change, or alter, the meaning of the words. Give your students multiple opportunities to manipulate word parts. Activities may include:

- Using a pocket chart, demonstrate how to manipulate word parts to make real words. Discuss how adding or removing an affix changes the meaning of a word.
- Write word parts on index cards and have the students make real words with a partner or in small groups. Have students discuss how adding or removing an affix changes the meaning of each word.
- Give partners or small groups of students a stack of index cards containing prefixes, suffixes, and base words. Have partners or groups work together to make a complete list of real words with their stack of word parts.
- Have students use word part cards to generate silly words, or "words" that are not real words but that illustrate how prefixes and suffixes can change the meaning of words. This is most effective for prefixes, as suffixes often change a word's part of speech rather than clearly altering the word's meaning.

Directly Teaching Word Parts

Directly teaching two parts of the word part strategy will enable students to better understand words independently as they are reading:

- Directly teach the most commonly used affixes and roots.
- Give students strategies for chunking, or breaking words apart.

The following sample lesson illustrates direct instruction in the Latin root *port*, meaning "to carry".

OBJECTIVE

Students will recognize the Latin root *port* in words and will learn and apply the meaning of that root.

MATERIALS

- Chalkboard or overhead.
- Pictures illustrating the words *aware* and *unaware* (optional).
- Small poster board or chart paper.
- Pocket chart.
- Index cards.
- Pictures illustrating the words *port*, *transportation*, *portable*, *import*, *export*, and *porter*.
- Word Part Clue Evaluation Charts (see Appendix).

DAILY REVIEW

In this example, the teacher reviews the meaning of the prefix *un-*. The students will encounter the word *unaware* in their reading selection on this day.

Write the target word on the board or overhead. Have students copy the word into their notebooks.

> **Teacher:**
> This word is *unaware*. What word?
>
> **Students:**
> *Unaware*.
>
> **Teacher:**
> Raise your hand if you see a familiar word within this word. Remember, if there is a prefix, cover it and see whether you recognize a word. If not, look for a suffix. If there is one, cover it and look for a familiar word.

When a student responds that he or she sees the word "aware," ask the student to come up to the board or overhead and demonstrate how he or she found the word. The student should cover the prefix "un-," leaving the word "aware" exposed.

> **Teacher:**
> What does it mean to be aware?

Accept responses.

> That's right, *aware* means to notice things and to know what is happening. Raise your hand if you remember what the prefix *un-* means? Correct, the prefix *un-* means "not". So who can

tell me what the word *unaware* means?

Accept responses. Students should be able to say that "unaware" means "not aware" or "not noticing what is going on".

Give the students scenarios and/or show pictures of people being aware and unaware of their surroundings. Have students reply "aware" or "unaware" to each situation.

Aware:

- A child looks both ways before crossing the street.
- A man carries an umbrella on a cloudy day.
- A student notices the words *pop quiz* on the board and takes out her notes to study.

Unaware:

- A mother talks on her cell phone while her child darts across a busy street.
- A man tells a joke about his boss while his boss is standing behind him.
- While a teacher helps a small group of students, another student throws a paper airplane while the principal is looking in the window. (The teacher is unaware of the paper airplane and the student is unaware of the principal.)

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
You have learned that looking for word parts can help you read and understand the meaning of complicated words, and you know the meaning of several common prefixes. Today you will learn a common root. Most of the roots and base words in our language come from Anglo-Saxon, Greek, or Latin. When you can recognize some of these roots and know what they mean, it will unlock the meaning of many words you read. This should help you learn new vocabulary words more easily in all your subjects.

Today we'll learn a common Latin root—*port*.

Optional: If this is the first time you are introducing Latin or Greek roots, you may want to tell students the story about how the English language came to be built from parts of several other languages. This story is found in the Appendix.

MODEL AND TEACH

Grouping: Whole class or small group

Write "port" at the top of a small piece of poster board or chart paper.

Teacher:
The Latin root *port* means "to carry."

Write the meaning "to carry" under the root "port" on the poster board or chart paper.

Teacher:
Do you know some English words that have the root word *port* in them?

Call on individuals. Students may recognize that "port" is an English word itself. Support them to understand that a port is a place where things are put on ships or taken off ships. Discuss the relationship between this idea and the meaning "to carry."

Teacher:
Yes, ships come to a port to unload the goods, or things, that are on them and to load up other things to take away to other places. We learned that the root *port* means "to carry." How is a port where ships come and go related to carrying something?

Accept responses.

Yes, ships carry things across the water, and things are carried off and onto the ships at ports.

If students cannot generate words, ask questions or give clues to help them think of the words "transport" or "transportation," "portable" or "porter". For example, you might prompt students by saying something like:

Teacher:
I have a big CD player at my house. It is not something I can carry around very easily, but I have a little CD player that I can put in my purse and listen to with headphones. When something is easy to carry around we say it is __________.

Simply tell students any words that they cannot easily generate themselves.

Model using word parts as clues to the meanings of words containing the root "port". Give brief, simple definitions of the example words, and write these words on the poster board or chart paper:

Write "transport" on the poster or paper.

Teacher:
The word part *trans* means "across". Since *port* means "to carry," *transport* means "to carry something across something" or "to carry things from one place to another". You can transport furniture in a truck, and you can transport people in your car.

Write "export" on the poster.

The word part *ex* can mean "out". *Export* means "to send out things that are made in one country to a different country". Many of the things we buy are made in China and exported to the United States.

Continue this process with the rest of the words on the list:

- Import: The prefix *im-* can mean "into". *Import* means "to bring (or carry) things into one country from a different country". We import many things from China.
- Portable: The suffix *-able* means "able to," so if something is portable, we are able to carry it.
- Porter: The ending *-er* can mean "someone who". A porter is someone who carries suitcases or other things. If you go to an airport, a porter may carry your suitcases.

Read the completed word list to the students and have them repeat each word after you. Then have the students read the list together. If necessary, have them read it again, starting from the last word and going to the first word. Then call on individuals to read the list.

> **Teacher:**
> So, what does the word part *port* mean?
>
> **Students:**
> To carry.

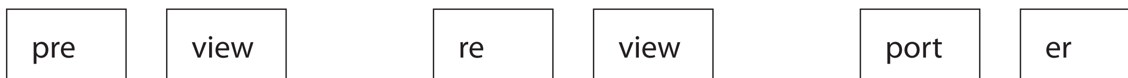
Note: Greek and Latin roots can be used to build a family of words with related meanings, but these words will not always have clear relationships with prefixes and suffixes. For example, the Latin root *aud* means "to hear". It is found in the words *auditorium*, *audience*, and *audiovisual*. When you teach Greek or Latin roots, be sure students understand that the roots may be found in long words, even if these long words do not have recognizable prefixes and suffixes.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class or small group

Use a pocket chart to provide students the opportunity to practice word parts they have previously learned along with the newly learned root *port*. Form words in the pocket chart using index cards with previously learned prefixes, suffixes, base words, and roots written on them. Include a card with the new Latin root *port* on it. Have students read the words and tell the class the meaning of the word parts and of the words.

Figure 80. Sample Word Part Cards.



INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

Have students work with partners to complete Frayer Model graphic organizers for the words *portable* and *transport* or *transportation*. Assign one of these words to each pair of students. Have students use the definitions you provided for the words during the Model and Teach portion of the lesson, and generate examples and nonexamples of the words.

Figure 81. Sample Frayer Model Used in Learning Word Parts.

Definition	Characteristics
Able to be carried easily	Lightweight Small
Examples	**Nonexamples**
Pencil Laptop computer iPod	Wide-screen TV Desktop computer Big CD player

Center word: portable

Adapted with permission from Frayer, D. A., Frederick, W. C., & Klausmeier, H. G. (1969). A schema for testing the level of concept mastery *(Technical report No. 16). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning.*

GENERALIZATION

Ask students for examples of situations in which using the word part strategy would be helpful when they come to unfamiliar words as they are reading. Emphasize the fact that they can use the strategy every time they read.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check students' understanding of the concept by rotating among partners, asking questions, and checking their graphic organizers. Ask students to explain how the word parts contribute to the meaning of the words they form.

PERIODIC/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Teachers should emphasize and model the word part strategy whenever the opportunity presents itself. Some examples are:

- **Within a vocabulary lesson**: If you are planning a larger vocabulary lesson such as Semantic Mapping or Possible Sentences, and one of the target words has a prefix or suffix, you can emphasize the word parts during the discussion of that specific word.
- **Discussion during reading**: You may come across a prefixed or suffixed word while preparing for a selection to be read with your class. If the students do not need to understand the word in order to comprehend the selection, this word does not necessarily need to be pretaught. However, you may use the word to review the word part strategy within the context of whole-class or small-group discussion.
- **Frequent modeling and use of word part strategy**: Students benefit when teachers frequently model the word part strategy through think alouds and give students ample opportunities to practice identifying roots, base words, and affixes.

Think aloud with your students. For example, say you encounter this sentence in your reading: "The librarian has asked us to transport our class set of research books to the library." In this case, you should begin by writing the word *transport* on the board.

> **Teacher**:
> I know that the Latin root *port* means "to carry" and that the prefix *trans-* means "across or from one to another," so *transport* must mean "to carry from one place to another". Sylvia, what does the librarian want us to do with our research books?

WORD PART ANALYSIS

Note: This would be taught in a separate lesson.

It is important to mention that the analysis of word parts may not always work as we expect it to work. Students need to be taught to recognize and think about word parts, not just plug them into a formula. One way to help students think about word parts in this way is to use a Word Part Clue Evaluation Chart (see Appendix for blank template). This type of chart is discussed in Core Literacy Library's *Vocabulary Handbook* (2006) and is an excellent tool to help students understand and think about word parts. Initially, find words in a reading text or content area text that are appropriate to illustrate each column in the chart. The following figure is an example of such a chart.

Figure 82. Sample Word Part Clue Evaluation Chart.

	No Prefix and Root Word	Prefix and Root Word	Prefix + Root = Meaning	Prefix + Root ≠ Meaning
Unhealthy		Un + healthy	Not healthy	
Interest	In + terest			
Depart		De + part		To leave or go away
Return		Re + turn	To turn again; to come back	
Distance	Dis + tance			

Adapted with permission from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence. Reproduction of this material is prohibited without permission from the publisher.*

The key element of this chart is the discussion of each word with your students. Model the process of analyzing word parts through think alouds. For instance:

> **Teacher:**
> The first word is *unhealthy*. First, I see the prefix *un-* and the root word *health* with the suffix *-y*: *healthy*.

Demonstrate covering the prefix with your thumb to reveal the root word.

> So there is a prefix and a root word.

Fill in the second column.

> Now I know the prefix *un-* means "not," so does *unhealthy* mean "not healthy"? Yes, it does.

Fill in the third column.

> Now I am going to look at the next word, *interest*. I know that *in-* is a prefix. Is *terest* a word or a root? No, *terest* is not a real word or a root. So, *interest* does not have a prefix and root word.

Fill in the first column.

As students get older, they are expected to read more multisyllabic words. This can be overwhelming to a struggling reader. Teaching students to both recognize and analyze word parts is a powerful tool to help them unlock the meaning of the many multisyllabic words they are expected to understand.

Figure 83. Common Prefixes.

PREFIX	% of All Prefixed Words	MEANING	EXAMPLES
Un-	26	Not, opposite of	Unaware, unbelievable, unsure
Re-	14	Again	Redo, replay
Im-, in-, il-, ir-	11	Not	Impossible, incapable, illogical, irregular
Dis-	7	Not, opposite of	Dishonest, disgraceful, discover
En-, em-	4	Cause to	Enable, emblaze
Non-	4	Not	Nonstick, nonfiction, nonexistent
In-, im-	3	In, into	Inject
Over-	3	Too much	Overtime, overeat
Mis-	3	Wrongly	Misunderstand, misuse
Sub-	3	Under	Subsurface, subway
Pre-	3	Before	Prepay, preschool
Inter-	3	Between	International, interact
Fore-	3	Before	Forethought
De-	2	Opposite of	Decaffeinated, dehydrate
Trans-	2	Across	Transatlantic
Super-	1	Above	Superhero, supermodel
Semi-	1	Half	Semiannual, semicolon
Anti-	1	Against	Antiwar, antisocial
Mid-	1	Middle	Midyear, midnight
Under-	1	Too little	Underweight, underpaid
All others	3		

Top 20 prefixes from Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richman, B. (1971). The American heritage world frequency book. *Boston: Houghten Mifflin; as cited in White, Sowell, & Yanagihara, 1989.*

Figure 84. Common Suffixes.

SUFFIX	% OF ALL SUFFIXED WORDS	PART OF SPEECH	EXAMPLES
-s, -es	31	Plural of noun	Cats, boxes
-ed	20	Past tense of verb	Sailed
-ing	14	Progressive tense of verb	Jumping, racing
-ly	7	Usually an adverb; sometimes an adjective	Slowly, lovely
-er, -or (agent)	4	Noun (agent)	Runner, professor
-tion, -ation, -ition	4	Noun	Action, transition, vacation
-able, -ible	2	Adjective	Lovable, incredible
-al, -ial	1	Adjective	Global, logical, partial
-y	1	Adjective	Funny
-ness	1	Abstract noun	Kindness
-ity, -ty	1	Noun	Activity
-ment	1	Noun	Merriment
-ic	1	Adjective	Historic
-ous, -eous, -ious	1	Adjective	Hideous, spacious
-en	1	Verb	Quicken, thicken
-er (comparative)	1	Adjective	Bigger
-ive, -ative, -tive	1	Adjective	Alternative, pensive
-ful	1	Adjective	Wonderful
-less	1	Adjective	Effortless
-est	1	Adjective	Strongest
All others	7		

Top 20 suffixes from Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richman, B. (1971). The American heritage world frequency book. *Boston: Houghten Mifflin; as cited in White, Sowell, & Yanagihara, 1989.*

Figure 85. Common Latin and Greek Roots.

ROOT	ORIGIN	MEANING	EXAMPLES
aud	Latin	Hear	Auditorium, audition, audience, audible, audiovisual
astro	Greek	Star	Astronaut, astronomy, asterisk, asteroid, astrology
bio	Greek	Life	Biology, biography, biochemistry
cept	Latin	Take	Intercept, accept, reception
dict	Latin	Speak or tell	Dictation, dictate, predict, contradict, dictator
duct	Latin	Lead	Conduct, induct
geo	Greek	Earth	Geography, geology, geometry, geophysics
graph	Greek	Write	Autograph, biography, photograph
ject	Latin	Throw	Eject, reject, projectile, inject
meter	Greek	Measure	Thermometer, barometer, centimeter, diameter
min	Latin	Little or small	Miniature, minimum, minimal
mit or mis	Latin	Send	Mission, transmit, missile, dismiss, submit
ped	Latin	Foot	Pedal, pedestal, pedestrian
phon	Greek	Sound	Telephone, symphony, microphone, phonics, phoneme
port	Latin	Carry	Transport, portable, import, export, porter
rupt	Latin	Break	Disrupt, erupt, rupture, interrupt, bankrupt
scrib or script	Latin	Write	Scribble, scribe, inscribe, describe, prescribe, manuscript, prescription, script, transcript, scripture
spect	Latin	See	Inspect, suspect, respect, spectacle, spectator
struct	Latin	Build or form	Construct, destruct, instruct, structure
tele	Greek	From afar	Telephone, telegraph, teleport
tract	Latin	Pull	Traction, tractor, attract, subtract, extract
vers	Latin	Turn	Reverse, inverse

Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence; Ebbers, S. (2005).* Language links to Latin, Greek, and Anglo-Saxon: Increasing spelling, word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension through roots and affixes. *Presented at The University of Texas, Austin, TX; and Stahl, S., & Kapinus, B. (2001).* Word power: What every educator needs to know about teaching vocabulary. *Washington, DC: National Education Association.*

WORD LEARNING **SAMPLE LESSON**

Using Context Clues

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; and Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). *Vocabulary handbook*. Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.

INTRODUCTION

Context clues give students an idea, or hint, of what an unfamiliar word might mean. Such clues are found in both the text and/or illustrations surrounding the unknown word. The different types of context clues that can be used to infer a word's meaning are listed in Figure 87, along with examples of how those clues might appear in text. Students benefit from explicit instruction in a strategy for finding and using context clues, such as the one below.

Figure 86. Context Clue Strategy.

1. Reread the sentence that contains the unknown word. Be on the lookout for signal words or punctuation.
2. Reread the sentences before and after the sentence that contains the unknown word.
3. Based on the clues, try to figure out the meaning of the word.
4. Insert your meaning in the original sentence to see whether it makes sense.

Figure 87. Types of Context Clues to be Directly Taught.

TYPE OF CONTEXT CLUE	EXAMPLE*
Definition: The author explains the meaning of the word in the sentence or selection.	When Sara was hiking, she accidentally walked through a patch of **brambles**, *prickly vines and shrubs*, which resulted in many scratches to her legs.
Synonym: The author uses a word similar in meaning.	Josh walked into the living room and accidentally tripped over the **ottoman**. He then mumbled, "I wish people would not leave the *footstool* right in the middle of the room. That's dangerous!"
Antonym: The author uses a word nearly opposite in meaning.	The supermarket manager complained, "Why do we have such a **plethora** of boxes of cereal on the shelves? *In contrast*, we have a real *shortage* of pancake and waffle mix. We've got to do a better job ordering."
Example: The author provides one or more example words or ideas.	There are many members of the **canine** family. *For example*, *wolves*, *foxes*, *coyotes*, and pets such as *collies*, *beagles*, and *golden retrievers* are all canines.
General: The author provides several words or statements that give clues to the word's meaning.	It was a **sultry** day. The day was *very hot and humid*. If you moved at all, you would *break out in a sweat*. It was one of those days to *drink water* and *stay in the shade*.

**Note*: In Example column, words in italics provide context clues for bold words.

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Explain to students that finding and interpreting context clues is not a formula; it is a tool to be tried alongside other tools such as word part clues. Some context clues can be misleading, and students must realize that word-learning strategies involve thinking, not just plugging words into a formula. The following lesson is an introductory context clue lesson that teaches the first type of clue, the definition clue. This lesson can be used as a guide to teach the other four types of context clues: synonym, antonym, example, and general clues.

OBJECTIVE

Students will learn to find and interpret context clues to help figure out the meaning of unfamiliar words. Students will be able to recognize and interpret five types of context clues: definition, synonym, antonym, example, and general.

MATERIALS

- Types of Context Clues chart (see Appendix).
- Transparency of sample sentences.
- Student copies of sentences.
- Context Clue Strategy chart (see Appendix).
- Using Context Clues chart (see Appendix).

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
Yesterday we looked for word part clues to help us figure out the meanings of unfamiliar words. Raise your hand if you can tell me one type of word part that will give us a clue, or hint, to a word's meaning. Billy? Yes, a prefix may help us determine a word's meaning. Sheila? Yes, if we can find a root word and know what it means, that will help us determine the meaning of the unknown word.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Genre: Expository (or narrative)

Teacher:
As you read—whether it is your textbook, a newspaper, a magazine, or a story—there will be words that are not familiar to you. Since you will not always have someone nearby to help you, and I can't teach you every word you need to know, I want to teach you several ways to figure out unfamiliar words on your own. One way to figure out a word is to look for word parts such as prefixes, suffixes, and roots. Another strategy is to look at the sentences and illustrations around the unknown word. Today I am going to teach you how to find clues in the words and phrases that come before and after a particular word. These clues are called *context clues* because they are found in the context, or words and phrases, around the unfamiliar word. Learning to recognize and analyze context clues will help you discover the meaning of words on your own.

MODEL AND TEACH

Grouping: Whole class

> **Teacher:**
> There are several types of context clues. Over the next few weeks, I am going to teach you five different types of context clues to look for.

Briefly show the following chart and simply list the different types of clues.

Figure 88. Types of Context Clues.

TYPE OF CONTEXT CLUE	WHAT TO LOOK FOR	SIGNAL WORDS	SAMPLE SENTENCE
Definition	A definition in the sentence	*Is*, *are*, *is called*, *means*, *or* Signal punctuation: Set off by commas	Brick made of sun-dried clay *is called* **adobe**. The Native Americans used **adobe***, or* bricks made of sun-dried clay, to build their homes.
Synonym	A word with a similar meaning to the unknown word	*Also*, *as*, *like*, *same*, *similarly*, *too*	The Zuni built their homes with brick made of sun-dried clay. The Hopi *also* used **adobe** to build their homes.
Antonym	A word or phrase with the opposite meaning of the unknown word	*But*, *however*, *in contrast*, *on the other hand*, *though*, *unlike*	The Hopi lived in single-family houses, *but* the Iroquois lived in **longhouses**.
Example	Several examples in a list	*Such as*, *for example*, *for instance*, *like*, *including*	The Pueblo people grew many **crops** *such as* corn, beans, and squash.
General	General or inexact clues		After 1700, the Pueblos got sheep from the Spanish, and wool replaced cotton as the most important **textile**.

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.*

A copy of Figure 88 is found in the Appendix. It may be distributed to students as a handout, but you

may consider developing sample sentences with content matter that is familiar to the grade level of your students.

Teacher:
Today we are going to concentrate on just one type of context clue—the definition.

Display the entire chart in Figure 88, but place a large, laminated arrow pointing to the Definition section. Students can see the big picture, but also focus on the type of context clue being taught.

Teacher:
A definition clue provides the meaning of the word right in the sentence. If you see any of the signal words—*is*, *are*, *is called*, or *means*—be on the lookout for a definition. You can also look for signal punctuation to help to find definition clues. If you see the signal word *or* and a phrase set apart by commas, be on the lookout for a definition. Look at the following sentences:

Place sample sentences on the overhead.

Figure 89. Sample Sentences Using Definition Context Clues.

Brick made of sun-dried clay is called **adobe**. The Navajo lived in **hogans**, or dome-shaped houses that were made of logs and mud.

Cover sentences on the transparency so that only the first sentence is visible. Think aloud.

Teacher:
The first sentence says, "Brick made of sun-dried clay is called adobe." I don't know what adobe is.

Circle the word "adobe".

So I'm going to look at the words and phrases around the word, or context clues, to help me figure out the meaning. First I am going to reread the sentence.

Reread the sentence.

I see the signal words *is called*.

Underline "is called" on the transparency.

OK, what is called *adobe*?

Point to the beginning of the sentence.

Brick made of sun-dried clay is called adobe. So, adobe is brick made of clay that is dried in the sun. This type of context clue is simple. I just have to be on the lookout for the signal words—like a detective searching for clues.

Now I'm going to look at the next sentence.

Read the sentence.

I do not know what hogans are.

Circle the word "hogans".

First I am going to reread the sentence.

Reread the sentence.

I see the signal word *or*, and I also see two commas.

Underline the word "or" and circle the two commas.

I am going to read the phrase between the two commas.

Read the phrase.

Hogans must be dome-shaped houses. If I insert my definition into the sentence it would read: "The Navajo lived in dome-shaped houses made of logs and mud." That makes sense.

In both of theses sentences, the definition was right in the sentence. This kind of context clue is called a definition context clue.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class/partners

1. Place 4–6 more sentences on the overhead. These sentences can easily be taken directly from your students' science or social studies texts, or you can write sentences using any content that is relevant to your students' curriculum.

FIGURE 90. MORE SAMPLE SENTENCES USING DEFINITION CONTEXT CLUES.

Everyone has different physical characteristics, or <u>traits</u>. Some of us are tall, while others are short. Some of us have brown eyes, while others have green.

<u>Heredity</u> is the passing of traits from parents to their children.

The things that control such traits are called <u>genes</u>.

Gregor Mendel founded <u>genetics</u>, or the study of heredity and genes, in the 19th century.

2. Give students a copy of the sentences.
3. Review the following chart. A copy is provided in the Appendix.

Figure 91. Context Clue Strategy.

1. Reread the sentence that contains the unknown word. Be on the lookout for signal words or punctuation.
2. Reread the sentences before and after the sentence that contains the unknown word.
3. Based on the clues, try to figure out the meaning of the word.
4. Insert your meaning in the original sentence to see whether it makes sense.

Based on Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

4. Lead the students through finding the meaning of the underlined word in the first sentence by looking for definition context clues.

Ask for a volunteer to read the sentence.

Teacher:
I don't know what traits are.

Circle the word "traits" and ask students to do the same on their paper.

What is the first thing I need to do when I come to a word that is unfamiliar to me?

Accept student responses.

That's right, I need to reread the sentence. What do I need to look for, like a detective?

Accept student responses.

Yes, I need to look for signal words or punctuation.

Point to the Types of Context Clues chart and ask a student to read the signal words and punctuation for a definition context clue. Ask a volunteer to reread the sentence and ask the class to be on the lookout for signal words and punctuation. After the volunteer has reread the sentence, ask students to turn to their partners and point to any signal words or punctuation they see.

Did anyone see any signal words or punctuation?

Accept student responses.

On the overhead, underline the word "or" and circle the comma. Ask students to do the same.

In this case, the unfamiliar word is set apart by the comma and the signal word *or*.

Where should I look, then, to find the definition?

Accept student responses.

That's right. The words right before the signal word are *physical characteristics*. So *traits* must mean "physical characteristics".

Let's try it in the sentence: "Everyone has different traits." Everyone has different physical characteristics. Does that definition make sense? Yes. Raise your hand if you can tell me the definition of *traits*. Yes, traits are physical characteristics. Let's look at the following sentence to see whether we can find some examples of traits.

5. Allow partners 3 to 4 minutes to find the meaning of the underlined word in the second sentence by looking for definition context clues. Circulate around the room and be available for guidance. After 3 to 4 minutes, work through the sentence on the overhead with the class. Follow the same procedure for the last two sentences.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

1. Provide partners with a short passage that you create or take directly from a student textbook. Sample text:

Figure 92. Sample Passage for Practice Using Definition Context Clues.

> When someone who is not very well known unexpectedly wins a nomination for public office, they are called a <u>dark horse candidate</u>. James A. Polk, a dark horse candidate, won the Democratic presidential nomination in 1844. Polk was in favor of the <u>annexation</u>, or the adding of a territory to another country, of both Texas and Oregon. Henry Clay, Polk's opponent, was also in favor of annexation.

2. Tell students that they are going to practice using definition context clues to find the meaning of the underlined words.

3. Give students a chart like the one below to guide their work:

Figure 93. Sample Context Clues Chart.

Unfamiliar Word	Signal Word or Punctuation	Our Definition
Dark horse candidate		
Annexation		

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Adapted from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

4. Circulate around the room and be available for guidance.

Figure 94. Sample Context Clues Chart: Completed

Unfamiliar Word	Signal Word or Punctuation	Our Definition
Dark horse candidate	Are called	When someone who is not famous wins a political nomination unexpectedly
Annexation	Commas, or	Adding a territory to another country

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Adapted from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
Think about your other classes. Do you think using context clues might help you with any of your reading outside of this class?

Student:
I think I've seen definition context clues in our science book.

Teacher:
I'm sure you have. Textbook authors want you to understand what you are reading and will help you by planting clues in the text to help you understand new words. Raise your hand if you can tell me what signal words or punctuation marks you can look for to help you find definition context clues.

Student:
We can look for the signal words *is called* or for phrases set apart by commas.

Teacher:
That's right. Be on the lookout for context clues in your other classes.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check Figure 94, above, for appropriate responses, including:

- Correct identification of signal words and punctuation.
- Correct definitions derived from the context clues.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Periodically give students a passage that you either create or take directly from students' textbooks. Underline words that may be unfamiliar to students, and have them work either independently or with partners to find the meaning of the underlined words.

Once you have taught other types of context clues, modify the guide so that students must identify and use the different kinds of context clues.

Figure 95. Using Context Clues Chart.

Unfamiliar Word	Signal Word or Punctuation	TYPE OF CONTEXT CLUE Definition, Synonym, Antonym, Example, or General	My Definition

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Adapted from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

WORD LEARNING **SAMPLE LESSON**
The Vocabulary Strategy

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; and Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). *Vocabulary handbook*. Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.

INTRODUCTION

Once you have taught students about word parts and context clues, you can teach them how to combine these two strategies into a system, or routine, for figuring out the meaning of unknown words. The Vocabulary Strategy is a systematic way of thinking through the process of discovering the meaning of an unknown word during reading. The goal, of course, is for your students to use this strategy independently and in a variety of settings.

OBJECTIVE

Students will use the Vocabulary Strategy worksheet to guide them through the process of using word parts and context clues to figure out the meaning of unknown words.

MATERIALS

- Vocabulary Strategy Chart (see Appendix).
- Vocabulary Strategy Worksheet transparency and student copies (see Appendix).
- Sample text with vocabulary words.
- Dictionaries.
- Science or social studies text.

DAILY REVIEW

Teacher:
When you are reading on your own and you come to a word for which you do not know the meaning, what is one way you can figure out the meaning of the word?

Accept responses.

Yes, Candace, you can try to break the word into parts. What are some of the parts that may give you a clue to the word's meaning?

Accept responses.

Correct, you can look at prefixes, suffixes, and root words. Can anyone remember another way to find out what a word means?

Accept responses.

Yes, we can look at context clues. Where do we find context clues?

Accept responses.

Exactly, in the words and phrases around the unknown word. Raise your hand if you can remember one type of context clue that we have learned.

Quickly review the five types of context clues you have already taught: definition, synonym, antonym, example, and general.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Genre: Expository or narrative

Teacher:
You have already learned several different ways to figure out unknown words by yourself as you are reading. Today I am going to show you how to think through using both word parts and context clues to figure out the meaning of unknown words as you read. Raise your hand if you can tell me what might happen if you just skip over words that you don't know.

Accept responses.

That's right, you probably won't understand what you are reading. What does the prefix *mis-* mean, Sylvia? Yes, *mis-* means "wrong". So, Sylvia, if you misunderstand what you are reading, you do what? Yes, you understand it wrong. Would that be confusing? Good, so today I am going to teach you the Vocabulary Strategy. This strategy will help you use your knowledge of word parts and context clues to figure out the meaning of unfamiliar words.

MODEL AND TEACH

Grouping: Whole class

1. Present the following chart to the class and read through each step.

Figure 96. The Vocabulary Strategy Chart.

The Vocabulary Strategy
If you read a word that you do not understand: 1. Look for CONTEXT CLUES. Reread the sentence and the surrounding sentences. 2. Can you break the WORD into PARTS? (If not, go to Step 3.) a. Is there a PREFIX? What does it mean? b. Is there a SUFFIX? What does it mean? c. Is there a ROOT WORD? What does it mean? d. Put the meaning of the word parts together. What is the meaning of the whole word? 3. GUESS what the word means. 4. INSERT your meaning into the original sentence to see whether it makes sense. 5. If needed, use the DICTIONARY to confirm your meaning.

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Adapted with permission from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence. Reproduction of this material is prohibited without permission.*

Teacher:
This chart is going to guide your thinking as you work through trying to find out what an unknown word means. Eventually, I would like for you to be able to go through this thinking process on your own. But for now, this chart is going to be our guide.

2. Choose a passage from your text and display it on the overhead. For example:

Sam Houston was the first president of the Texas **republic**. He sent an **ambassador**, an official who represents a country, to the United States. This ambassador's job was to ask that Texas be **annexed**, or added to the country. President Jackson **disapproved**. So, Texas remained an **independent** nation for 10 years.

Teacher:
As I read this passage aloud, follow along and read the last word of every sentence.

Follow along with your finger as you read.

Teacher:
Sam Houston was the first president of the Texas …

Students:
Republic.

Teacher:
He sent an ambassador, an official who represents a country, to the United …

Students:
States.

Continue in this way until you have read the entire passage.

3. Model word one.

Teacher:
OK, the first word with which I am unfamiliar is *republic*. The first step of the Vocabulary Strategy tells us to look for context clues. I'm going to reread the sentence. "Sam Houston was the first president of the Texas republic." OK, so a republic has a president. What else do I know that has a president? A country has a president, so maybe a republic is a country. I don't see an example or a definition of a republic; this clue is kind of general.

The second step asks whether I can break the word into parts. Well, I see the prefix *re-*. *Re-* means "again". And the root word looks like *public*. So if this were a prefix and a root word, the whole word would mean "to be public again". I don't think that makes much sense. Maybe this isn't really a prefix and a root word. I'm going to keep that in mind and move on to Step 3.

Step 3 says to guess what the word means. I think the best definition I have so far is that a republic is a country.

So I'm going to insert my meaning into the original sentence and see whether it makes sense. "Sam Houston was the first president of the Texas country … or country of Texas." Well, that would make sense if Texas were a country at the time.

I'm going to double-check by looking in the dictionary. Caleb, will you turn to page 300 of the dictionary and read the definition of *republic* for us?

HELPFUL HABIT

You can look up the definition before the lesson so that you don't waste any class time waiting on students to locate the word. You can either direct the students to the page or tab the page for them. The most important thing is that students learn to use the dictionary to double-check their own thinking.

Student:
The dictionary says that a republic is "a state or country in which people elect representatives to exercise power for them."

Teacher:
OK, so that makes sense. Texas was a republic, or state or country, and they elected Sam Houston as their president.

4. Model word two.

Teacher:
The next word I am going to try to figure out is *ambassador*. Look at the chart and

raise your hand if you can tell me the first thing I need to do.

Accept responses.

Teacher:
That's right, I'm going to look for context clues by rereading the sentence and the surrounding sentences.

Reread the sentence.

Teacher:
"He sent an ambassador, an official who represents a country, to the United States." There are no signal words, but there is signal punctuation: two commas surrounding the phrase, "an official who represents a country." So I think that is the definition.

I will still look at the next step and see whether I can break the word into smaller parts. I don't see any way to break *ambassador* into parts, so I will move on to Step 3.

Step 3 asks me to guess the meaning of *ambassador*. Well, I think it is an official person who represents a country. The definition context clue told me that.

So now I am going to insert it and see whether it makes sense. "He sent an official person who represents a country to the United States." Yes, that makes sense. Sam Houston sent someone to represent the country of Texas to the United States.

I can check the dictionary to make sure on this one, but usually if the context clue is a definition clue like this, I can be pretty confident that I have the right definition. Let's look, though. Maria, will you look on page 20 of the dictionary and tell me what *ambassador* means.

Student:
An ambassador is "an official of the highest ranking sent by one country as its representative to another country".

Teacher:
So was my definition correct, everyone?

Students:
Yes.

5. Model word three.

Teacher:
Now I want to figure out the meaning of the word *independent*. What is the first thing I need to do, Juanita?

Accept response.

Yes, I need to look for context clues. Step 1 tells me to reread the sentence and surrounding sentences, looking for clues.

Reread the sentence.

Teacher:
"So, Texas remained an independent nation for 10 years." OK, I don't see any clues

or signal words in that sentence. So I will reread the sentence before.

Reread the sentence.

Teacher:
"President Jackson disapproved." That doesn't really give me any clues, but, logically, I wonder what President Jackson disapproved of? If I look at the sentence before, it says that he disapproved of Texas being added to the country. So Texas is not part of the United States; it is by itself. So maybe *independent* means "by yourself".

What should I do next, Tamika?

Accept response.

Teacher:
Yes, now I need to try to break the word into parts. I see the prefix *in-*, which means "not". And the root word is *dependent* or *depend*. I know that a child might depend on his Mom or be dependent on his Mom. What might that word mean, Julie?

Accept response.

Teacher:
Yes, Julie, *depend* might mean "to need someone or something". So if I put those two meanings together, *independent* might mean "to not need someone or something".

Step 3 asks me to guess the meaning of the word. If I put both clues together—the context clues and the word part clues—I think *independent* means "to be alright alone and not need anyone else".

To follow Step 4, I will insert my meaning into the sentence. "So, Texas remained a nation by itself, not needing anyone else, for 10 years." That sort of makes sense.

I'm going to follow Step 5 and check the dictionary to make sure. Joel, will you turn to page 100 of the dictionary and tell us the definition for *independent*?

Student:
The dictionary says that *independent* means "free from any authority or control of something else and able to operate and stand on its own".

Teacher:
So my definition was close, but the dictionary definition makes complete sense. Texas was free from authority from any other nation and able to operate on its own for 10 years. Sometimes the Vocabulary Strategy will give you an idea of the word's meaning, but word parts and context clues may not help you understand *exactly* what a word means.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole class/sitting with partners

1. Introduce the guided practice activity.

Teacher:
Today I am going to show you how to use the Vocabulary Strategy worksheet to guide you through the process of using the Vocabulary Strategy (see Figure 96).

Figure 97. The Vocabulary Strategy Worksheet.

The Vocabulary Strategy Worksheet

Word _______________________

Context Sentence ____

____

1. Look for context clues.

   a. Reread the sentence, looking for signal words and punctuation.

Signal Words and Punctuation:

   b. Reread the sentences before and after the sentence with the word in it.

Context Clues:

2. Look for word parts you know. Tell what each word part means.

Prefix:

Suffix:

Root:

Put the parts together. What does this mean?

3. What do you think the word means? ____

   ____

4. Try your meaning in the context sentence. Does it make sense? ____________

5. Check the word with a dictionary if you need to. Remember that many words have more than one meaning, so look for the one that goes with the sentence in the book. Were you right? ________

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; and Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

Give each student two copies of a blank Vocabulary Strategy worksheet and project a blank worksheet on the overhead. (For blank worksheets, see Appendix.)

Teacher:
Using the same social studies passage we worked with yesterday, we are going to look for clues to find the meaning of the words *annexed* and *disapproved*. Let's start with the word *annexed*. The first space asks for me to write the unknown word. Our unknown word is *annexed*, so I am going to write *annexed* here. Fill in the first blank on the worksheet.

Teacher:
Below that we need to write our context sentence. The context sentence is the sentence that contains the unknown word. What sentence will I need to write here, Steven?

Student:
"This ambassador's job was to ask that Texas be annexed, or added to the country."

Teacher:
That is correct. I am going to write the context sentence here.

Fill in the second blank.

Now when I look at the rest of the worksheet, I can see that there are five main boxes and that each one leads me through the steps on the Vocabulary Strategy Chart.

2. Continue to guide students as they complete the chart in partners. Focus first on context clues.

Teacher:
The first step tells us to reread the context sentence and surrounding sentences. With your partner, I want you to reread the sentence, looking for context clues. If you find any signal words or punctuation, write them here (*point to the Signal Words box*), and if you see any clues, write them here (*point to the Context Clue box*).

Review signal words and punctuation if necessary.

Allow partners 3–5 minutes to reread and document any context clues or signal words/punctuation. Circulate around the room and be available to help.

Return to the overhead and ask for volunteers to share context clues and signal words/punctuation. Record answers on the overhead.

Students should have found the signal word "or," preceded by a comma. Also, they should have been able to locate the definition clue "added to the country".

3. Proceed in the same way as you focus on word part clues.

Teacher:
Step 2 asks whether we can break the word into parts. Do I see a prefix? No, so I will draw a slash here and here. Do I see a suffix? Yes, *-ed* is a suffix, and I know that means "past tense," but that doesn't really tell me anything.

Record on worksheet.

Raise your hand if you can tell me the root word. Accept responses. Yes, the root word is *annex*. I will write that here, but the word part clues haven't given us very much information about the meaning of the word. If I put the meanings together, all I know is that *annexed* is the past tense of *annex*.

4. Guide students through Step 3 of the strategy.

   Teacher:
   Step 3 asks us what we think the word means. With your partner, use the context clues and word part clues to come up with a definition. Write your answers under Step 3.

   Allow students a few minutes to discuss and write. They should be able to locate and write the definition clue "added to a country".

   Raise your hand if you can give me a definition.

   Accept responses.

   That's right, we found a definition context clue that gives us the definition! So let's try it in our sentence.

5. Guide students as they complete Step 4, trying the word in a sentence to see whether it makes sense.

   Teacher:
   Please read the sentence with our definition inserted, Marcus.

   Student:
   "This ambassador's job was to ask that Texas be added to the country."

   Teacher:
   Does that make sense?

   Students:
   Yes.

6. Have students verify their answer using a dictionary.

   Teacher:
   OK, we feel pretty confident because our context clue was a definition clue, but let's look it up in the dictionary, just to make sure. Gina, would you look on page 22 and read us the definition of *annex*?

   Student:
   Annex means "to take over a territory and incorporate it with another country or state".

   Teacher:
   We can assume that *incorporate* means "add," so does our definition still make sense?

   Students:
   Yes.

   Teacher:
   Yes, it does. Nice work.

7. Following the same procedure as above, lead the students through each step of the worksheet, one section at a time. This time students will find the meaning of a second word (*disapproved*). Make sure that students understand that each worksheet is used to find the definition for one word.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

- Choose a selection from the students' science or social studies text.
- Highlight or write 2–4 words that may be unknown to your students.
- Working with a partner, have the students read the text and determine the meaning of the unknown words. Ask pairs to follow the Vocabulary Strategy worksheet and complete one worksheet for each word.
- Circulate around the room and be available for guidance.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
Raise your hand if you can tell me a way that the Vocabulary Strategy can help you in your other classes.

Student:
Well, when we come to a word we don't understand, we can remember to look for context clues and also for word parts. Then we can use what clues we've found to guess what the word means.

Teacher:
Right! You don't have to have a form like the one we used as we learned the strategy. You just need to remember to look for *both* word part clues and context clues. Now if any of you use this strategy to figure out the meaning of a word in another class, let me know. I'd love for you to share your experience with the rest of the class.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check worksheets for appropriate responses.

PERIODIC REVIEW/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Periodically have students complete a Vocabulary Strategy worksheet with a word or words in an instructional-level passage (guided practice) or an independent-level passage (independent practice).

Choose a section from the students' science or social studies text and highlight a few words that the students might not know. Have the students figure out the meaning of the unknown word or words by following the Vocabulary Strategy—with the Vocabulary Strategy worksheet at first.

Keep the steps of the Vocabulary Strategy posted in your room so that students can refer to it when they come to a word they do not know.

Always remind students that they can use this strategy in their other classes and any time they read. It is most important that students are able to generalize the strategies you teach them.

Chapter 8
Fluency

TERMS TO KNOW

Automaticity	Results when words are recognized immediately without having to decode sounds or syllables
Fluency	The ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with expression
Prosody	Interpreting cues such as punctuation, italics, and boldface words with appropriate pauses, stops, intonation, and pitch variation
Rate	The speed of reading

(NRP, 2000; Osborn & Lehr, 2003; Encarta World English Dictionary; Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002)

WHY SHOULD MIDDLE SCHOOL READING TEACHERS FOCUS ON FLUENCY?

Fluency is said to be the bridge between word recognition and comprehension (Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004). Slow and laborious reading is frustrating for secondary students and often leads them to avoid reading altogether (Rasinski et al., 2005).

There is a correlation between reading fluency and reading comprehension, so in addition to instruction in comprehension strategies, teaching students to read fluently may help them better understand what they read (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, & Jenkins, 2001). If students spend most of their effort focused on word recognition or reading one word at a time without phrasing, their ability to comprehend text is compromised. Fluent readers at the middle school level display the following characteristics:

- Read 100–160 words per minute.
- Have automatic word recognition skills.
- Group words into meaningful phrases or chunks.
- Read with expression.
- Make few word identification errors and usually self-correct when they do make errors.
- Understand what they read.

The goal of fluency instruction is to train students to read effortlessly. Students who read effortlessly are free to focus on comprehending text because they do not have to wrestle with words (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002). It is important to note that effortless reading does not solely refer to how quickly a student reads the words on the page. A student may be able to read a passage very quickly, but may not necessarily decode words accurately or understand what he or she is reading (Rasinski et al., 2005). Similarly, a student may be able to read every word correctly, but if the student is not reading with **automaticity**, he or she will not be able to understand the ideas behind the words (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002). In order to bridge the gap between word recognition and comprehension, improved **rate** or speed of reading must be accompanied by high accuracy and appropriate expression.

CAVEATS ABOUT ORAL READING FLUENCY IN MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

Many of the guidelines about monitoring students' progress and establishing benchmarks in oral reading fluency for older students with reading difficulties are based on research with younger children in grades 1–4. Considerably less is known about fluency practices for older students. Consider the following when interpreting fluency rates with older students:

- The most important outcome for students is that they can understand and learn from the text they read. If students have below-average fluency but demonstrate average or above comprehension, it may not be appropriate to spend considerable time on improving their rate of reading.
- Students who read above 90–100 WCPM with 90 percent accuracy in grade-level text may benefit from time spent on enhancing their background knowledge, vocabulary, and/or comprehension rather than on fluency instruction.
- Consider the individual needs of adolescent learners, their interest in reading, and their motivation to learn as you interpret oral reading fluency scores and develop interventions.

WHAT TYPE OF INSTRUCTION WILL HELP MY STUDENTS IMPROVE THEIR FLUENCY?

Select Appropriate Text

The first step in planning fluency instruction is to select appropriate text to use for instruction. Refer to the steps suggested in the Assessment chapter of this book to find each student's accuracy level. Remember, a student's accuracy level can be found by using the following formula and accompanying guidelines in Figure 98:

Number of words read correctly in one minute divided by total number of words read = Accuracy level

Figure 98. Accuracy Guidelines.

Independent Level	
≤ 1 in 20 words is difficult	95%–100% accuracy
Instructional Level	
≤ 1 in 10 words is difficult	90%–94% accuracy
Frustration Level	
Difficulty with ≥ 1 in 10 words	≤ 90% accuracy

If you ask your sixth-grade student Maria to read a 150-word passage on the sixth-grade level and she makes 10 errors while reading, her accuracy is 93 percent (140 WCPM / 150 WPM = .93). This tells you that sixth-grade material is at Maria's instructional level. This is an appropriate level for fluency instruction.

Modeling and Repeated Reading

Students need to hear explicit models of fluent reading. A teacher, parent, tutor, student, cassette tape, or computer program can provide this modeling.

When you model reading a passage fluently, remember to:

- Read with expression and **prosody** (an understanding of phrasing and the cues provided by punctuation).

HELPFUL HABIT | Explain prosody to your students by saying, "I paused here because there is a comma" or, "The question mark tells me to raise my voice a little at the end of this sentence".

- Demonstrate combining words into meaningful phrases.
- Demonstrate how to sweep your finger under words and phrases instead of pointing to each individual word as you read.
- Have students engage in setting goals and measuring fluency.

Repeated Reading with Corrective Feedback

The majority of fluency research has focused on elementary students. There is still a great need for further fluency studies with secondary struggling readers, but based on what we know about teaching young readers to be fluent, we can provide direct fluency instruction to our older readers. The National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) found that guided repeated oral reading practice has "a significant and positive impact on word recognition, fluency, and comprehension across a range of grade levels" (p. 12). Your fluency instruction should include:

- Explicit modeling of fluent reading.
- Teacher or student support with corrective feedback.

- Opportunities for students to read text multiple times.
- Oral reading practice.
- Regular monitoring of student progress.

Several repeated reading strategies include all of the above elements. Descriptions of the most promising fluency strategies for secondary struggling readers are provided on the following pages.

Partner Reading

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Based on Delquadri, J., Greenwood, C. R., Whorton, D., Carta, J. J., & Hall, R. V. (1986). Classwide peer tutoring. *Exceptional Children, 52*, 535–542; Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L. S., Mathes, P. G., & Simmons, D. C. (1997). Peer-assisted learning strategies: Making classrooms more responsive to diversity. *American Educational Research Journal, 34*, 174–206; Greenwood, C. R., Delquadri, J. C., & Hall, R. V. (1989). Longitudinal effects of classwide peer tutoring. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 81*, 371–383; Mathes, P. G., Torgesen, J. K., Allen, S. H., & Allor, J. H., (2001). *PALS: Peer-assisted literacy strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West; and Topping, K. (1987). Paired reading: A powerful technique for parent use. *The Reading Teacher, 40*, 608–614.

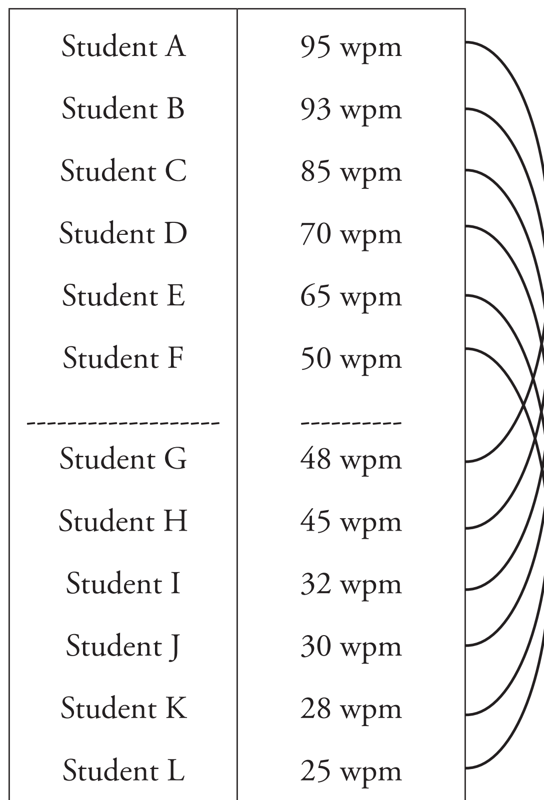
ASSIGN PARTNERS

In partner reading, students read and reread text with partners. One way to assign partners is to make a list of all students in the class, with the highest-level reader at the top and the lowest-level reader at the bottom. Next, divide the list in half. The highest-level reader will be partnered with the top student on the bottom half of the list. The next student on the top half will be partnered with the next student on the bottom half and so on. See Figure 99 for an example. This is one way to assign partners. For some older readers, rotating pairs frequently has been shown to be an effective way to keep students motivated (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Kazdan, 1999). There is more than one way to assign partners. Knowing your students' personalities and reading levels is the key to having a productive partner reading time. It is fine to rotate partners when needed.

Things to consider when rotating partner assignments:

- Assign a higher-level reader with a somewhat lower-level reader. The higher-level reader will model fluent reading.
- Consider the personality of your students.
- Choose text that is on the instructional level of the lower-level student.

Figure 99. Possible Method for Assigning Reading Partners.



TEACH THE PROCEDURE

It is very important to model and teach the partner reading procedure. You can model the procedure with a student or another adult, or you can show a videotape of two students working together. It is essential that students see the procedure in action and are allowed to practice the steps before they are expected to work together independently. When they are proficient, you will be able to focus on working with individual pairs, giving corrective feedback and progress monitoring. Use the steps of effective instruction to teach the partner reading routine. First model what you want students to do. Then provide guided and independent practice. When students fail to follow the routine appropriately, rather than reprimanding them, simply reteach the procedure—model, provide guided practice, and provide independent practice.

PARTNER READING ROUTINE

1. Partner 1, usually the higher-level reader, reads first paragraph. Partner follows along.
2. Partner 2, usually the lower-level reader, reads the same paragraph.
3. Students briefly discuss what they just read by retelling what happened or by identifying the main idea of the paragraph. They can identify the main idea by asking each other: "Who or what was the paragraph mainly about?" and "What was the most important thing about the 'who' or the 'what?'"
4. Repeat steps 1–3 until passage is complete.

(Klingner et al., 2001)

CORRECTION PROCEDURES

- If a student reads a word incorrectly, skips a word, or does not know a word, his/her partner will point to the word and say, "What is this word?"
- If the student reads the word correctly, the partner says, "Yes, that word is ____. What word? Please reread the sentence."
- If the student does not know the word, the partner says, "That word is _____. What word? Please reread the sentence."
- The student repeats the word and is asked to reread the sentence.

(Carnine, Silbert, Kame'enui, & Tarver, 2004; Mathes et al., 2001)

Your students will also need several opportunities to practice the correction procedure with you and with each other. If you, as a teacher, use this exact procedure for correcting during whole-class instruction, your students will pick up the procedure quickly.

The following sample lesson teaches the partner reading routine. It is essential to teach and reteach this routine until the procedure becomes habit. Once the partner reading routine is established, students are able to follow the procedure independently. Thus, transition time is reduced, lessons move at a quick pace, and students feel a sense of security by knowing exactly what is expected of them. You may want to provide students with cards to cue them to follow the partner reading routine.

Readers' Theatre

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Worthy, J., & Broaddus, K. (2002). Fluency beyond the primary grades: From group performance to silent independent reading. *Reading Teacher, 55*, 334–343.

INTRODUCTION

Readers' theatre involves students in extensive practice and rehearsal of scripted material to be performed for a group. By the time struggling readers reach middle school and high school, they have probably had several unsuccessful, or "bad," experiences reading in front of their peers. Readers' theatre can provide older struggling readers with an opportunity to be successful at reading. This experience may lead to greater student confidence, motivation, and, because of the extensive practice required, improved oral reading fluency (Rinehart, 1999). As with any new activity, you will need to model, or demonstrate, what a readers' theatre performance may look like. It would be beneficial to develop a criteria chart with the class to be used for all performances. Criteria may include but not be limited to:

- Readers speak clearly and use an appropriate volume.
- Readers read the text accurately.
- Readers read the text with expression.
- Members of the group cooperate with each other during rehearsal time.
- The group uses their rehearsal time wisely.

PROCEDURE

Select Material to Read
Scripted material can be developed from children's books, poetry, song lyrics, plays, stories, or novels with rich dialogue.

Develop the Script
Assign dialogue to different characters or voices in a story, novel, or poem. Highlight each role so that each student has a copy of the script with his or her role highlighted.

Assign Roles
Readers' theatre groups can be as small or as large as needed. It will probably work best to keep groups small at first. When students become confident with the process of rehearsing and performing, you may assign scripts with a larger number of performers.

Practice, Practice, Practice
Allow students ample time to practice and rehearse their script. This repeated practice of familiar text is necessary to improve oral reading fluency to prepare for the "performance" when they read for the class or others. According to Rasinski et al. (2005), "when students are asked to perform for others, they have a natural inclination and desire to practice the passage to the point where they can read it accurately, with appropriate rate, and especially with meaningful expression and phrasing" (p. 26).

Perform
Students are expected to read the text, not just recite their lines from memory. Students may perform for the class, for another class, or for younger students. When students become comfortable with performing, they may want to prepare a piece to perform for parents or for a school assembly.

Discuss
After every performance, discuss with the group and the class the strengths of the performance. Also, give suggestions and have students offer suggestions for improving the performance.

Tape-assisted Reading

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Adapted from Chomsky, C. (1978) When you still can't read in third grade: After decoding, what? In S. J. Samuels (Ed.), *What research has to say about reading instruction*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

INTRODUCTION

Tape-assisted reading requires students to read along with a tape recording of a fluent reader. As a teacher, you may want to record yourself reading fluently, or you may choose to purchase one of several fluency programs that provide a tape-recorded or a computer-generated fluent reader. Some prerecorded tapes are purposefully recorded at different levels of fluency, with each reading becoming increasingly fluent. Thus, students are more likely to be able to keep up with the initial rate and to read along with the tape at higher levels of fluency with practice. When students are engaged in tape-assisted reading, it is essential that they actually read along with the tape in a quiet voice rather than simply listening to the tape. Students must be monitored carefully and continually.

Before the activity begins, set fluency goals with each student. For example, one student's goal may be to read 100 words per minute (wpm) with fewer than three mistakes, while another student's goal may be to read 70 wpm with fewer than five mistakes. Each student's goal will depend on the level of difficulty of the passage they are reading and their current oral reading fluency level. Students should be involved in setting goals and maintaining their own oral reading fluency charts. See the Assessing Reading Fluency section of Chapter 2: Selecting and Administering Assessments for a discussion of oral reading rates.

PROCEDURE

While listening to a fluent reader read the text on tape, students read aloud softly along with the tape.

Students continue to practice with tape support until they are able to read the text independently. This may be followed with one to three readings without the tape.

Students signal the teacher when they are confident that they can meet their fluency goals.

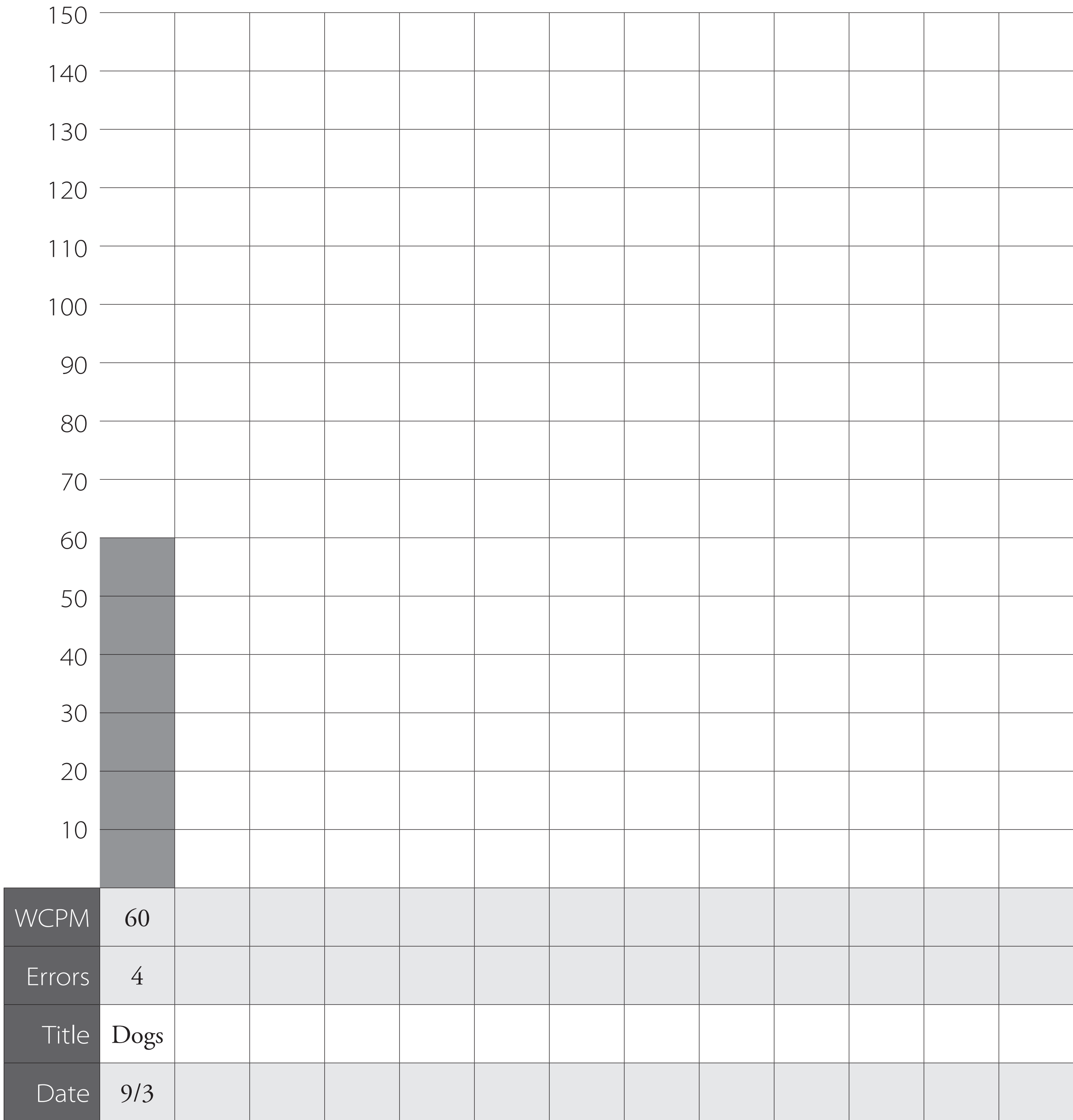
The teacher times the students reading independently for 1 minute. The teacher then helps the students graph how many words they read correctly and reviews any mistakes.

Progress Monitoring

The most efficient way to measure fluency is to give a Curriculum-Based Measurement Oral Reading Fluency assessment (CBM/ORF). Originally developed in 1985 by Stanley Deno at the University of Minnesota, a CBM/ORF assessment requires little time to administer. During a CBM/ORF measure, a student is asked to read a passage for 1 minute while the teacher marks mistakes. The teacher then determines the student's words correct per minute (WCPM) by subtracting the errors from the total number of words read in one minute. See the Assessing Reading Fluency section of Chapter 2: Selecting and Administering Assessments for directions for administering a CBM/ORF assessment.

Keeping track of progress on a fluency chart (see Figure 100) can be motivating for older students. Goals may need to be modified based on student progress. If a student is not making sufficient progress, he or she may need more fluency practice using one of the approaches described above. Also, it may be well worth your time to teach the partner reading routine to a parent or older sibling of a student. This way, the student can receive additional practice at home.

Figure 100. Fluency Chart.



Chapter 9
Word Recognition

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Strategy for reading multisyllable words adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005a). *REWARDS: Multisyllabic word reading strategies*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

TERMS TO KNOW

Consonant blend	A combination of consonant letters found before or after a vowel sound in a syllable, in which each consonant represents a unique sound (*tr-*, *spr-*)
Consonant digraph	A combination of consonant letters that represent one speech sound (*ph-*, *ch-*)
Decoding	Using sound-symbol relationships to read words and determine the meaning of text
Irregular word	A word in which letters or letter combinations do not make their most common, or expected, sounds; a word that does not follow the most common conventions of phonics; often taught as sight words
Prefix	A morpheme that comes before a root or base word and modifies its meaning
Schwa	An indistinct vowel sound found in unstressed English syllables (usually sounds like short *u* or short *i*)
Suffix	A morpheme that follows a root or base word and modifies its meaning
Syllable	A minimal unit of speech organized around a vowel sound

(Harris & Hodges, 1995; Moats, 2000)

INTRODUCTION

The goal of reading is, of course, to make meaning from the text (NICHD, 2000), but, as discussed in the chapter on assessment, there are many reasons why students at the secondary level have difficulties with reading comprehension. Some students have difficulty with quickly and accurately recognizing the words on the page. For some students, this problem is related to serious difficulties **decoding** even simple words. These students often need long-term, intensive intervention. Other students recognize short words easily, but are inaccurate when they try to decode words with more than one or two syllables.

This section will focus on word recognition instruction, specifically for students who need instruction in reading multisyllable words. We will conclude with recommendations to guide the selection of instructional materials for intervention with students who have more severe word reading difficulties.

In order to design effective word recognition instruction, it is important to know:

- How to teach students to recognize different syllable patterns.
- A strategy for reading multisyllable words.
- How to plan and implement effective word recognition instruction.
- How to select a scientific research-based word recognition program for middle school struggling readers.

TEACHING STUDENTS TO RECOGNIZE SYLLABLE PATTERNS IN WORDS

When skilled readers encounter unfamiliar multisyllable words, such as technical or scientific terms, they usually look for familiar or pronounceable parts within the words. Then they mentally "pronounce" each word part to attempt to read the word. You can try this yourself with the words in the following sentence from a medical essay:

> Our previous work demonstrated that regulation of apoptotic cell death is a critical factor in controlling lymphomagenesis.

(Eischen, 2006)

You probably separated the word *apoptotic* into pronounceable parts such as *a-pop-to-tic*, or you might have divided it as *a-pop-tot-ic*. Either way, you probably were able to make your way through the word with a close approximation of the correct pronunciation. The word *apoptotic* means "pertaining to apoptosis," a kind of programmed cell death in which the body eliminates cells that threaten survival.

For the word *lymphomagenesis*, you may have recognized the prefix *lympho-* as a word part you have heard before. You may have associated it with lymph nodes in the body or the cancer lymphoma. You may have also recognized the word *genesis*, meaning "beginning or origin". You may have divided the word into two parts: *lymphoma* and *genesis*, concluding that it has something to do with the beginning of a lymphoma cancer. The word *lymphomagenesis* does, in fact, mean "the growth and development of lymphoma, a kind of cancer in the network of glands and vessels that are the basis of the body's immune system".

Using the strategy of looking for recognizable word parts within these words helped you pronounce the words and gave you clues to the words' meanings. Students with difficulties reading multisyllable words can be taught to use this strategy.

WHAT DO STUDENTS NEED TO KNOW ABOUT SYLLABLES?

In order to use the strategy of identifying recognizable word parts within long words students must know:

- That these words are composed of pronounceable word parts called syllables.
- That each **syllable** contains one vowel sound (but that sound may be spelled with a vowel combination as in *maintain*, with the letter *y* as in *slowly*, or even with a contraction in which the vowel letter is "hidden" as in *couldn't*).
- How to recognize syllables composed of common **prefixes**, **suffixes**, and root words.
- How to divide the word into word parts, read each part, and combine the parts to read the word.
- How to be flexible when a word has a part or parts that are phonetically irregular (also called **irregular words**).

Although there are other reasons that students may be taught the "correct" way to divide words into syllables as they are in the dictionary, it is not necessary that students know the rules for dictionary syllabication in order to read multisyllable words. What is essential is that when students see a long word they do not know, they quickly look for word parts they recognize, pronounce "chunks" of the word separately, and then put these chunks together to pronounce the entire word. Finding the vowels in the word can help students "chunk" the word into pronounceable parts.

SYLLABLE TYPES

One way to help students recognize pronounceable word parts is to teach them the basic types of syllables that occur often in words and how these syllables are usually pronounced. Six syllable types are taught in several word recognition programs:

- Closed syllables (*pic-nic*; *ab-sent*).
- Open syllables (*ve-to*; *a*-pron).
- Silent *e* syllables (de-*bate*; *base*-ball).
- Vowel team syllables (re-*frain*; car-*toon*).
- Vowel-*r* syllables (en-*ter*; *or*-phan).
- Consonant-*le* syllables (bot-*tle*; bea-*gle*).
- Other (syllables that do not fit these patterns) (gar-*bage*; fur-*ni-ture*).

As you can see from examining this list, the first five syllable types have patterns that are common in short single-syllable words. In describing these patterns, we will use *C* to stand for *consonant* and *V* to stand for *vowel*.

Closed syllables are made up of the patterns VC (*at*, *in*), CVC (*dig*, *mat*), CCVC (plot, slug), CVCC (*nest*, *mint*), and other **consonant blend** patterns such as CCVCC (*clamp*). The vowel sound in a closed syllable may be spelled with the letter *y* as in *gym*. Closed syllables can also be spelled using **consonant digraphs**,

as in *chin*, *math*, and *shop*. In each of these words, the vowel makes its short sound. Students can be taught to look for closed syllable patterns and that the vowels in these syllables will usually be short. One way to help students remember that these are closed syllables is to show them that these syllables end with a consonant, so that the vowel is "closed off" from the rest of the word.

Open syllables are made up of a single vowel (*a*), the CV pattern (*no*, *hi*), or a consonant blend or digraph followed by a vowel (*pre-*, *she*). The vowel sound in an open syllable may be spelled with the letter *y* as in *la-dy or fly*. The vowel in an open syllable is usually pronounced with its long sound. Students can be taught to look for open syllable patterns and that the vowels in these syllables will usually be long. One way to help students remember that these are open syllables is to show them that these syllables end with a vowel, so that the vowel is "open" to the rest of the word.

Silent *e* syllables have the VCe pattern found in *ate*, *pine*, and *rope*. A silent *e* syllable may begin with a vowel or a consonant, and consonants in the pattern may include consonant blends (*smile*) or consonant digraphs (*shake*).

In a vowel team syllable, the vowel sound is spelled with a letter combination, as in the words *rain*, *boat*, *snow*, *boot*, and *play*. Usually, the consonants before and after the vowel team form a chunk to help read the entire word.

Vowel-*r* syllables are syllables in which a vowel letter is followed by the letter *r*. These are sometimes referred to as "*r*-controlled vowels" because the pronunciation of the vowel is changed when it follows the letter *r*. In vowel-*r* words or syllables, the vowel and the *r* that follows it make only one sound. You cannot hear the sound of the vowel separately from the sound of the *r*. Examples of vowel-*r* words are *park*, *herd*, *sir*, *for*, and *fur*.

Consonant-*le* syllables are found in words that end in a consonant followed by the letters *le* (*bot-tle, ca-ble, ma-ple; pud-dle*).

Syllables that do not conform to one of these patterns would be included in the "other" category. For example, the first syllable (*a*) in the word *apart* would be identified by students as an open syllable and pronounced as a long *a*. Since this syllable is not stressed (accented), it is pronounced with a **schwa** sound resembling a short *u*.

A STRATEGY FOR READING MULTISYLLABLE WORDS

As we have described in other sections of this book, a strategy is a multistep plan of action that is implemented to solve a problem or overcome a difficulty. Students who have problems reading multi-syllable words benefit from learning and applying a consistent strategy for reading these words. Multi-syllable word reading strategies found in different reading programs may vary somewhat, but a basic strategy that many students can learn and apply successfully is described below. This strategy was adapted from one developed by Archer, Gleason, & Vachon (2005a).

1. **Find the vowels.** Quickly scan the word and locate the vowels. Since each syllable will have one vowel sound, the vowels are the key to locating the syllables in unknown words.
2. **Look for word parts you know.** Students should be able to recognize common prefixes and suffixes quickly. Identifying these common word parts, as well as syllable patterns, can make it possible to read unknown multisyllable words quickly and efficiently.

3. **Read each word part.** Remember that each word part will contain one vowel sound.
4. **Read the parts quickly.** Put the parts together to read the word.
5. **Make it sound like a real word**. "Flex" the word as needed so that it sounds like a real word. Often, multisyllable words do not "follow the rules." For example, vowels in unaccented syllables often make the schwa sound, resembling a short *u* or *i*. Once students put the parts of a multisyllable word together, they may need to "play with" the vowel sounds until the word sounds correct. This step is difficult, if not impossible, if the word is not in the student's spoken vocabulary, but instruction in multisyllable word recognition can help extend this vocabulary.

In order to apply this strategy, students must be able to:

- Identify vowel letters.
- Recognize common prefixes and suffixes.
- Say the sounds of vowel letters, vowel teams, and *r*-controlled vowels.
- Apply the silent *e* rule in silent *e* syllables.
- Flex a word by changing the vowel sounds until they arrive at a recognizable word.

It is important to teach these key preskills while teaching the strategy. Provide daily instruction and review in the sounds of vowels and vowel combinations and in quickly recognizing common prefixes and suffixes. Instruction in the meaning of these word parts can help extend students' vocabularies.

PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING WORD RECOGNITION INSTRUCTION

Teaching Syllable Types and the Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy

Middle school students who have difficulty reading multisyllable words benefit from direct, explicit teaching of the syllable types and the multisyllable word reading strategy described above. As described in Chapter 4: Components of Effective Instruction, this includes:

- Setting a purpose for the activity.
- Clearly teaching concepts (such as the syllable types) and modeling skills (such as identifying different syllable types in words or using the word reading strategy).
- Providing guided practice with immediate feedback.
- Providing independent practice with close monitoring.
- Teaching students how to generalize what they have learned so that they can apply skills in many different contexts.

Sample word recognition lessons are provided to illustrate this process.

Syllable Types

Students should be taught to recognize and pronounce each syllable type. Introduce the syllable types one at a time and provide practice on newly taught syllable types combined with previously learned syllable types. It is very important to review the sounds of the vowels in each syllable type. Vowel sounds are often confusing to struggling readers. For example, when introducing closed syllables, review the sounds of the short vowels (*a* as in *bat*, *e* as in *egg*, etc.) and when introducing vowel-*r* syllables, review the sounds of the *r*-controlled vowels (*ar* as in *car*, *er* as in *her*, *ir* as in *fir*, *or* as in *for*, and *ur* as in *fur*.) Special time will need to be taken to review the many vowel combinations found in vowel team syllables (such as *ai* in *rain*, *oi* in *oil*, and *ay* in *play*).

A possible sequence for teaching syllable types is:

1. Introduce closed syllables. Review short vowel sounds. Practice reading closed syllables. Practice reading words made up of only closed syllables.
2. Introduce open syllables. Review long vowel sounds. Practice reading open syllables. Practice reading open syllables mixed in with closed syllables. Practice reading words made up of open syllables and closed syllables.
3. Introduce silent *e* syllables. Practice reading silent *e* syllables. Practice reading silent *e* syllables mixed in with open and closed syllables. Practice reading words made up of open syllables, closed syllables, and silent *e* syllables.
4. Continue this pattern of practicing the new syllable type, practicing it mixed in with previously learned syllable types, and practicing reading words with all the syllable types learned so far.

Teachers of older struggling readers have found that they can teach and review very basic word reading skills such as reading CVC patterns (found in simple words such as *log*, *tip*, and *mat*) by having students practice reading CVC syllables. In this way, older struggling readers can review the basics of reading without reading "first-grade words". Rather than practicing reading *rat* or *mop*, students practice words like *pic-nic*, *cus-pid*, and *pump-kin*.

Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy

As described above, students must be taught basic preskills in order to be able to apply the multisyllable word reading strategy; however, it is not necessary that students master all of these preskills before they begin to apply the strategy to read words. Students can learn to apply the strategy as they are learning and reviewing the preskills.

Just as in any strategy instruction, the multisyllable word reading strategy should be clearly modeled for students, and students must have many opportunities for practicing each part of the strategy. It may be helpful to teach one or two components of the strategy at a time. For example, one lesson may focus on finding and circling vowels in words, while in other lessons students learn to recognize and circle common prefixes. Lists of common prefixes, suffixes, and root words are included in the Appendix. Another lesson or group of lessons will focus on teaching students to flex words until they sound correct. Just as the introduction and practice opportunities for the syllable types are cumulative, lessons on the components of the word reading strategy build on each other.

A sample sequence for teaching the multisyllable word reading strategy is:

1. Set a purpose for learning the strategy. Model the entire strategy on several words while "thinking aloud" to demonstrate thought processes that are involved in applying the strategy.

2. Teach students that words are made up of pronounceable parts called syllables and that each syllable contains one vowel sound. Teach students to identify vowels in words. Have students practice circling vowel letters and vowel combinations in words.

3. Teach students that they will be able to read multisyllable words more quickly if they can recognize word parts and patterns within the words. Have students practice finding and underlining common prefixes, suffixes, inflectional endings (such as *-ing* or *-ed*), along with any syllable types they have learned so far.

4. Model quickly locating the vowels and recognizable word parts in two-syllable words, reading the words in "chunks," and then reading the chunks quickly to say the whole word. Have students practice in pairs. Start with two-syllable words that do not require "flexing" (words in which the vowels make their expected sounds) and then progress to three-syllable words.

5. Teach students that sometimes they have to flex, or "play with," the vowel sounds in a word until it sounds like a real word. Model this with a word like *chil-dren*. First read the word with the short vowel sounds that would be expected in closed syllables, pronouncing the *e* as in *den*. Then flex the word and pronounce the *e* with a schwa sound (similar to a short *u*), producing the word as it is normally said. Have students practice flexing syllables in words.

6. Model and provide practice in the entire multisyllable word reading strategy.

Note that this sequence should not be introduced too quickly. Be sure that students have had many opportunities to practice each step before introducing the next step. Monitor the students closely during practice and model again if necessary.

The following sections include sample word recognition lessons designed to teach students to recognize and read common syllable types and to use the consistent strategy to read multisyllable words.

SELECTING AN EFFECTIVE WORD RECOGNITION PROGRAM

Most students who have serious difficulties with word recognition, particularly those who need intensive intervention—those with instructional reading levels below grade 3—will benefit from a more systematic approach to word reading instruction than the one described above. Systematic instruction is based on a carefully designed scope and sequence, in which less difficult skills are introduced before more difficult skills and many opportunities for practice are integrated into the lesson design. This level of systematic instruction is best provided by implementing a high-quality reading intervention program, usually consisting of published materials. This section will provide guidelines for selecting such a program for middle school students.

The following guidelines are based on characteristics of instruction that are found in many studies of effective intervention for struggling readers. Figure 101 is designed to be used as groups of educators evaluate reading intervention programs.

Figure 101. Guidelines for Reviewing a Reading Program.

Introduction

This document was developed to assist the Curriculum and Instruction Team at the Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR) as they review reading programs for grades 4–12 to determine alignment with current reading research.

Process of Using Guidelines

When reviewing a reading program thoroughly, it is not sufficient to examine only a sample of lessons. In order to determine whether a program is aligned with current reading research, it is essential to review all the teacher and student materials. This document was developed to help navigate a reviewer through the lengthy but important process of reviewing a reading program. It was designed to be utilized in conjunction with the resources listed below. When using this document, place a check mark in either the yes or no column after each question. If the answer is not clear or not evident, write “not evident” in the comments column and leave the yes/no columns blank. It is very important to use the comments column to detail specific examples, note questions, etc. When a question is marked “no” or “not evident,” it is a concern that the program may not be aligned with current reading research. That is, if a reading program is aligned with current reading research, then “yes” will be marked on all of the questions with evidence to support this assertion written in the comments column.

Note that this document includes the sequence of instruction from 4th through 12th grade.

(figure continued on the next page)

It is expected that a comprehensive reading program will incorporate the five components of reading identified by the National Reading Panel (phonological/phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension) and reflect the elements of instructional design.

The following resources on the FCRR Web site (http://www.fcrr.org) will assist educators who use this tool to guide their review of a reading program:

- Glossary of Reading Terms (boldface words in the Guidelines are found in the Glossary).
- Continuum of Phonological Awareness Skills.
- Continuum of Word Types.
- FCRR Reports (reviews of reading programs already posted).
- References and Resources for Review of Reading Programs.

Overall Instructional Design and Pedagogy of the Reading Program			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there a clear "road map" or "blueprint" for teachers to get an overall picture of the program (e.g., scope and sequence)?			
Are goals and objectives clearly stated?			
Are there resources available to help the teacher understand the rationale for the instructional approach and strategies utilized in the program (e.g., articles, references, and reliable Web sites)?			
Is instruction consistently explicit?			
Is instruction consistently systematic?			
Is there a coherent instructional design (e.g., are the components of reading clearly linked within as well as across each component)?			
Are there consistent, "teacher-friendly" instructional routines that include direct instruction, modeling, guided practice, student practice and application with feedback, and generalization?			
Are there aligned student materials?			
Does the level of difficulty of the text increase as students' skills are strengthened?			
Are there ample guided student practice opportunities, including multiple opportunities for explicit teaching and teacher directed feedback, (15 or more) needed for struggling readers?			
Are all of the activities (e.g., centers) reading related (i.e., word building, fluency practice)?			
Are teachers encouraged to give immediate corrective feedback?			

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Overall Instructional Design and Pedagogy of the Reading Program			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is scaffolding a prominent part of the lessons?			
Are there specific instructions for scaffolding?			
Is differentiated instruction prominent?			
Is instruction individualized based on assessment?			
Are there guidelines and materials for flexible grouping?			
Is small-group instruction with (small teacher-pupil ratio) part of daily instruction?			
Is movement from group to group based on student progress?			
Are enrichment activities included for advancing/proceeding students?			
In addition to the components of reading, are the dimensions of spelling, writing, oral language, motivation/engagement and listening comprehension addressed?			

Word Analysis (WA) Instruction/Word Study Phonological analysis, decoding, structural analysis, syllabication, context clues, spelling, & dictionary skills			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Overall, does instruction progress from easier word analysis activities to more difficult?			
Is word analysis only a small portion of each lesson (10 to 20 minutes)?			
Does the program emphasize the use of grade-appropriate dictionaries and student-friendly explanations?			
Is there explicit instruction in the use and weaknesses of context clues to determine word meaning?			
Is explicit instruction in the meaning of roots and affixes provided and are there activities for students to manipulate common roots and affixes to analyze the relationship of spelling to meaning of complex words?			
Are word parts that occur with high frequency (such as *un*, *re*, and *in*) introduced over those that occur in only a few words?			

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Word Analysis (WA) Instruction/Word Study Phonological analysis, decoding, structural analysis, syllabication, context clues, spelling, & dictionary skills			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Are the limitations of structural analysis made clear?			
Are there activities for distinguishing and interpreting words with multiple meanings?			
Does the program include word origins, derivations, synonyms, antonyms, and idioms to determine the meaning of words and phrases?			
Are words used in word analysis activities also found in the student text?			
Once word analysis strategies have been mastered, are these strategies immediately applied to reading and interpreting familiar decodable connected text?			
Is there ample unfamiliar decodable text to provide practice with word analysis strategies?			
Are there ample opportunities to read multisyllabic words daily?			
Is there a section of the program devoted to word study?			
Does the program include spelling strategies (e.g., word sorts, categorization activities, word-building activities, analogical reasoning activities)?			

Fluency Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is fluency building a part of each day's lesson?			
Does fluency-based instruction focus on developing accuracy, rate, and prosody?			
Do fluency-building routines include goal setting to measure and increase word-level fluency instruction and practice, reading accuracy and passage reading rate, teacher or peer feedback, and timed readings?			
Is fluency assessed regularly?			

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Fluency Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there a fluency goal for each set of grade levels (e.g., 4-5 [113-127 wpm], 6-8 [140-142 wpm]) included? (Based on Hasbrouck and Tindal's end-of-the-year oral reading fluency scores at the 40th percentile.)			
Are ample practice materials and opportunities at appropriate reading levels (independent and/or instructional) provided?			
Are there opportunities to read narrative and expository text aloud?			
Are research-based fluency strategies included (e.g., repeated reading, peer reading, tape-assisted reading, choral reading, student-adult reading)?			

Vocabulary Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there a component that incorporates reading and writing vocabulary?			
Is systematic and explicit instruction in morphemic analysis provided to support building word meaning through knowledge of root words, prefixes, and suffixes?			
Is high-level terminology used to bring richness of language to the classroom?			
Are there ample activities provided to practice writing vocabulary in context?			
Are there opportunities for wide, independent reading?			
Is there repeated exposure to vocabulary in many contexts?			
Is there frequent use of teacher read-alouds using engaging books with embedded explanation and instruction?			
Is diverse vocabulary through listening and reading stories and informational text provided?			
Are a limited number of words selected for robust, explicit vocabulary instruction?			

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Vocabulary Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Do sources of vocabulary instruction include words from read-aloud stories, words from core reading programs, words from reading intervention programs, and words from content area instruction?			
Are only important (words students must know to understand a concept or text), useful (words that may be encountered many times), and difficult (multiple meanings, idioms) words taught?			
Are vocabulary words reviewed cumulatively? For example, are words selected for instruction that are unknown, critical to passage understanding, and likely to be encountered in the future?			
Are ample opportunities to engage in oral vocabulary activities provided?			
Are student-friendly explanations and dictionary definitions used?			
Are word-learning strategies taught?			
Does the instructional routine for vocabulary include: introducing the word, presenting a student-friendly explanation, illustrating the word with examples, and checking the students' understanding?			
Are ample opportunities to use word-learning strategies provided?			
Is word awareness introduced through the use of word walls; vocabulary logs; and practice activities that are engaging, provide multiple exposures, encourage deep processing, and connect word meaning to prior knowledge?			
Is vocabulary taught both directly and indirectly?			
Are rich contexts for vocabulary learning provided?			
Are repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items prevalent?			
Are vocabulary tasks restructured when necessary?			
Is computer technology used to help teach vocabulary?			

Comprehension Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is comprehension monitoring taught?			
Is the use of multiple strategies prevalent?			

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Comprehension Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Are cooperative learning groups part of instruction?			
Are frequent opportunities to answer and generate questions provided?			
Are graphic and semantic organizers, including story maps, used?			
Are there ample opportunities to engage in discussions relating to the meaning of text?			
Are there ample opportunities to read narrative and expository text on independent and instructional levels?			
Is explicit instruction in different text structures included?			
Are before-, during- and after-reading comprehension strategies emphasized?			
Is prior knowledge activated before reading?			
Are ample opportunities provided to generate questions during reading to improve engagement with and processing of text?			
Are there ample opportunities to employ a conceptual understanding of beginning, middle, and end in narrative text?			
Is learning to determine which strategy to use and why (metacognition) part of instruction?			
Are there connections made between previously learned strategies and new text?			
Are strategies applied for authentic purposes using appropriate text?			
Is there an emphasis on creating independent strategic learners?			
Is strategy instruction cumulative over the course of the year?			
Are there frequent opportunities to discuss story elements and compare stories?			
Are elements of story grammar (setting, characters, important events, etc.) used for retelling a story?			
Are summarization strategies taught?			
Are opportunities provided to interpret information from charts, graphs, tables, and diagrams and connect it to text?			
Does text contain familiar concepts and vocabulary?			
Are main idea strategies previously taught (e.g., using pictures, then individual sentence, then paragraphs, etc.)?			
Are ample opportunities to employ main idea strategies using more complex texts, where the main idea is not explicit, provided?			

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Listening Comprehension			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there an element of the program that requires students to follow specific oral directions in order to perform or complete written activities?			
Are ample opportunities to utilize listening comprehension strategies provided?			
Are there ample opportunities to listen to a variety of text structures?			
Are there ample opportunities to use reflective (describing feelings/emotions that accompany what is said instead of information given) and responsive (e.g., repeating, paraphrasing, summarizing, questioning for elaboration and/or clarification) listening skills to make connections and build on ideas of the author?			

Motivation and Engagement			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there a component of the program that fosters intrinsic motivation in students (e.g., student selection of books, various genres of book titles, multicultural/international book titles)?			
Are there clear content goals for supporting intrinsic reading motivation?			
Is there a component of the program that fosters extrinsic motivation in students (e.g., external recognition, rewards, or incentives)?			
Are there ample opportunities for students to engage in group activities (social motivation)?			
Are there personal learning goals provided for reading tasks?			
Are students given immediate feedback on reading progress?			

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Assessment			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is rigorous assessment included in the program?			
Is formative evaluation included?			
Are the assessment instruments reliable and valid?			
Do the assessments measure progress in word analysis, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension?			
Do the assessments identify students who are at risk or already experiencing difficultly learning to read?			
Does assessment aid teachers in making individualized instruction decisions?			
Does the program provide teacher guidance in response to assessment results?			

Professional Development for the Reading Program			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there adequate time offered for teachers to learn new concepts and practice what they have learned (before implementation)?			
Is there a plan for coaches, mentors, peers, or outside experts to provide feedback to teachers and follow up assistance as they put new concepts into practice?			
Are teachers taught how to administer and interpret assessments that accompany the program?			
Is PD for the program customized to meet the varying needs of the participants (e.g., first-year teachers, coaches, principals)?			
Does the PD provide support (e.g., principal checklists, follow-up in class modeling, a video/CD for teachers to view modeled lessons, printed teaching charts, graphs, transparencies) to facilitate application of content?			

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STUDENTS WHO DO NOT RESPOND ADEQUATELY TO INTERVENTION

Some middle school students with severe reading difficulties and disabilities do not make adequate progress in word recognition, even when they are provided with small-group intervention using research-validated, high-quality programs. These students probably need the kind of long-term, highly intensive intervention that can best be provided in special education. Students who are provided with quality small-group intervention in general education, but who do not make adequate progress after one or two semesters, may need to be referred for evaluation for a learning disability. Students with severe reading disabilities who are already served in special education must be provided with regular, highly intensive interventions (very small groups for extended periods of time) delivered by well-qualified teachers using programs that have evidence of effectiveness with students with severe and persistent reading difficulties. Some of these students may need different kinds of intervention approaches than have been described in this manual.

CONCLUSION

Comprehension problems often result from difficulties in quickly and accurately reading words. Students who cannot accurately read the words on the page often have problems with higher-level skills requiring inference and interpretation of text.

Some middle school struggling readers benefit from instruction in word identification. Students who can read simple words quickly and accurately but are inaccurate readers of multisyllable words may need instruction in recognizing common syllable patterns as well as common prefixes and suffixes, along with a strategy for reading multisyllable words. Students with more serious word reading problems may need a highly systematic and explicit intervention program. Decisions about the need for word identification instruction should be based on diagnostic assessments and continuous progress monitoring (see Chapter 2: Selecting and Administering Assessments).

Struggling readers at the secondary level do not have the luxury of time to experiment with reading programs or instructional approaches that do not have solid evidence of effectiveness from high-quality research. Unfortunately, there has not been a large amount of scientific research conducted to establish the effectiveness of specific published intervention programs for struggling readers at the middle school level. If this kind of evidence is not available, it is necessary to evaluate the components of programs to find out whether they have characteristics that have been identified as essential for the progress of middle school students with severe reading problems.

Finally, it must be remembered that some students have severe and persistent reading disabilities, including dyslexia, that make it difficult for them to progress in intervention programs that are successful for most students. These students require long-term intervention of high intensity, similar to what is normally provided within special education or dyslexia programs.

WORD RECOGNITION **SAMPLE LESSON**

The Silent *e* Syllable Type

OBJECTIVE

Students will recognize and read the silent *e* syllable type and compare silent *e* words to words with previously taught syllable types. Students will sort words into groups, categorizing the words as examples of closed, open, or silent *e* syllable types.

MATERIALS

- Syllable Types chart (See Appendix).
- Textbook chapter.
- Chalkboard or dry-erase board.
- Overhead transparency.
- Pocket chart.
- Index cards.

PREPARATION

Choose a passage from your text and select at least 10 examples of words that contain silent *e* syllables, beginning with one-syllable words. Write each word on an index card. The examples used in this sample lesson are taken from an excerpt from *The Joy Luck Club* by Amy Tan.

DAILY REVIEW

Use the Syllable Types chart to quickly review the two types of syllables you have already taught: closed and open syllables. (See Figure 102 and Appendix.)

> **Teacher:**
> We have been learning about different syllable types so that we can quickly recognize and pronounce the parts of a word. Raise your hand if you can tell me what a syllable is. Devon? Yes, a syllable is a word part containing one vowel sound. When you are reading and you

come to a word that you don't know, you can look for syllable patterns to help you.

Write the words "closed" and "open" on index cards and place them in the top row of the pocket chart to create column headings.

We have learned about closed and open syllables. A closed syllable ends in at least one consonant and the vowel is short. Remember that the vowel is "closed off" by the consonant at the end of the word. Let's think of some examples of words that contain a closed syllable.

Record student responses on index cards and place the cards in the "closed" syllable column. Sort the words into groups by the number of syllables.

Good work. These words belong in the "closed syllable" column: *such, fresh,* and *with*. You also thought of some words that have more than one syllable and that contain closed syllables: *picnic, absent*, and *rabbit.*

Now let's review open syllables. An open syllable ends in one vowel, and the vowel is usually long. Remember that the vowel is at the end of the syllable so the vowel is "open" to the rest of the word. What is an example of a word that contains an open syllable?

Record student responses on index cards and place the cards in the "open syllable" column of the pocket chart. Sort the words into groups by the number of syllables.

Good work again. I'll place these examples in the "open syllable" column: *we, she, so, see,* and *go.* These are all one-syllable words.

Now I'll read the words that have more than one syllable and that also contain an open syllable. The word *paper* has an open syllable at the beginning of the word: *pa-*. The word *tomato* has three open syllables, although we usually pronounce the first syllable with a "lazy" schwa sound, /u/ (short *u* sound). (Illustrate the difference between pronouncing the first syllable in *tomato* with a long *o* sound and with a schwa, or short *u*, sound.)

Continue to add student responses to the "open syllable" column and underline the open syllable. Prompt them or provide examples if they have problems generating the words on their own.

I'll write these examples in the "open syllable" column and underline the open syllable: *<u>ba</u>by*, *<u>se</u>quel*, *<u>i</u>tem*, *<u>pro</u>tect*, *<u>ba</u>con*, *<u>hu</u>man*, and *<u>tro</u>phy*.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today we are going to learn a new syllable type to help us quickly recognize and pronounce the parts of a word; we will learn the silent *e* pattern. Silent *e* syllables normally end in one vowel, one consonant, and a final *e*. The finale *e* is silent and the vowel is long.

Silent *e* syllables follow the same pattern as one-syllable silent *e* words like *cake* and *like*. The *e* at the end tells us that the vowel in the word will be long.

Sometimes silent *e* syllables or words may have a special ending like *-s* or *-d* that follows the final *e*. These are still silent *e* syllables. Examples are the words *likes*, *liked*, and *bikes*.

Silent *e* syllables may begin with a vowel, as in the word *ape*, or a consonant, as in the word *tape*. Let's review the long sounds that vowels make.

Review long vowel sounds.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Expository or narrative
Grouping: Whole class or small group

Create a new column in the pocket chart labeled "Silent e."

Teacher:
Let's begin by reading a set of one-syllable words that contain the silent *e* syllable pattern. I'll read the word first and then you repeat it. Listen for the long vowel sounds in each word.

Display the index cards one at a time, reading the word aloud and having students repeat it after you. After reading the word, place it in the pocket chart.

Examples: home, owe, nine, hopes, scale, blame, crazed, poke, quote, whine, use.

Now let's take a closer look at the silent *e* pattern.

Use the overhead projector to provide explicit instruction. Write the first word from the list on the transparency.

Find the first vowel. It is always followed by a consonant and then an *e*. The first vowel is long, and the *e* is silent. I will circle the first vowel and draw a line through the silent *e*.

Remember: Silent *e* syllables may begin with a vowel or a consonant. Which words on our list begin with a vowel?

Solicit student input.

That's right; *owe* and *use* begin with vowels.

Write the examples on the overhead.

I will circle the first vowel in each of these words and draw a line through the silent *e* at the end. That reminds me that the first vowel is long and the silent *e* doesn't have a sound.

Which words on our list begin with a consonant?

Solicit student input.

That's right, *home*, *nine*, *hopes*, *scale*, *blame*, *crazed*, *poke*, *quote*, and *whine* begin with consonants or consonant blends.

Write the examples on the overhead, thinking aloud and soliciting student input.

Again, I will circle the first vowel in each of these words and draw a line through the silent *e* at the end. What sound does the first vowel make? That's right, the first vowel is long. Why did I draw a line through the *e*? You're right again, because it doesn't have a sound. I notice that the word *crazed* ends with the letter *d* because it is in the past tense. This is still a silent *e*

word because it is made from the word *craze* with an ending added to it.

Introduce two-syllable words that contain syllables that follow the silent "e" pattern.

All the examples on our list are one-syllable words, but the silent *e* pattern also occurs in words with two or more syllables. Let's look at an example of a two-syllable word that contains the silent *e* pattern.

Write the word "cupcake" on the transparency.

There are two syllables in the word *cupcake*. The first syllable is *cup*. I know that *cup* follows the closed syllable pattern because the vowel is closed in by the consonant, so the vowel is short.

The second syllable is *cake*. *Cake* follows the silent *e* syllable pattern, so the first vowel is long and the *e* is silent. I'll circle the first vowel in *cake* and draw a line through the silent *e*. Read it with me: *cake*. Now read the whole word: *cupcake*. Remember, in words that contain more than one syllable, like *cupcake*, the syllables may follow different syllable patterns.

Now let's read some two-syllable words from the selection you will read in our textbook that contain syllables that follow the silent *e* pattern. I'll ask a student to find the silent *e* syllable in each word. Then I'll ask you to read each syllable in the word. Finally, you will put the syllables together and read the whole word.

One at a time, show students the note cards containing two-syllable words taken from the text selection. Call on a student to identify and read the silent "e" syllable in each word. Underline the silent "e" syllable on the index card. If the student has difficulty, read the silent "e" syllable for the class and have the whole group read it after you. Then point to each syllable in the word and ask the class to read it. Finally, have the students read the entire word. If the word is likely to be unfamiliar to the student, provide a brief definition of the word and/or an example.

Examples: nick<u>name</u>, cas<u>cade</u>, em<u>braced</u>, un<u>grate</u>ful.

Teacher:
Jonathan, read the silent *e* syllable in the first word. Yes, the silent *e* syllable is *name*.

Point to the silent "e" syllable.

Everyone, read the silent *e* syllable. Now read the first syllable. Read the whole word. Yes, *nickname*. A nickname is a special name we use for our close friends or members of our families. Sometimes it is a shorter way of saying the person's real name. My sister's name is Katherine, but we call her Kate. Kate is her nickname.

Repeat with the other words. If students have problems with the word "embraced," point out that the silent "e" syllable has a special ending to show that the action happened in the past.

Have the students practice reading all of the silent "e" words on the index cards without you. Include both the one-syllable and two-syllable words on the list. Point to each word, skipping randomly from word to word, and have students read them chorally, answering together as you point to the word. Listen carefully to their responses. If any students misread a word, stop right away and read the word to the students, then have them repeat it with you, and finally have them read it as a group without you. If there are many errors, you can either a) slow down a little to give students more "think time," b) point to the silent "e" syllable first and have students read that one and then read the whole word, or c) reteach how to recognize and read open, closed and/or silent "e" syllables.

After students have practiced reading the words on the cards as a group, call on each student to read one or two words, skipping randomly between the words and including both one-syllable and two-syllable words. If students

make errors, model how to read the word, have the group read it together, and then have the individual student read the word again. Then ask the student who made the error to read a different word alone.

Teacher:
Jessica, read this word.

The word on the index card is "cascade," but Jessica says "casted".

The silent *e* syllable in this word is *cade*, and the word is *cascade*. Everyone, read the silent *e* syllable. Yes, *cascade*. Now read the whole word. Jessica, read the silent *e* syllable. Now read the whole word. Yes, *cascade*. Jessica, now read the silent *e* syllable in this word.

Point to "grate" in "ungrateful". If Jessica struggles, ask her to provide the sound of the long "a" in the syllable and then read the syllable.

Yes, the silent *e* syllable is *grate*. Now, Jessica, read the first syllable. Read the next syllable. Read the last syllable. Read the whole word. Yes, the word is *ungrateful*. Everyone, read the word.

Refer to the list of words in the pocket chart.

Now we have learned three syllable patterns, closed, open, and silent *e*. Remember, when you are reading and you come to a word that you don't know, you can look for syllable patterns in the word to help you read it.

We can sort words by their syllable patterns to review what we have learned.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Preparation: Prepare additional index cards with words that follow the closed, open, or silent *e* pattern to provide practice with new words.

Grouping: Whole group or small group

Remove all the index cards from the pocket chart. Model the sorting procedure.

Teacher:
I will read the first three words and sort them according to syllable types. If the word contains more than one syllable, the syllable to sort by is underlined. After I finish, you will have a turn to sort words on your own. Many of these words are from the selection in our textbook that we began reading this week, *The Joy Luck Club*, by Amy Tan.

Show students the first word. Begin with a silent "e" word, such as "fame".

I know that this is a silent *e* word because the first vowel is followed by a consonant and an *e*. The word is *fame*. It goes in the "Silent *e*" column of our pocket chart.

Place the index card in the correct column. Continue modeling how to sort words, choosing one example of a closed syllable and one example of an open syllable. Think aloud about the syllable pattern as you place the word in the correct column of the pocket chart.

The next word is *tests*. The first vowel in *tests* is *e*. It is a closed syllable because the vowel is closed by the consonants that follow.

The next word is *piano*. Remember that if the word has more than one syllable, I have underlined the syllable I want you to sort by. The first vowel in the syllable that is underlined is *o*. It is open because it is not followed by a consonant.

Provide opportunities for student practice. Distribute the remaining word cards and call on students one at a time to sort the words into groups using the pocket chart categories. Require students to explain their thinking and justify their choices. Provide corrective feedback as needed.

Janelle, your word is *nickname*. It has two syllables, and the second syllable is underlined. What spelling pattern does *name* follow?

Student:
It is a silent *e* word because the first vowel, *a*, is followed by a consonant and then an *e* comes at the end.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

1. Provide partners with a set of word cards to sort into open, closed, and silent *e* syllable patterns. Select words from your textbook so that students will encounter the words again in their reading.
2. Tell students that they are going to practice sorting words by syllable patterns to practice what they have learned. Give each student a handout like the one in Figure 102 with the sorting categories at the top and enough rows for students to sort at least 30 words into groups. Include the list of the word-sort words at the bottom of the handout.
3. Students work in partner groups to sort their set of word cards onto the sorting sheet.
4. When they have finished the word sort, they can write the words on their own copies of the sorting sheet, using the list at the bottom of the page.

Figure 102. Sample Guide for Word Sort by Syllable Type.

Closed Syllable	Open Syllable	Silent *e* Syllable

Word List: home, ice, owe, we, nine, hopes, genius, scale, ape, cascade, blame, silent, spoke, crazed, use, poke, quote, fiasco, shape, whine, cute ungrateful, theme, embraced, five, nickname, she, so, see, Lindo, take, Chinese, piano, trophy

Activity based on Bear, D., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S. R., & Johnston, F. (2003). Words their way: Word sorts for syllables and affixes spellers. *Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson. Vocabulary selected from Tan, J. (1989).* The joy luck club. *New York: Putnam.*

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
Raise your hand if you can tell me how you might use this to help you outside of this class.

Student:
Whenever we're reading and we don't know a word, we can look for the syllable types that we know to help us read it.

Teacher:
Yes. When you are reading in your science class today, I want you to remember to try looking for open, closed, and silent *e* syllables in difficult words. I'm going to give each of you an index card to use as a bookmark when you are reading in science. If you come to difficult words, make a quick note of some of the words on this bookmark and bring it back to our class tomorrow. We'll look at the words and see whether we can look for syllable patterns we know to help us read the words.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check students' work on their copies of the sorting sheet. Provide opportunities for students to partner-read (see Chapter 8: Fluency) selected passages that contain multiple examples of words that follow the three syllable patterns that have been introduced. Have partners remind each other to use the strategy of looking for syllable types to help them read unfamiliar words. Monitor their reading closely and provide feedback.

PERIODIC/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Share this strategy of looking for syllable patterns with your students' content area teachers so that students can follow the same procedure in other classes and generalize the strategy. Tell the content area teachers about the index cards that students will use as bookmarks and on which students will record challenging words as they read content area text.

WORD RECOGNITION **SAMPLE LESSON**

The Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005a). *REWARDS: Multisyllabic word reading strategies.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

TERMS TO KNOW

Nonsense word (or Pseudoword)	A word that is not a real word in English but follows the syllable patterns in real words. For example, the word *tig* is not a real word, but it follows the consonant-vowel-consonant pattern as in *log*.
Prefix	A morpheme that comes before a root or base word and modifies its meaning
Schwa	An indistinct vowel sound in unstressed syllables (usually sounds like short *u* or short *i*)
Suffix	A morpheme that follows a root or base word and modifies its meaning
Syllable	A minimal unit of speech organized around a vowel sound

(Harris & Hodges, 1995; Moats, 2000)

OBJECTIVE

Students will learn and apply the Multisyllable Word Strategy to read unfamiliar multisyllable words.

PREREQUISITE SKILLS

Before this lesson, the students should have already learned to identify and pronounce open and closed **syllables**. They should have also learned the **prefixes** *un-* and *in-*, the **suffix** *-ly*, and the ending *-ed*, meaning past tense.

MATERIALS

- Multisyllable word list strategy (see Appendix).
- Chalkboard or dry-erase board.
- Overhead transparency.
- Pocket chart.
- Index cards.
- Prepared word list.

PREPARATION

Prepare a list of 6–8 multisyllable words that contain only closed and open syllables and prefixes, suffixes, and endings that students have learned. These words should be made up of only closed syllables in which the vowels are pronounced with their short sounds and open syllables in which the vowels are pronounced with their long sounds. Do not include words that have syllables in which vowels make the **schwa** sound (like the *a* in *ago*) or other vowel sounds (like the *i* in *piano*). Sample words with open and closed syllables and common affixes include *depended*, *accepting, unspoken, elastic, unintended, instrument, dampest, dismissed.*

DAILY REVIEW

> **Teacher:**
> You have been learning different syllable patterns so that we can quickly recognize and pronounce the parts of words we don't recognize. You have also learned about word parts such as prefixes and suffixes, to help us understand the word meanings. When you are reading on your own and you come to a long word with multiple syllables, you can look for syllable patterns that you know and word parts that you recognize to help you read the word.

Using the overhead transparency, chalkboard, or pocket chart with index cards, quickly review the types of syllables and a few prefixes and suffixes you have already taught. Write examples of words containing these syllable types and familiar word parts, and have students read the words together as a group. If students make errors on a word, point out the syllable types or familiar word parts and read the word to them. Then have the students read the word after you. Continue with the other words, but be sure to return to the problem word later and have the students read it without your help. Finally, have individual students take turns reading one or two words each.

Example words with open and closed syllables and common prefixes and suffixes or word endings: combat, submit, album, exact, witness, bonus, unit, even, uneven, inexact, gladly, exactly, witnessed.

> **Teacher:**
> We have learned about closed and open syllables. A closed syllable ends in at least one consonant and the vowel is short. Remember that the vowel is "closed off" by the consonant

at the end of the word. Let's read some words that contain a closed syllable.

Point to "combat," "submit," "album," "exact," and "witness" as students read them together.

Good. Now let's read some words with open syllables. An open syllable ends in what kind of letter—Tamika? Yes, a vowel. And what kind of sound will the vowel have in an open syllable—Simon? Yes, it will make its long vowel sound. Remember that in open syllables the vowel is at the end of the syllable so the vowel is "open" to the rest of the word. Here are some words with open and closed syllables.

Point to "bonus," "unit," and "even" as students read them together.

Teacher:
Wonderful. You have also learned to recognize some word parts that may appear at the beginning or end of a word and that change the meaning of the word. We know that the prefixes *un-* and *in-* mean what, Terri? Yes, they both mean "not". Here are words that begin with those prefixes. Read the prefix.

Point to "un" in "uneven".

Now read the word.

Point to "uneven".

Yes, *uneven*. Now read this prefix.

Point to "in" in the word "inexact".

Now read the word.

Point to "inexact".

Yes, *inexact* means "not exact". Something that is exact is just right in every way, so if something is inexact, it is not just right in every way. If your work is inexact, it has some mistakes.

These two words end with the word part *-ly*.

Point to "gladly" and "exactly".

If we put *-ly* at the end of the word *slow*, how would we say the new word—Jerome? Yes, the word would be *slowly*. The suffix *-ly* means "in a __ way," so the word *slowly* would mean "in a slow way". Here are two words that end with the suffix *-ly*. Read the suffix.

Point to "ly" in "gladly".

Now read the word.

Point to "gladly".

Yes, *gladly*. Now read this word part.

Point to "ly" in "exactly".

Good. Now read the word.

Point to "exactly".

Yes, *exactly* means "in an exact way" or "just right in every way". The last word on our list has an ending you know well—*ed*. What does that tell you about the action in the word—Javier? Yes, it means that it happened in the past. Now look at the word, everyone. Read the first part.

Point to "wit" in "witnessed".

Yes, *wit*. Now read the next part.

Point to "ness" in "witnessed".

Yes, *ness*. Read those parts together.

Point to "witness".

Now add the *-ed* ending and read the whole word.

Point to "witnessed".

Yes, *witnessed*.

STATE OBJECTIVE/PURPOSE

Teacher:
Today, you will learn a strategy, or plan, to read words with more than one syllable. You will be able to use this strategy in any class to help you read words with more than one syllable.

MODEL AND TEACH

Genre: Expository or narrative
Grouping: Whole class or small group

Display a poster with the steps for the multisyllable strategy written on it. (This poster will be kept in the room for student reference as they learn the strategy.)

Figure 103. Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy.

Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy	
1.	Find the vowels.
2.	Look for word parts you know.
3.	Read each word part.
4.	Read the parts quickly.
5.	Make it sound like a real word.

Adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005a). REWARDS: Multisyllabic word reading strategies. *Longmont, CO: Sopris West.*

Teacher:
I'm going to show you how I would use the strategy if I were trying to read a word I didn't know. You might already be able to read the word that I'm going to write, but, if you can, don't say it out loud. I want to show you what you could do if you were trying to read a long word that you don't know.

Write "fantastic" on an overhead transparency. Think aloud as you model each step of the strategy for the students.

The first step in the strategy is, "Find the vowels." I know that every syllable must have a vowel sound, so finding the vowels will help me find the syllables in the word.

Point to the word "fantastic" on the overhead.

In this word I see an *a*, another *a*, and an *i*. I'm going to circle the vowels in the word.

Circle the vowels in the word "fantastic".

Step 2 of the strategy is, "Look for word parts you know." Hmmm. I see something that looks like *fan* at the beginning. That isn't one of the prefixes we have worked on, but it is a word part I know. I'm going to underline it.

Underline "fan" in "fantastic".

I also see two more closed syllables in the word. I'm going to underline the closed syllables.

Underline "tas" and "tic" in "fantastic".

Step 3 is, "Read each word part." OK. Since these are closed syllables, I think the vowels will have their short sounds. *Fan-tas-tic*.

Step 4 is, "Read the parts quickly." *Fantastic*. That makes sense! The word is *fantastic*.

Step 5 says, "Make it sound like a real word." The word I read sounds right. *Fantastic*. I don't think I have to change it. It sounds like a real word.

*Be sure to emphasize the accented syllable: "fan**tas**tic". At first, it may be helpful to demonstrate how placing the emphasis on the wrong syllable will make it into a **nonsense word**: "**fan**tastic," "fantas**tic**". Changing the emphasis to the correct syllable can be part of Step 5: Make it sound like a real word.*

HELPFUL HABIT | For English language learners, teach this strategy: Whenever you hear a new multi-syllable word, pay attention to which syllable has the emphasis. You can put a dot under it or underline this syllable. The next time you hear or read the word, this mark will remind you of the correct pronunciation.

GUIDED PRACTICE

Grouping: Whole group or small group

Teacher:
Now, let's do one together.

Write the word "unimpressed" on the overhead transparency.

Teacher:
What is the first step of our strategy—Ta'Michael?

Student:
Find the vowels.

Teacher:
Ta'Michael, what are the vowel letters?

Student:
A, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *y*.

Teacher:
Good. Please come up and circle all of the vowel letters you see in this word.

Ta'Michael circles "u," "i," "e," and "e".

Thank you, Ta'Michael. What's the next step in the strategy—Terri?

Student:
Look for word parts you know.

Teacher:
Terri, do you see any word parts you know?

Student:
It has *un-* at the beginning.

Teacher:
Excellent, Terri. You found the prefix *un-* in the word. What does that mean—Javier? Yes, *un-* means "not." Terri, come up and underline the prefix *un-* in the word. Great, thank you. What other word parts do you see in the word—Simon?

Student:
I see *-ed* at the end. That means it's in the past.

Teacher:
Excellent, Simon. Please come up and underline the *-ed*. Now, do you see any syllable types you know? Remember, the vowels can help you find the syllables since each syllable has one vowel sound in it. Tamika, what do you see?

Student:
I think there are two closed syllables: *im-* and *press*.

Teacher:
Wow, Tamika, you are really using what you know about syllables! Please come underline those two word parts. The next steps in the strategy are to read the parts, and then read them quickly. Everyone, read the first part.

Point to "un-".

Teacher:
Yes, *un-*. Read the part.

Point to "im".

Read the part.

Point to "press".

Now read those parts together.

Students:
Unimpress.

Teacher:
Good. Now add the ending to make it show that it happened in the past.

Students:
Unimpressed.

Teacher:
Terrific. Does it sound like a real word—Maia?

Student:
I think so. I've heard the word *impress*, like you wear a really cool shirt to try to impress your friends.

Teacher:
That's a great example, Maia. You're right. The base word is *impress*. If you impress someone, you make them think that something is very important or special. So what would *impressed* mean—Tamika?

Student:
Well, I think the *-ed* ending means I did it in the past.

Teacher:
Yes it can mean that. We could say, "I impressed all my friends when I wore my new shirt." There is another meaning for this word. I could say, "I was impressed when I saw Maia's cool new shirt." That means I saw the shirt and thought it was very special. Now what would it mean if I said, "I was *un*impressed when I saw the boy tell a joke." Anyone?

Student:
If *un-* means "not," I guess I did not think it was very special. I didn't like the joke very much.

Teacher:
Exactly! If you are unimpressed by something, you don't think it is very special. Simon, can you finish this sentence—I was unimpressed when…

Student:
I was unimpressed when…I saw last night's basketball game.

Teacher:
Why were you unimpressed when you saw the game?

Student:
We lost. We played bad.

Teacher:
OK. That makes sense. Everyone, please read the five steps of the strategy together.

Point to the poster as the class reads. Repeat, if necessary.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Grouping: Partners

> **Teacher:**
> You did a very good job of using the strategy to read this long word. Now I'm going to give you a chance to read some words with your partner. Listen carefully to my directions. When you get together with your partner, I will give you a list of words. First, Partner 1 will use the strategy to read a word. Partner 2 will check Partner 1's work and remind Partner 1 how to use the strategy, if needed. If both partners are not sure about how to use the strategy to read the word, raise your hands and I will come to help you figure it out. When you have finished a word, raise you hand and I'll come to check you. Then you switch jobs, and Partner 2 uses the strategy to read the next word, while Partner 1 helps.
>
> What will you do first when you get into your partners—Javier?
>
> **Student:**
> Partner 1 will read the first word.
>
> **Teacher:**
> Yes. Remember that you will use the five steps in our strategy to read the word. What will Partner 2 do—Simon?
>
> **Student:**
> Help Partner 1, if needed.
>
> **Teacher:**
> What if you both get stuck on the word—Tamika?
>
> **Student:**
> Raise our hands and you'll come.
>
> **Teacher:**
> Yes. And what will you do when you have figured out a word—Ta'Michael?
>
> **Student:**
> Raise our hands so you can check it.
>
> **Teacher:**
> Excellent. Please move over next to your partners.

Give each pair a list of six to eight multisyllable words that are made of open syllables; closed syllables; and prefixes, suffixes, and endings that they have learned.

IMPORTANT: Do not include irregular words or those that have syllables in which the vowels do not make their predicted sounds (i.e., the long sound in open syllables and the short sound in closed syllables. At this point students should not have to do Step 5 of the strategy. They should not have to "play with" the vowel sounds in the word to make it sound like a real word.) After students have mastered the strategy, teach a lesson on reading words with the schwa sound, in which you model how to make it sound like a real word. See page 237 for a description of Step 5 of the Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy.

Have students work in partner groups to read the words, following the directions above.

GENERALIZATION

Teacher:
How might you use the Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy to help you outside of this class?

Student:
It could help when we try to read hard words.

Teacher:
Yes. When you are reading in your science, social studies, English, or math classes, I want you to remember to try the strategy. It may not work for all the hard words you see because we haven't learned all the syllable types yet, but try it anyway. You may be able to figure out most of the words this way. I'm going to ask you tomorrow how you used the strategy in your other classes.

Do you think you might be able to use the strategy at home?

Student:
Maybe when I'm reading my new comic book. Sometimes they have some long words in them.

Teacher:
Good idea, Simon. Anytime you read, at home or at school, and you come to long words that you don't know, try the strategy. I can't wait to find out how it works for you.

MONITOR STUDENT LEARNING

Check students' work carefully as they work with their partners to read words.

Plan several lessons to review the strategy and have students apply it in more challenging words, especially as you teach more syllable types.

Provide opportunities for students to partner-read selected passages that contain multiple examples of multisyllable words that contain the syllable types the students have learned. Remind students to try the strategy to read words that have more than one syllable. Have partners remind each other to use the strategy to help them read unfamiliar words. Monitor their reading closely and provide feedback.

PERIODIC/MULTIPLE OPPORTUNITIES TO PRACTICE

Review the strategy often, and teach more lessons on using the strategy, as needed. It may require several lessons and opportunities to practice before students begin to use the Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy independently. Share this strategy with your students' content area teachers so that students can follow the same procedure in other classes and generalize the strategy. Ask the content area teachers to remind students to try the Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy when they come to a long word they don't know.

Part 4 | Appendix

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Planning Checklist for Implementing Schoolwide Reading Intervention

REVIEW CURRENT READING PRACTICES WITHIN THE SCHOOL.

- Does the school have a unified vision and plan for ensuring that all students are able to read and learn from academic text and are motivated to read? Are administrators and teachers committed to implementing the plan?
- Is there a safe and positive schoolwide environment?
- Have content area teachers received quality professional development related to teaching vocabulary and comprehension strategies?
- Do content area teachers consistently teach and encourage students to implement a small number of research-based vocabulary and comprehension strategies? Are the same strategies used across all classes?
- Are benchmark reading assessments administered three times per year to identify students who need supplemental reading classes or intervention?
- Do reading teachers or tutors implement research-supported programs and teaching approaches to provide strategic intervention to students who perform somewhat below grade level and/or have problems comprehending academic text?
- Do reading teachers or other intervention specialists implement research-supported, explicit, systematic reading programs to provide intensive intervention to students with severe reading difficulties?
- Is the progress of students in strategic and intensive intervention monitored two times per month to determine whether they are responding adequately to intervention?
- Have reading teachers or other interventionists received quality professional development emphasizing scientific research-based practices in teaching struggling readers?

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DEVELOP A PLAN FOR COLLECTING, MANAGING, AND USING BENCHMARK AND PROGRESS MONITORING DATA.

- Who will administer benchmark assessments?
- Who will organize the results and analyze them to determine which students need strategic or intensive intervention?
- Reading teachers or interventionists should administer progress monitoring assessments, but may need some assistance. If so, who will assist them?
- Who will compile progress monitoring data and display them as easily interpreted graphs or in other accessible formats?
- It is recommended that groups of reading teachers, other teachers, and possibly administrators meet regularly to examine the progress monitoring data so that they can identify students who are not making adequate progress and collaborate to make plans for accelerating the progress of these students. Who will organize these meetings?

DEVELOP A SCHOOLWIDE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTING CONTENT AREA STRATEGIES AND ROUTINES.

- If there is a need for professional development in a system of positive behavior supports to ensure a safe and positive schoolwide environment, who will provide this professional development, and who will ensure that the system is implemented?
- Is there a plan for providing quality professional development to content area teachers? Does this plan include ongoing support in the form of regular study group sessions and/or coaching?
- Are content area teachers committed to implementing the same set of research-based strategies and routines across classes in order to assure that students learn key vocabulary and are able to read and understand academic text in each discipline?
- Are content area and reading teachers given adequate time to plan and collaborate to overcome obstacles to integrating these strategies and routines into their instruction?
- Is a system established for problem-solving and decision-making related to this component of schoolwide intervention?

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DEVELOP A SCHOOLWIDE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTING STRATEGIC INTERVENTION.

- Who will provide strategic intervention?
- Will strategic intervention take place in reading classes or in tutoring sessions?
- When will strategic intervention be provided?
- Where will strategic intervention be implemented?
- Is a system in place for monitoring the progress of strategic intervention students two times per month and using the results to guide instructional decisions?
- Are criteria established for entry and exit from strategic intervention?
- How will assessment data be used to group and regroup students, to plan targeted instruction, and to make adaptations to ensure students meet grade-level benchmarks/objectives?
- Is a system established for problem-solving and decision-making related to strategic intervention?
- Is time provided for collaboration among reading intervention teachers?
- Is professional development on the progress monitoring instrument, the use of assessment data to inform instruction, and scientific research-based reading instruction planned for intervention teachers?

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DEVELOP A SCHOOLWIDE PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTING INTENSIVE INTERVENTION.

- Who will provide intensive intervention (e.g., specialized reading teacher or special education teacher)?
- When and how often will intensive intervention be provided?
- Where will intensive intervention be implemented?
- Is the relationship of intensive intervention with dyslexia, Section 504, and special education services determined?
- Is a system in place for monitoring the progress of intensive intervention students two times per month and using the results to guide instructional decisions?
- Are criteria established for entry and exit from intensive intervention?
- How will assessment data be used to group and regroup students, to plan targeted instruction, and to make adaptations to ensure students meet grade-level benchmarks/objectives?
- Is a system established for problem-solving and decision-making related to intensive intervention?
- Is time provided for collaboration among reading intervention teachers?
- Is professional development on the progress monitoring instrument, the use of assessment data to inform instruction, and scientific research-based reading instruction planned for intervention teachers?

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Characteristics of Effective Readers	
Comprehension	**Vocabulary**
• Establish a purpose for reading. • Activate background knowledge. • Monitor reading for understanding. • Construct mental images while reading. • Identify main idea and supporting details. • Summarize text. • Generate and answer questions. • Recognize text structure. • Distinguish fact and opinion.	• Use background knowledge to understand word meaning. • Are aware of multiple-meaning words. • Are aware of word origins. • Understand word parts. • Generalize word meanings across content areas. • Use strategies to understand new word meaning. • Are motivated to learn new words.
Fluency	**Word Recognition**
• Read 100–150 words per minute. • Have automatic word recognition skills. • Self-correct. • Group words into meaningful chunks. • Read with expression. • Chunk words into meaningful phrases. • Demonstrate prosody: the ability to interpret reading cues such as punctuation with appropriate pauses, stops and intonation. • Understand that reading practice leads to fluent reading.	• Apply knowledge of letter-sound correspondence in order to recognize words. • Use structural analysis to recognize words. • Use knowledge of word parts to identify words.

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

Accuracy Guidelines	
# of words read correctly in 1 minute / total # of words read = Accuracy Level	
Independent Level	
≤ 1 in 20 words is difficult	95%–100% accuracy
Instructional Level	
≤ 1 in 10 words is difficult	90%–94% accuracy
Frustration Level	
Difficulty with ≥ 1 in 10 words	≤ 90% accuracy

Sample Instructional Sequence for Reading Instruction (Based on a 45-minute Class)

Every Day for the First 4–6 Weeks of Intervention	
Component(s)	Time Range (in mins.)
Fluency (Partner Reading)	7–10
Vocabulary Instruction (Prefixes, Suffixes, Base Words, and Roots)	8–10
Multisyllable Word Reading Instruction and Practice	18–24
Spelling Dictation	4–6

Sample Weekly Schedule for Remainder of Intervention	
Component(s)	Time Range (in mins.)
Monday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Multisyllable Word Reading Practice or Vocabulary Word Part Review	6–8
Vocabulary Instruction	15–25
Spelling Dictation	6–8
Tuesday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Vocabulary Review and Practice	5–7
Comprehension Strategy Instruction (Modeling and Guided Practice)	10–15
Passage Reading, Applying Comprehension Strategy	15–20
Wednesday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Vocabulary Review and Practice	5–7
Comprehension Strategy Instruction, continued	8–10

(continued on the next page)

Sample Weekly Schedule for Remainder of Intervention	
Component(s)	Time Range (in mins.)
Passage Reading, Applying Comprehension Strategy	20–25
Thursday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Multisyllable Word Reading Practice or Vocabulary Word Part Review	6–8
Vocabulary Review and Practice	8–10
Comprehension Strategy Instruction, continued; Passage Reading, Applying Comprehension Strategy	25–35
Friday	
Fluency (if needed) or Other Text Reading (Partner Reading)	7–10
Comprehension Review	6–8
Expository Writing (Write a summary of the passage or write an essay using the same text structure as the passage, guided by a graphic organizer.)	25–35

Guide to Adapting Instruction

Adaptation Category	Definition	Examples
Instructional Content	Skills and concepts that are the focus of teaching and learning	Determining main ideas Reading words with closed syllable patterns Summarization
Instructional Activity	The actual lessons used to teach and reinforce skills and concepts	Semantic mapping Main idea strategy Teaching the Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy
Delivery of Instruction	The procedures and routines used to teach instructional activities	Grouping—whole class, small group, or partners Modeling and thinking aloud Connecting to background knowledge Multiple opportunities for practice
Instructional Material	Supplemental aids that are used to teach and reinforce skills and concepts	Narrative or expository text Manipulatives Charts Flashcards Recorded text

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PLANNING SHEET
PREVIEWING

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

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PLANNING SHEET
LEVEL 1 QUESTIONS

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

3. Model Level 1 Questions

Questions to use as examples:

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PLANNING SHEET
LEVEL 2 QUESTIONS

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

3. Model Level 2 Questions

Questions to use as examples:

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PLANNING SHEET
LEVEL 3 QUESTIONS

1. Preteach Proper Nouns or Critical Concept Nouns
Introduce, read, and define. Students write brief definition in learning log.

Who:

Where:

What:

2. Preview Text
Introduce the big idea of the text selection.

What is the most important idea that you want all students to understand and remember from this reading?

Important key concepts, subheadings, bolded print, etc.

Connections to prior learning:

3. Model Level 3 Questions

Questions to use as examples:

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Previewing and Questioning Learning Log

Name: ________________ Partner's Name: ________________ Date: __________

Chapter or Selection Name: ____

Unfamiliar Proper Nouns or Big Idea Words

1. ☐ Person ☐ Place ☐ Thing/Event

2. ☐ Person ☐ Place ☐ Thing/Event

3. ☐ Person ☐ Place ☐ Thing/Event

4. ☐ Person ☐ Place ☐ Thing/Event

What is the topic (or "big idea") of the selection?

What do you already know about the topic?

Make a prediction: What will you learn about the topic?

Why do you think you will learn that?

Generate three questions about the important ideas (use who, what, when, where, why, and how).

LEVEL ___
1.

Answer:	*Provide the evidence! How do you know that?*

LEVEL ____
2.

Answer:	*Provide the evidence! How do you know that?*

LEVEL____
3.

Answer:	*Provide the evidence! How do you know that?*

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Question Cards: Red (Front)

Level 1—Right There

- ❑ Questions can be answered in one word or one sentence
- ❑ Answers can be found word-for-word in the text

➤ Who? ➤ Where?
➤ What? ➤ Why?
➤ When? ➤ How?

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- ❑ Questions can be answered in one word or one sentence
- ❑ Answers can be found word-for-word in the text

➤ Who? ➤ Where?
➤ What? ➤ Why?
➤ When? ➤ How?

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➤ What? ➤ Why?
➤ When? ➤ How?

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➤ When? ➤ How?

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Level 1—Examples

- ❐ What is the capital of Texas?
- ❐ Who was Jane Long?
- ❐ Where did the Mexican War begin?

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Question Cards: White (Front)

Level 2—Putting It Together

- ❑ Questions can be answered by looking in the text
- ❑ Answers require one or more sentences
- ❑ To answer the questions, you have to look in more than one place and put information together

  - ➤ Who? ➤ Where?
  - ➤ What? ➤ Why?
  - ➤ When? ➤ How?

Level 2—Putting It Together

- ❑ Questions can be answered by looking in the text
- ❑ Answers require one or more sentences
- ❑ To answer the questions, you have to look in more than one place and put information together

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  - ➤ What? ➤ Why?
  - ➤ When? ➤ How?

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  - ➤ What? ➤ Why?
  - ➤ When? ➤ How?

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Level 2—Examples

- ❐ How did ranchers get their cattle to the markets?
- ❐ Describe the events leading to Texas joining the United States.
- ❐ Why was it harder for enslaved people to have a family life than plantation owners?

Level 2—Examples

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Level 3—Making Connections

- ❑ Questions cannot be answered by using text alone
- ❑ Answers require you to think about what you just read, what you already know, and how it fits together

➤ How is ____ like (similar to) ____?
➤ How is ____ different from ____?
➤ How is ____ related to ____?

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- ❑ Questions cannot be answered by using text alone
- ❑ Answers require you to think about what you just read, what you already know, and how it fits together

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Level 3—Social Studies Examples

- ❐ Why is the Alamo important in Texas History?
- ❐ How is the Texas Declaration of Independence similar to the United States Declaration of Independence?
- ❐ How is the Civil War different from the Mexican War?

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MENTAL IMAGERY LOG	
Title:	
Paragraph 1	Paragraph 5
Paragraph 2	Paragraph 6
Paragraph 3	Paragraph 7
Paragraph 4	Paragraph 8

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Meeting the needs of struggling readers: A resource for secondary English language arts teachers. *Austin, TX: Author; based on McNeil, J. D. (1992).* Reading comprehension: New directions for classroom practice *(3rd ed.). New York: Harper Collins; Wood, K. D., & Harmon, J. M. (2001).* Strategies for integrating reading and writing in middle and high school classrooms. *Westerville, OH: National Middle School Association; and Gambrell, L. B., & Bales, R. J. (1986). Mental imagery and the comprehension-monitoring of fourth- and fifth-grade poor readers.* Reading Research Quarterly, 21*, 454–464.*

MAIN IDEA FORM

Name(s) ______________________________ Date ______________

Title or Topic of the Selection ______________________________

Paragraph	Who or What is the Paragraph About?	Most Important Information About the "Who" or "What"	Key Details

Note: The complete main idea statement is formed by combining the "Who or What" column with the "Most Important Information" column.

Adapted with permission from Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., Dimino, J., Schumm, J. S., & Bryant, D. (2001). Collaborative strategic reading: Strategies for improving comprehension. *Longmont, CO: Sopris West.*

MAIN IDEA LOG

Title of passage: ______________________________

Identify three or four important ideas from the passage:

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

4. ______________________________

Write the main idea of the entire passage (10 words or less):

____

____

Generate three questions about the important ideas:
(Who? What? When? Where? Why? How?)

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

Create one question about the passage that might be on a test:

____

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Signal Words

Cause-Effect		
How or why an event happened; what resulted from an event		
Accordingly	For this reason	Next
As a result of	Hence	Resulting from
Because	How	Since
Begins with	If . . . then	So that
Consequently	In order to	Therefore
Due to	Is caused by	Thus
Effects of	It follows	When . . . then
Finally	Leads/led to	Whether

Chronological Order/Temporal Sequencing		
The order of events/steps in a process		
After	Following	On (date)
Afterward	Formerly	Preceding
Around	Immediately	Previously
As soon as	In front of	Second
At last	In the middle	Shortly
Before	Initially	Soon
Between	Last	Then
During	Later	Third
Eventually	Meanwhile	To begin with
Ever since	Next	Until
Finally	Not long after	When
First	Now	While

Compare/Contrast		
How two or more things are alike/different		
Although	Even though	Nevertheless
And	However	On the contrary
As opposed to	In common	On the other hand
As well as	In comparison	Opposite
Better	In contrast	Otherwise
Both	In the same way	Same
But	Instead of	Similar to
Compared with	Just as/like	Similarly
Despite	Less	Still
Different from	Likewise	Whereas
Either	More than	Yet

(continued on the next page)

Description/Categorization		
How something looks, moves, works, etc.; a definition or characterization		
Above	Down	Near
Across	For example	On top of
Along	For instance	Onto
Appears to be	Furthermore	Outside
As in	Generally	Over
Behind	Identify	Refers to
Below	In addition	Such as
Beside	In back of	To illustrate
Between	In front of	To the right/left
Consists of	Including	Typically
Describe	Looks like	Under

Problem-Solution		
What's wrong and how to fix it		
Answer	Problem	The problem facing
Challenge	Puzzle	The task was
Clarification	Question	Theory
Difficulty	Reply	This had to be accomplished
Dilemma	Resolution	To fix the problem
How to resolve the issue	Response	To overcome this
Lies	Riddle	Trouble
Obstacles	Solution	Unknown
One solution was	Solved by	What to do
Overcomes	The challenge was	What was discovered
Predicament		

Position-Reason		
Why a point or idea should be supported; what's wrong with an idea		
Accordingly	It is contended	Therefore
As illustrated by	It is evident that	Thesis
Because	It will be argued that	This contradicts the fact that
Consequently	Must take into account	This must be counterbalanced by
For instance	Since	This view is supported by
For this reason	The claim is limited due to	Turn more attention to
In conclusion	The implication is	What is critical
In order for	The position is	What is more central is
It can be established	The strengths of	

Identifying Text Structure	
If the author wants you to know...	The text structure will be...
How or why an event happened; what resulted from an event	Cause-Effect
The order of events/steps in a process	Chronological Order/Sequencing
How two or more things are alike/different	Compare/Contrast
How something looks, moves, works, etc.; a definition or characterization	Description/Categorization
What's wrong and how to fix it	Problem-Solution
Why a point or idea should be supported; what's wrong with an idea	Position-Reason

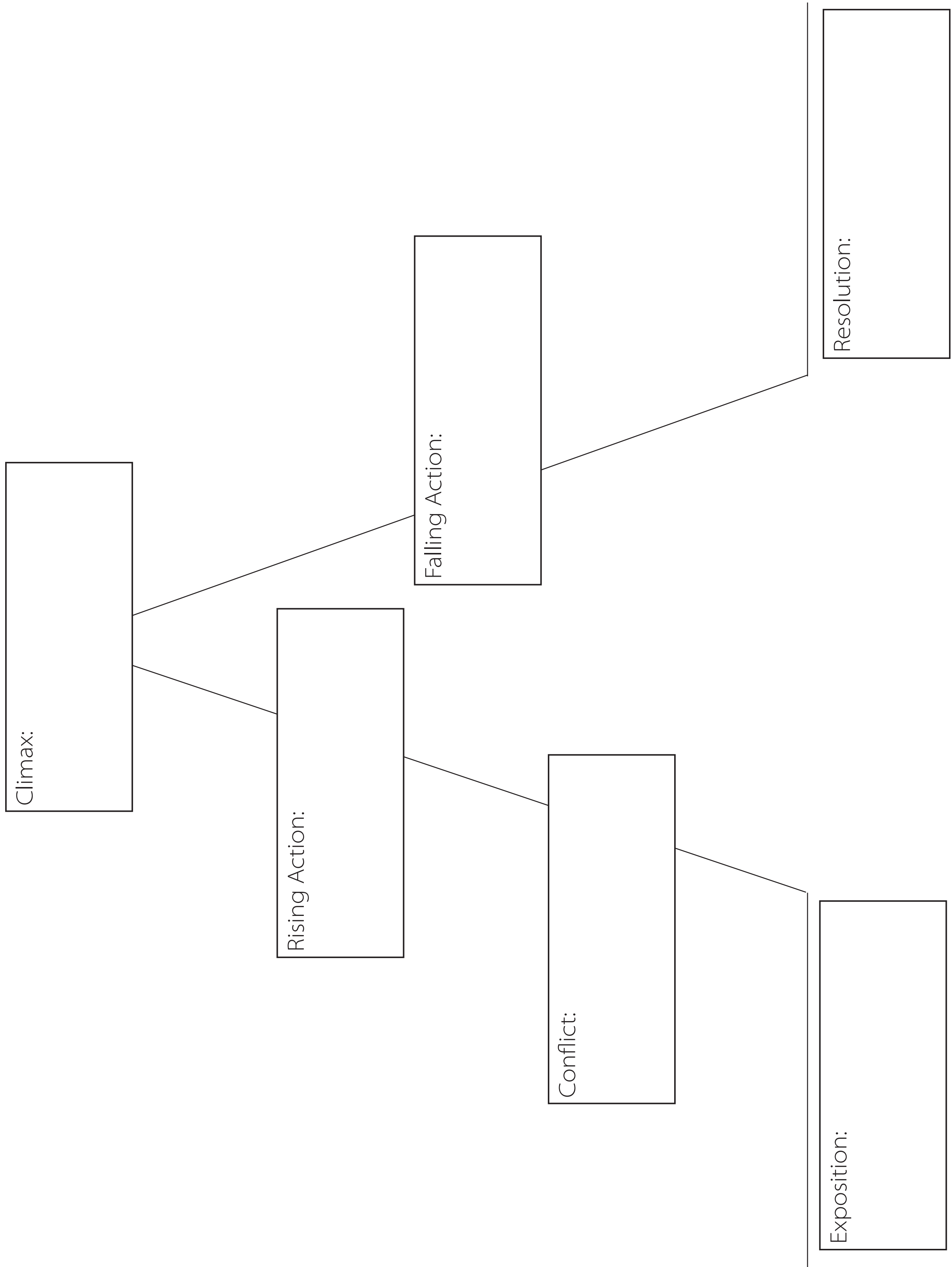
Elements of Narrative Text		
Examples	Fiction, Historical Fiction, Science Fiction, Plays, Autobiographies, Biographies, Fantasies, Mysteries, Legends, Folktales, Myths	
Purpose	To entertain or inform	
Characteristics	Follow a familiar story structure **Beginning**: Introduction of setting, characters, and conflict **Middle**: Progression of plot, which includes rising action, climax, and falling action **End**: Resolution or solution to the problem	
Narrative Terms (student-friendly definitions)	**Exposition**	Introduction of setting, characters, background information, and conflict
	Setting	Time and place
	Characters	People, animals, or other entities in the text
	Conflict	Problem
	Internal Conflict	A character's struggle within himself/herself
	External Conflict	A character's struggle with another character
	Rising Action	Events leading up to the climax; trying to solve the problem
	Climax	Emotional high point of the story; conflict is addressed
	Falling Action	Consequences or events caused by the climax
	Resolution	Final outcome

Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

Elements of Expository Text		
Examples	Newspapers Textbooks Magazine Articles Brochures Catalogues	
Purpose	To inform	
Characteristics	Titles Headings Subheadings Boldface Words Charts Tables Diagrams Graphics	
Organization	One expository passage may be organized using several different text structures.	
Types of Organization	**Cause-Effect**	How or why an event happened; what resulted from an event
	Chronology/Sequence	The order of events/steps in a process
	Compare/Contrast	How two or more things are alike/different
	Description/ Categorization	How something looks, moves, works, etc.; a definition or characterization
	Problem-Solution	What's wrong and how to fix it
	Position-Reason	Why a point or idea should be supported; what's wrong with an idea

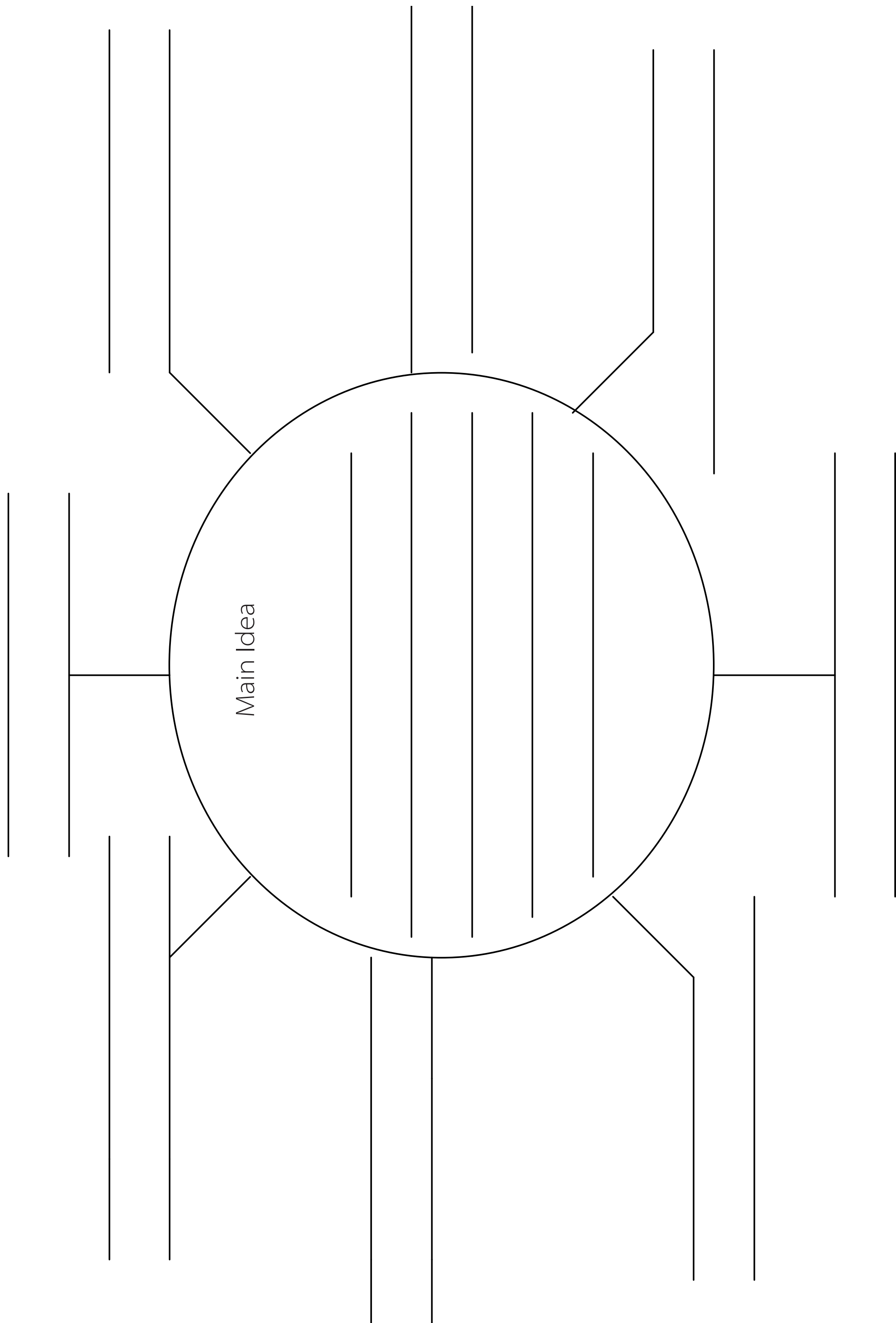
Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

Story Map



Adapted with permission from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts. (2003). Special education reading project secondary institute — Effective instruction for secondary struggling readers: Research-based practices. *Austin, TX: Author.*

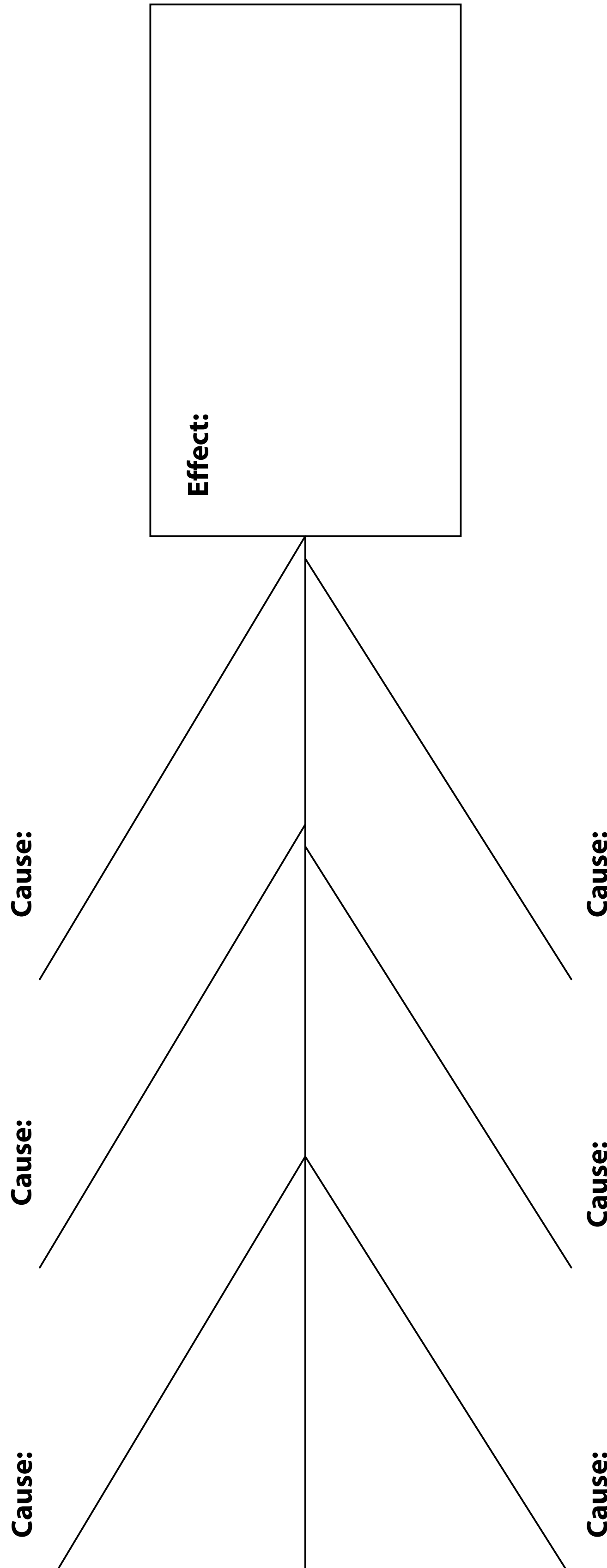
Main Idea Web



K-L Chart	
Know What do I already know?	**L**earn What did I learn?

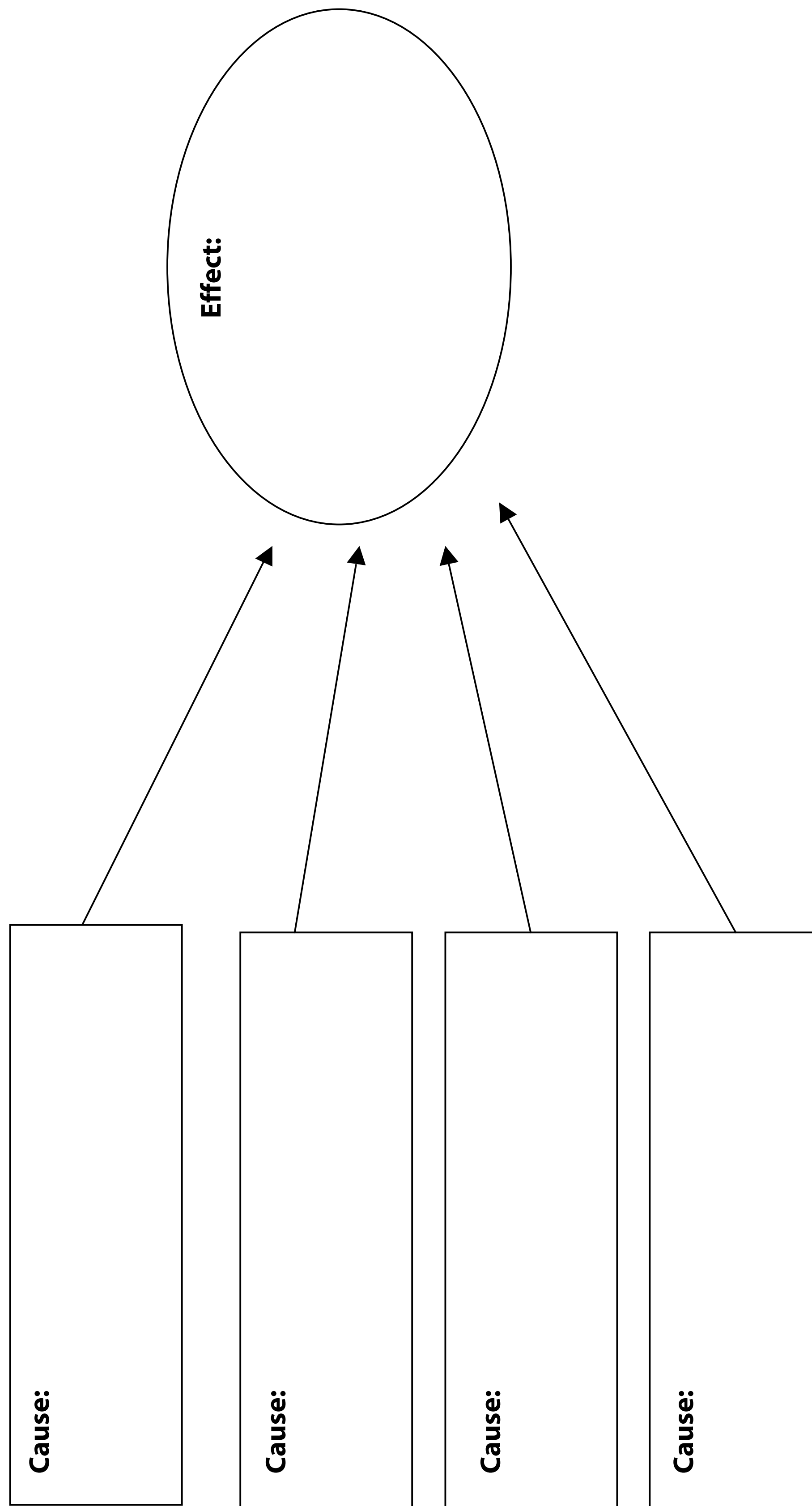
Adapted with permission from Ogle, D. M. (1986). K-W-L: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. The Reading Teacher, 39*, 564–570.*

Cause-Effect Chart (Herringbone)

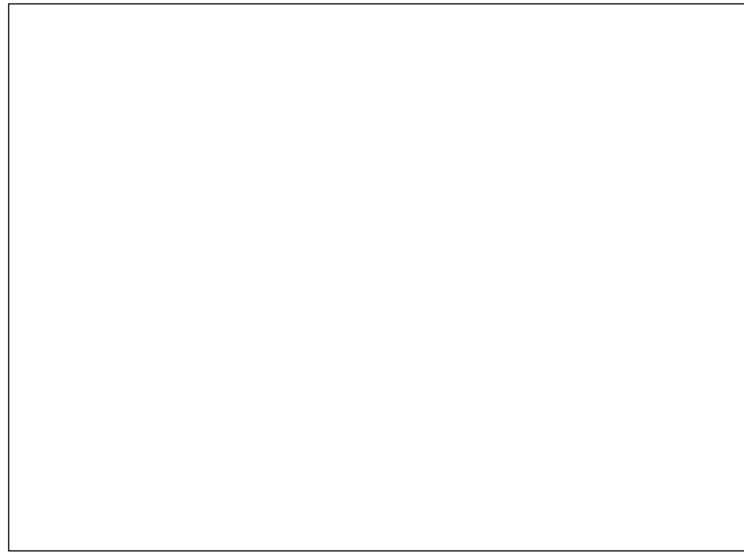


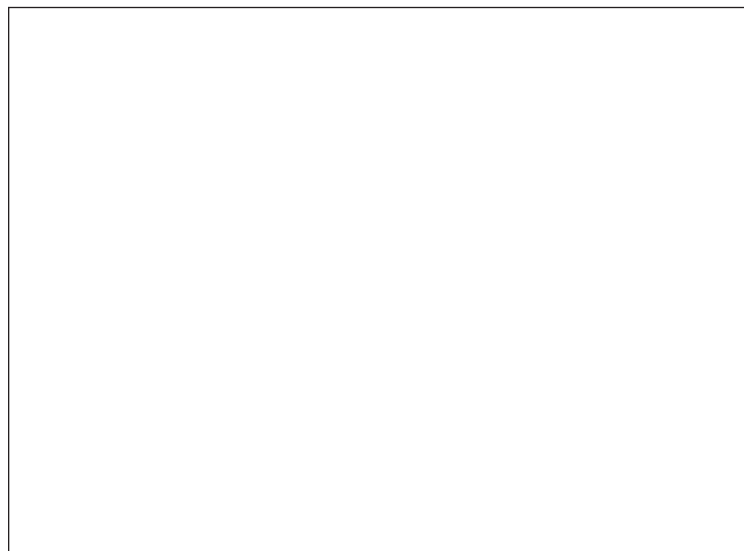
Based on Jones, B. F., Pierce, J., & Hunter, B. (1989). Teaching students to construct graphic representations. Educational Leadership, 46*(4), 20–25.*

Cause-Effect Chart (Semantic Map)



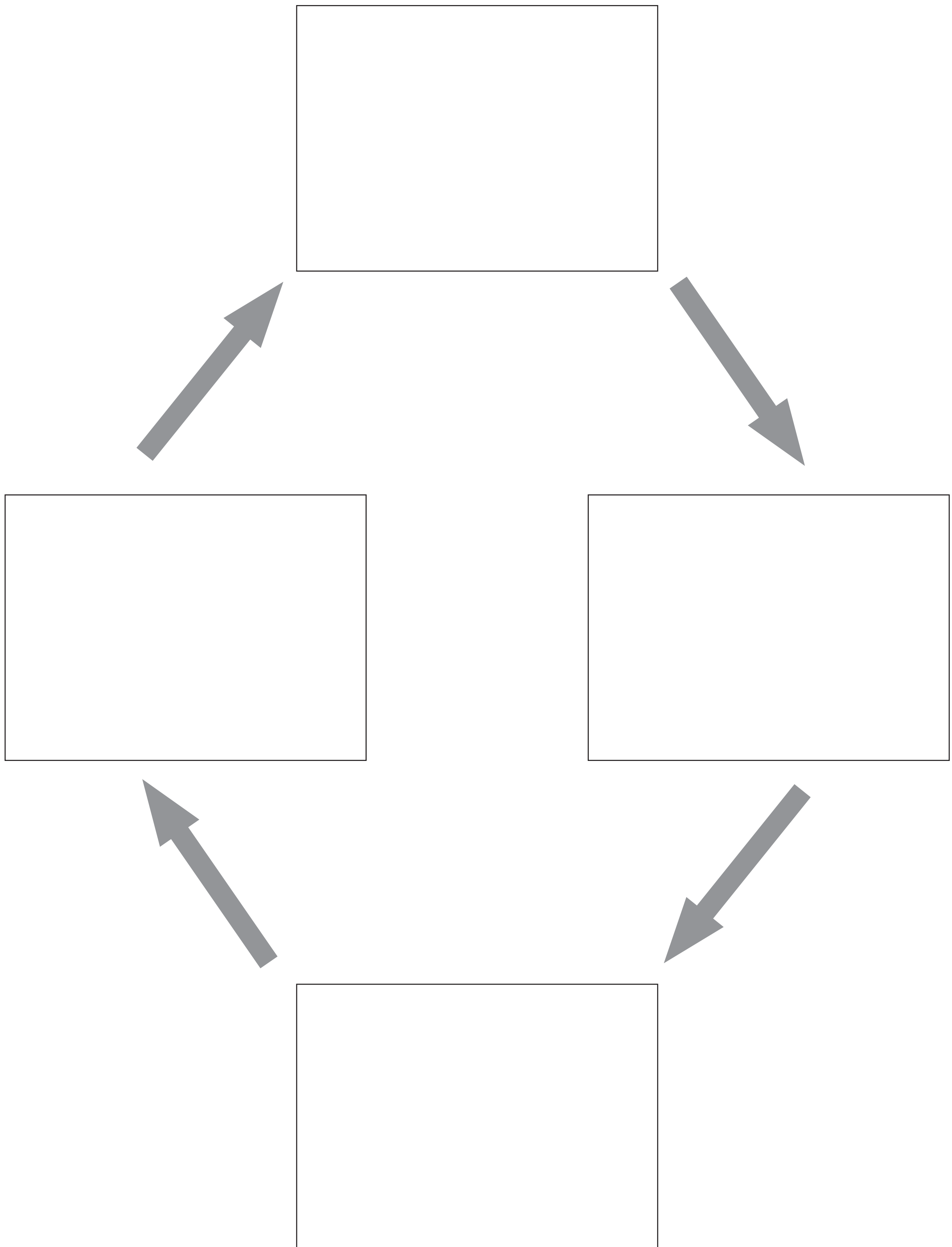
Cause-Effect Chart (Basic)



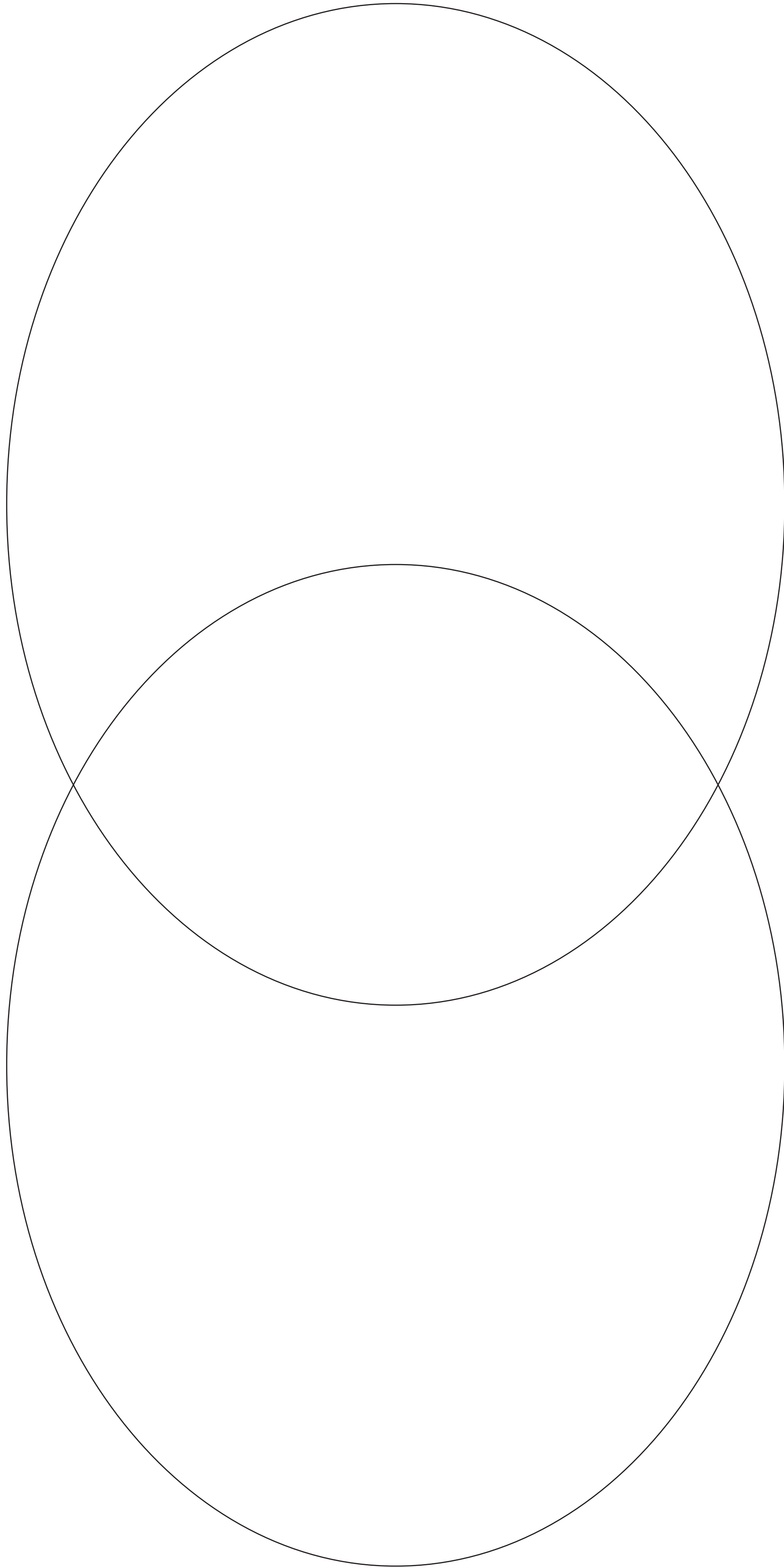


Chronological Ordering/Sequencing

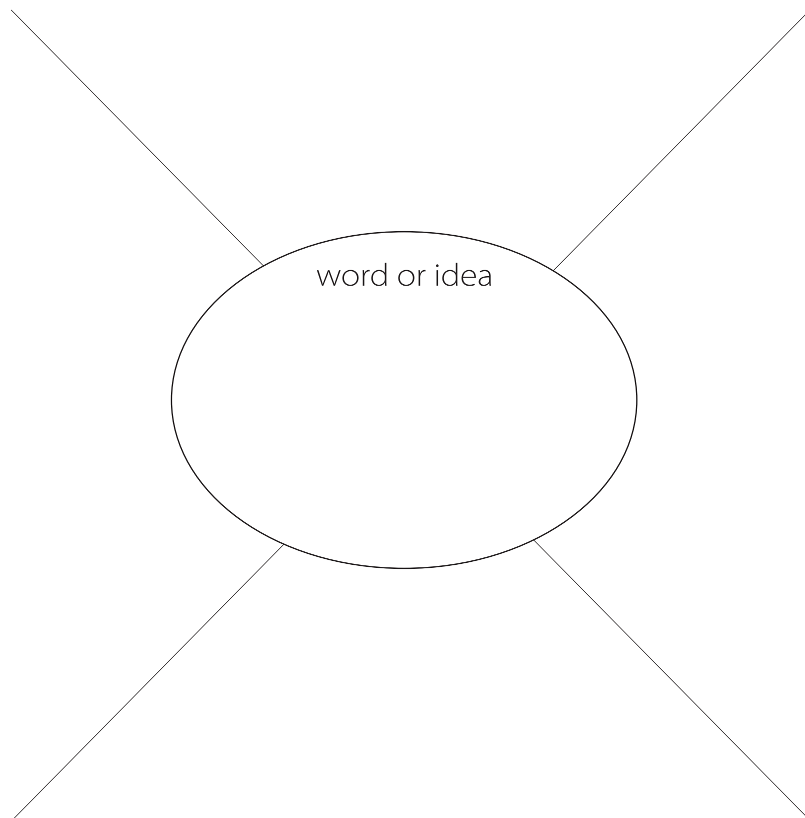
Temporal Sequencing



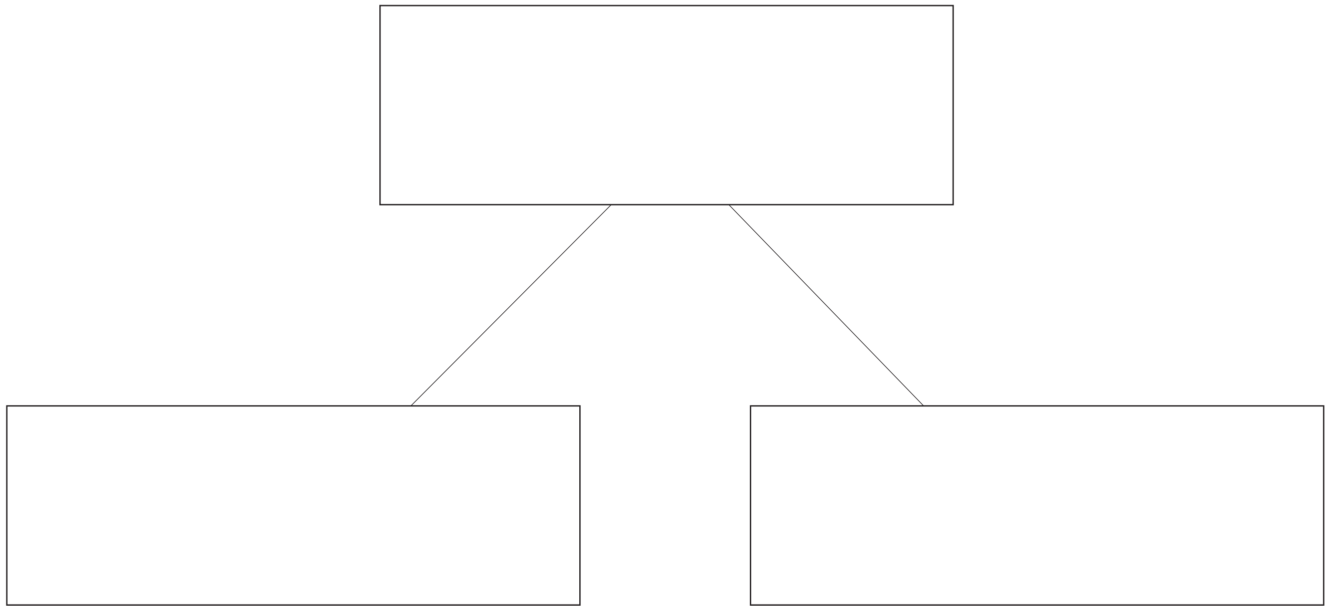
Compare/Contrast



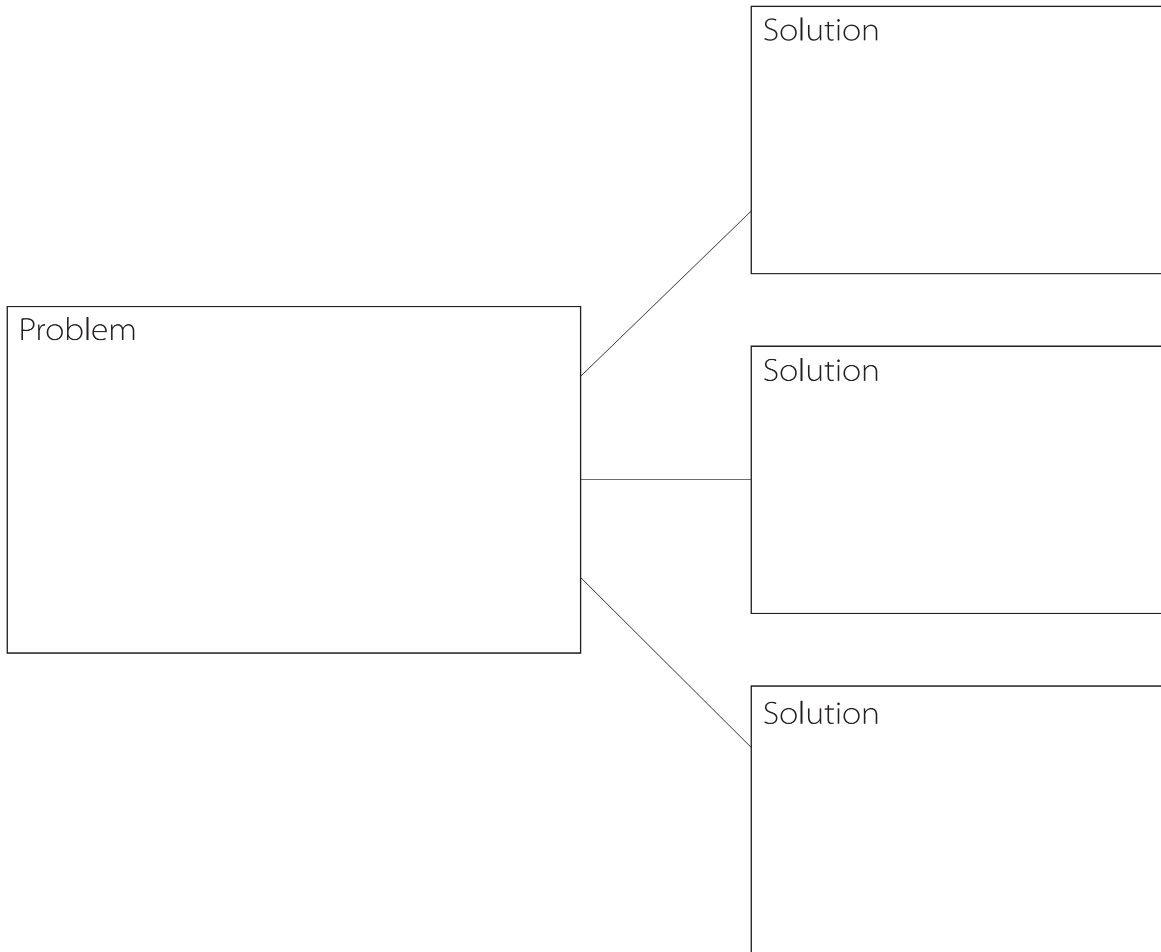
Description (Web)



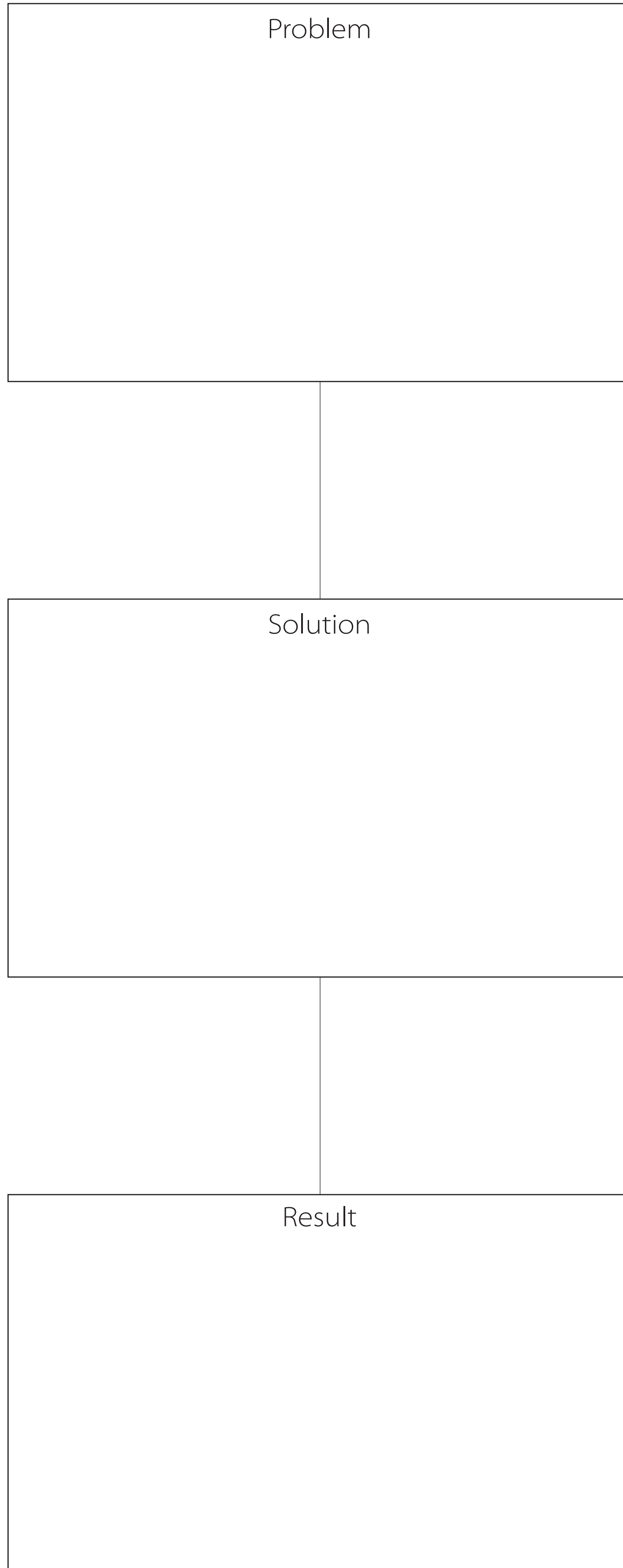
Description (Chart)



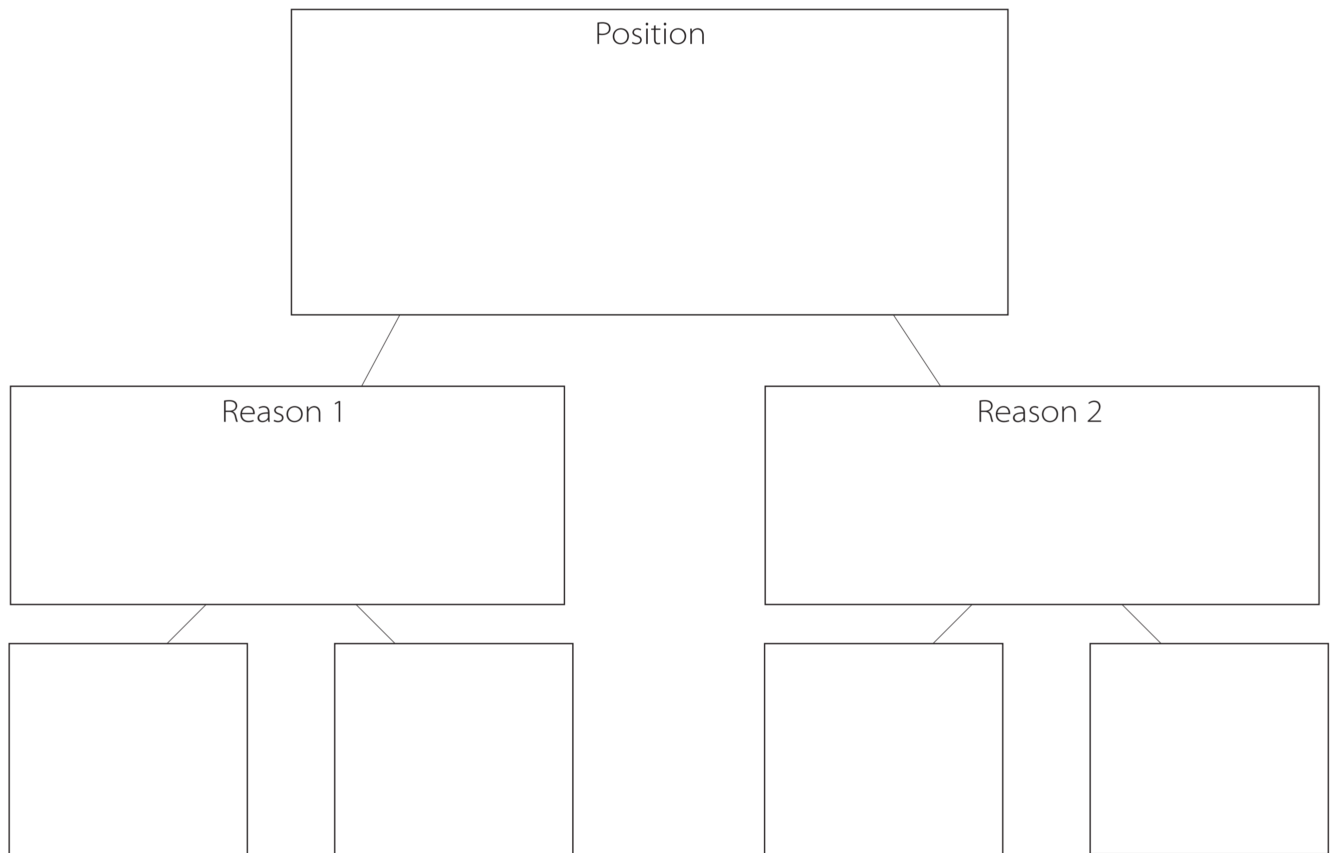
Problem-Solution



Problem-Solution-Result



Position-Reason

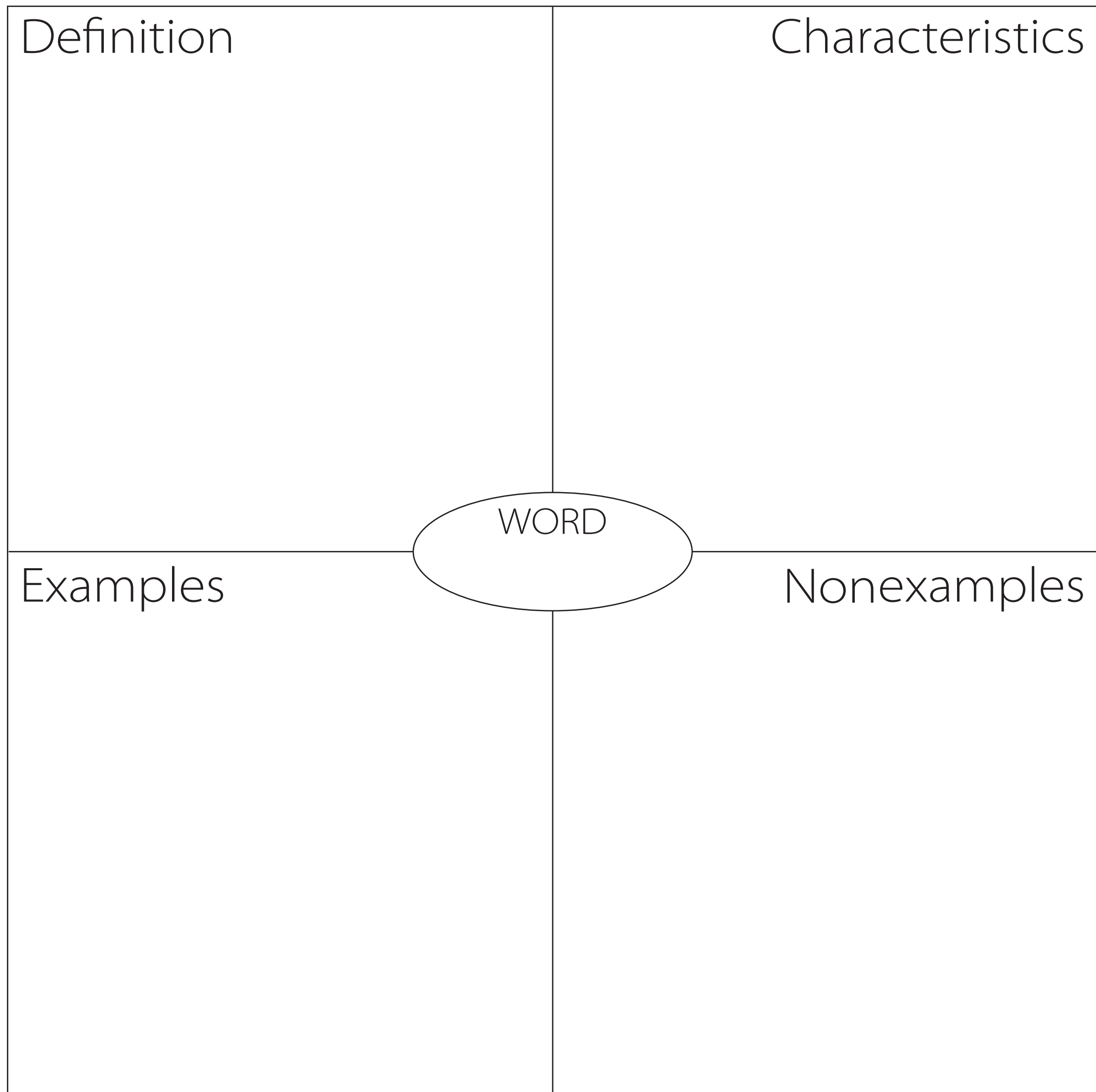


Semantic Feature Analysis Grid

Concept:

Features / Examples									

Frayer Model



Adapted with permission from Frayer, D. A., Frederick, W. C., & Klausmeier, H. G. (1969). A schema for testing the level of concept mastery *(Technical report No. 16). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning.*

The Origins of English

If this is the first time you are introducing Latin or Greek roots, you may want to use a map of Europe as you tell this simple story about the origins of English. (This account was contributed by Susan Ebbers of the University of California, Berkeley. See Ebbers [2003].)

First, I want you to know a little about how our language got to be the way it is. This story explains why our English language is so complicated. It explains that English is a mixture of Greek and Latin and French and German.

Most people think that Greek is the oldest layer of the English language. Greek words go way back, to about 3,000 years ago. We like to use old Greek roots to name new terms in medicine or science: *dinosaur*, *technology*, and *esophagus*. Even some simple words stem from old Greek: *anchor*, *school*, *phone*. About 10 percent of our English words are Greek. Some of the letters of our alphabet are Greek. Even the word *alphabet* is a Greek word.

The next oldest layer of our language is Latin. Long ago, the Romans spoke a language called Latin. Today Rome is only a city in Italy, but 2,000 years ago the Roman Empire covered most of Europe. Many of the languages spoken in Europe today were originally Latin-based, including Spanish, French, Portuguese, and Italian. The Romans ruled a big chunk of the world.

The Romans even invaded the Celtic people in England; only back then England was called Britton. Romans lived in Britton for about 500 years, until finally the Roman Empire fell apart. The Roman army pulled out of Britton and went back to Rome in the year 410. The Celtic people were glad to get their homeland back again. But their joy was not to last.

Very soon, new invaders attacked the Celts. The invaders were called the Angles and the Saxons. They spoke Anglo-Saxon, which is a Germanic language. The Anglo-Saxon invaders chased the unhappy Celts to Scotland and Ireland and Wales. The Germanic Anglo-Saxons settled in Britton. Their language was called Anglo-Saxon, but over the years its name changed to English. So, about 1,500 years ago, the English language was born. It was a German language, spoken by the Anglo-Saxons.

There was no rest for the Anglo-Saxons in Britton. For more than 100 long years the Vikings attacked, sailing right up to London in their sleek and swift ships. The Vikings, from Norway, also spoke a form of German. Finally, the Vikings settled in England and married the Anglo-Saxons. So, by the year 1000 (1,000 years ago) everyone in England, Vikings and Anglo-Saxons, were speaking one kind of German or another! The English language was, at birth, almost totally German. Most of those early German words have died or become extinct. Today, only about 20 percent of those German words are left in our language: *live*, *love*, and *laugh* are all Germanic words from the days of the Anglo-Saxons.

Then the Roman Catholic Church sent missionaries to England. The priests spoke Latin. Remember, the Roman Empire had ended, but the Roman language (Latin) continued. Latin was used by the church. Soon, Latin religious words began to mix with the German words in our language: *verse*, *priest*, *commandment*. Words that were borrowed from the long-gone Greeks also joined our language: *school*, *chorus*, *psalm*.

Then, in 1066, England was invaded by people who spoke French. For more than 100 years, the invaders insisted that the English people speak French (not German). French is a Latin-based language. So, thousands of French and Latin words joined the English language.

About 60 percent of the words in the English language are from Latin or French. The word *parliament* comes from the French word *parlez*, which means "to talk". *Parlez vous Francais?* The word *unique* is French. Do you see the prefix *uni-* at the beginning? *Uni-* is Latin for "one". So, if something is unique, it is the only one of its kind.

French was mainly the language used in the courts and government, in London. It was spoken by people who were rich and well-educated. The more common people (the servants and the serfs) spoke Anglo-Saxon Germanic English. So today we use a lot of Anglo-Saxon words for common everyday things. Words like *shoe* and *house* come from the old Anglo-Saxon English. We got a lot of "fancy" words from the French—words like *chandelier* and *ballet*. From Latin, we get textbook words like *subterranean*, *investigation*, and *prediction*. We can tell that a word is Latin because it usually has a prefix and/or a suffix, and a root.

So, you see, English is like a mixing bowl full of words that came from Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Greek, French, and many other languages. We borrow words constantly. Words like *taco*, *rodeo*, and *bronco* come from Spanish. The words *orange* and *algebra* are Arabic.

These words borrowed from other languages give English a very big vocabulary, so we can choose from many words to communicate. But so many language layers are confusing. That is why it is so hard to read and spell a lot of English words.

The good news is that we can learn some of the words and word parts that came from Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek. This will help us understand a lot more about English.

Word Part Clue Evaluation Chart

WORD	No Prefix and Root Word	Prefix and Root Word	Prefix + Root = Meaning	Prefix + Root ≠ Meaning

Adapted with permission from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence. Reproduction of this material is prohibited without permission from the publisher.*

Common Prefixes			
PREFIX	% of All Prefixed Words	MEANING	EXAMPLES
Un-	26	Not, opposite of	unaware, unbelievable, unsure
Re-	14	Again	redo, replay
Im-, in-, il-, ir-	11	Not	impossible, incapable, illogical, irregular
Dis-	7	Not, opposite of	dishonest, disgraceful, discover
En-, em-	4	Cause to	enable, emblaze
Non-	4	Not	nonstick, nonfiction, nonexistent
In-, im-	3	In, into	inject
Over-	3	Too much	overtime, overeat
Mis-	3	Wrongly	misunderstand, misuse
Sub-	3	Under	subsurface, subway
Pre-	3	Before	prepay, preschool
Inter-	3	Between	international, interact
Fore-	3	Before	forethought
De-	2	Opposite of	decaffeinated, dehydrate
Trans-	2	Across	transatlantic
Super-	1	Above	superhero, supermodel
Semi-	1	Half	semiannual, semicolon
Anti-	1	Against	antiwar, antisocial
Mid-	1	Middle	midyear, midnight
Under-	1	Too little	underweight, underpaid
All others	3		

Top 20 prefixes from Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richman, B. (1971). The American heritage world frequency book. *Boston: Houghton Mifflin; as cited in White, Sowell, & Yanagihara, 1989.*

Common Suffixes			
SUFFIX	% OF ALL SUFFIXED WORDS	PART OF SPEECH	EXAMPLES
-s, -es	31	Plural of noun	cats, boxes
-ed	20	Past tense of verb	sailed
-ing	14	Progressive tense of verb	jumping, racing
-ly	7	Usually an adverb; sometimes an adjective	slowly, lovely
-er, -or (agent)	4	Noun (agent)	runner, professor
-ion, -tion, -ation, -ition	4	Noun	action, transition, vacation
-able, -ible	2	Adjective	lovable, incredible
-al, -ial	1	Adjective	global, logical, partial
-y	1	Adjective	funny
-ness	1	Abstract noun	kindness
-ity, -ty	1	Noun	activity
-ment	1	Noun	merriment
-ic	1	Adjective	historic
-ous, -eous, -ious	1	Adjective	hideous, spacious
-en	1	Verb	quicken, thicken
-er (comparative)	1	Adjective	bigger
-ive, -ative, -tive	1	Adjective	alternative, pensive
-ful	1	Adjective	wonderful
-less	1	Adjective	effortless
-est	1	Adjective	strongest
All others	7		

Top 20 suffixes from Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richman, B. (1971). The American heritage world frequency book. *Boston: Houghton Mifflin; as cited in White, Sowell, & Yanagihara, 1989.*

Common Greek and Latin Roots

ROOT	ORIGIN	MEANING	EXAMPLES
aud	Latin	Hear	Auditorium, audition, audience, audible, audiovisual
astro	Greek	Star	Astronaut, astronomy, asterisk, asteroid, astrology
bio	Greek	Life	Biology, biography, biochemistry
cept	Latin	Take	Intercept, accept, reception
dict	Latin	Speak or tell	Dictation, dictate, predict, contradict, dictator
duct	Latin	Lead	Conduct, induct
geo	Greek	Earth	Geography, geology, geometry, geophysics
graph	Greek	Write	Autograph, biography, photograph
ject	Latin	Throw	Eject, reject, projectile, inject
meter	Greek	Measure	Thermometer, barometer, centimeter, diameter
min	Latin	Little or small	Miniature, minimum, minimal
mit or mis	Latin	Send	Mission, transmit, missile, dismiss, submit
ped	Latin	Foot	Pedal, pedestal, pedestrian
phon	Greek	Sound	Telephone, symphony, microphone, phonics, phoneme, phonograph
port	Latin	Carry	Transport, portable, import, export, porter
rupt	Latin	Break	Disrupt, erupt, rupture, interrupt, bankrupt
scrib or script	Latin	Write	Scribble, scribe, inscribe, describe, prescribe
spect	Latin	See	Inspect, suspect, respect, spectacle, spectator
struct	Latin	Build or form	Construct, destruct, instruct, structure
tele	Greek	From afar	Telephone, telegraph, teleport
tract	Latin	Pull	Traction, tractor, attract, subtract, extract
vers	Latin	Turn	Reverse, inverse

Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence; Ebbers, S. (2005).* Language links to Latin, Greek, and Anglo-Saxon: Increasing spelling, word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension through roots and affixes. *Presented at The University of Texas, Austin, TX; and Stahl, S., & Kapinus, B. (2001).* Word power: What every educator needs to know about teaching vocabulary. *Washington, DC: National Education Association.*

1. Reread the sentence that contains the unknown word. Be on the lookout for signal words or punctuation.
2. Reread the sentences before and after the sentence that contains the unknown word.
3. Based on the clues, try to figure out the meaning of the word.
4. Insert your meaning in the original sentence to see whether it makes sense.

Based on Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

Types of Context Clues

TYPE OF CONTEXT CLUE	WHAT TO LOOK FOR	SIGNAL WORDS	SAMPLE SENTENCE
Definition	A definition in the sentence	*Is*, *are, is called*, *means*, *or* Signal punctuation: Set off by commas	Brick made of sun-dried clay *is called* **adobe**. The Native Americans used **adobe***, or* bricks made of sun-dried clay, to build their homes.
Synonym	A word with a similar meaning to the unknown word	*Also*, *as*, *like*, *same*, *similarly*, *too*	The Zuni built their homes with brick made of sun-dried clay. The Hopi *also* used **adobe** to build their homes.
Antonym	A word or phrase with the opposite meaning of the unknown word	*But*, *however*, *in contrast*, *on the other hand*, *though*, *unlike*	The Hopi lived in single-family houses, *but* the Iroquois lived in **longhouses**.
Example	Several examples in a list	*Such as*, *for example*, *for instance*, *like*, *including*	The Pueblo people grew many **crops** *such as* corn, beans, and squash.
General	General or inexact clues		After 1700, the Pueblos got sheep from the Spanish, and wool replaced cotton as the most important **textile**.

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.*

Guide for Context Clues Practice

Unfamiliar Word	Signal Word or Punctuation	TYPE OF CONTEXT CLUE Definition, Synonym, Antonym, Example, or General	My Definition

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Adapted from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

The Vocabulary Strategy

If you read a word that you do not understand:

1. Look for CONTEXT CLUES. Reread the sentence and the surrounding sentences.
2. Can you break the WORD into PARTS? (If not, go to Step 3.)
    a. Is there a PREFIX? What does it mean?
    b. Is there a SUFFIX? What does it mean?
    c. Is there a ROOT WORD? What does it mean?
    d. Put the meaning of the word parts together. What is the meaning of the whole word?
3. GUESS what the word means.
4. INSERT your meaning into the original sentence to see whether it makes sense.
5. If needed, use the DICTIONARY to confirm your meaning.

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Adapted with permission from Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.* *Reproduction of this material is prohibited without permission.*

Vocabulary Strategy Worksheet

Word ______________________________

Context Sentence ____

____

1. Look for context clues.

   a. Reread the sentence, looking for signal words and punctuation.

Signal Words and Punctuation:

   b. Reread the sentences before and after the sentence with the word in it.

Context Clues:

2. Look for word parts you know. Tell what each word part means.

Prefix:

Suffix:

Root:

Put the parts together. What does this mean?

3. What do you think the word means? ____

____

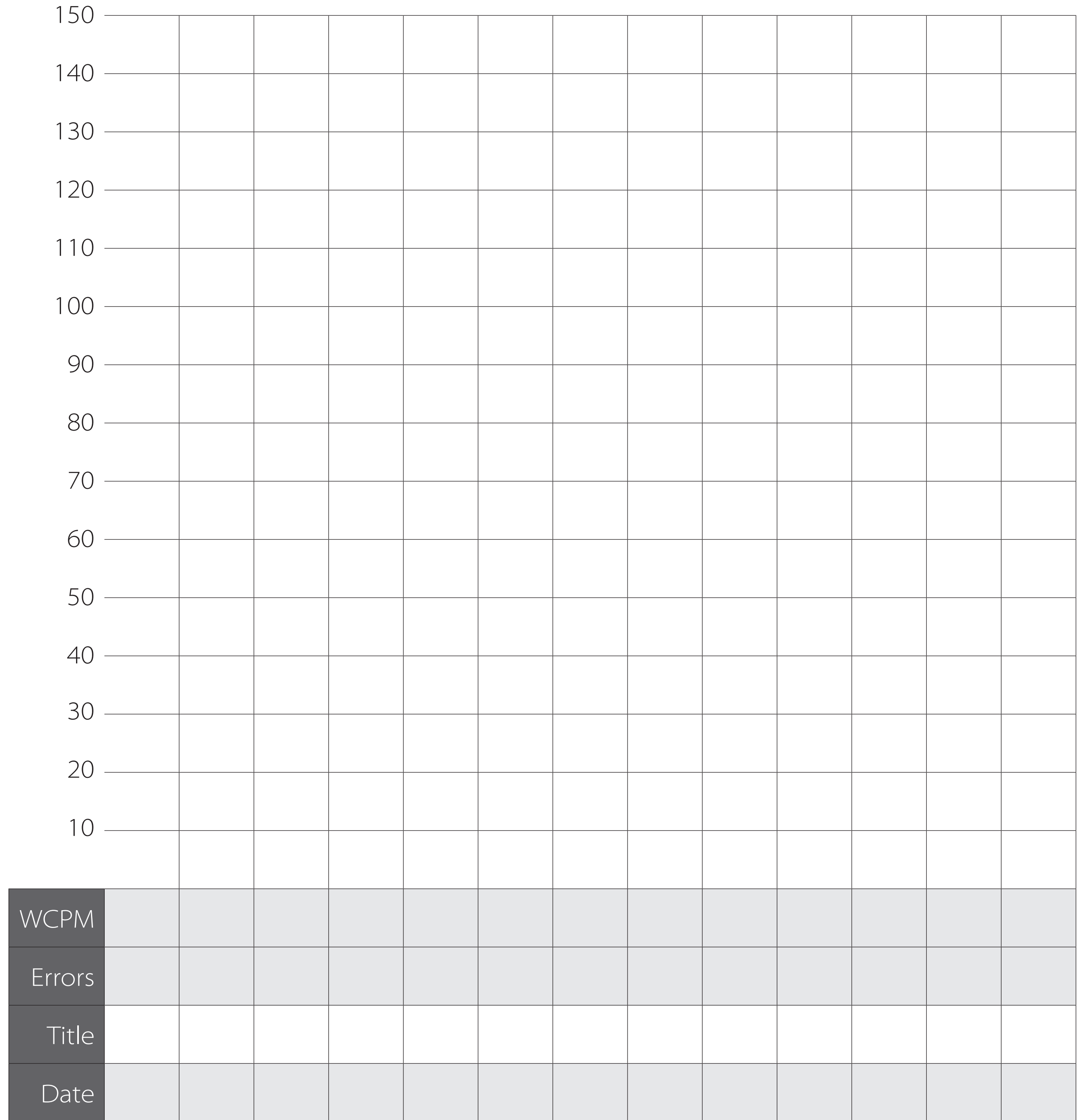
4. Try your meaning in the context sentence. Does it make sense? _______________

5. Check the word with a dictionary if you need to. Remember that many words have more than one meaning, so look for the one that goes with the sentence in the book. Were you right? _________

Based on Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice. *Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; and Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006).* Vocabulary handbook. *Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence.*

Fluency Chart

Name:



Syllable Type	Examples	
Closed	**pic-nic**	**ab-sent**
Open	**ve-to**	**a**-pron
Silent *e*	de-**bate**	**base**-ball
Vowel team	re-**frain**	car-**toon**
Vowel-*r*	en-**ter**	**or**-phan
Consonant -*le*	bot-**tle**	bea-**gle**
Other	gar-**bage**	fur-**ni-ture**

Multisyllable Word Reading Strategy
1. Find the vowels.
2. Look for word parts you know.
3. Read each word part.
4. Read the parts quickly.
5. Make it sound like a real word.

Adapted with permission from Archer, A. L., Gleason, M. M., & Vachon, V. (2005a). REWARDS: Multisyllabic word reading strategies. *Longmont, CO: Sopris West.*

Guidelines for Reviewing a Reading Program

Introduction

This document was developed to assist the Curriculum and Instruction Team at the Florida Center for Reading Research (FCRR) as they review reading programs for grades 4–12 to determine alignment with current reading research.

Process of Using Guidelines

When reviewing a reading program thoroughly, it is not sufficient to examine only a sample of lessons. In order to determine whether a program is aligned with current reading research, it is essential to review all the teacher and student materials. This document was developed to help navigate a reviewer through the lengthy but important process of reviewing a reading program. It was designed to be utilized in conjunction with the resources listed below. When using this document, place a check mark in either the yes or no column after each question. If the answer is not clear or not evident, write "not evident" in the comments column and leave the yes/no columns blank. It is very important to use the comments column to detail specific examples, note questions, etc. When a question is marked "no" or "not evident," it is a concern that the program may not be aligned with current reading research. That is, if a reading program is aligned with current reading research, then "yes" will be marked on all of the questions with evidence to support this assertion written in the comments column.

Note that this document includes the sequence of instruction from 4th through 12th grade.

It is expected that a comprehensive reading program will incorporate the five components of reading identified by the National Reading Panel (phonological/phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension) and reflect the elements of instructional design.

The following resources on the FCRR Web site (www.fcrr.org) will assist educators who use this tool to guide their review of a reading program:

- Glossary of Reading Terms (boldface words in the Guidelines are in the Glossary).
- Continuum of Phonological Awareness Skills.
- Continuum of Word Types.
- FCRR Reports (reviews of reading programs already posted).
- References and Resources for Review of Reading Programs.

The guidelines begin on the next page.

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Overall Instructional Design and Pedagogy of the Reading Program			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there a clear “road map” or “blueprint” for teachers to get an overall picture of the program (e.g., scope and sequence)?			
Are goals and objectives clearly stated?			
Are there resources available to help the teacher understand the rationale for the instructional approach and strategies utilized in the program (e.g., articles, references, and reliable Web sites)?			
Is instruction consistently explicit?			
Is instruction consistently systematic?			
Is there a coherent instructional design (e.g., are the components of reading clearly linked within as well as across each component)?			
Are there consistent “teacher-friendly” instructional routines that include direct instruction, modeling, guided practice, student practice and application with feedback, and generalization?			
Are there aligned student materials?			
Does the difficulty of the text increase as students’ skills strengthen?			
Are there ample guided student practice opportunities, including multiple opportunities for explicit teaching and teacher directed feedback, (15 or more) needed for struggling readers?			
Are all of the activities (e.g., centers) reading related (i.e., word-building, fluency practice)?			
Are teachers encouraged to give immediate corrective feedback?			
Is scaffolding a prominent part of the lessons?			
Are there specific instructions for scaffolding?			
Is differentiated instruction prominent?			
Is instruction individualized based on assessment?			
Are there guidelines and materials for flexible grouping?			
Is small-group instruction with (small teacher-pupil ratio) part of daily instruction?			
Is movement from group to group based on student progress?			
Are enrichment activities included for advancing/proceeding students?			
In addition to the components of reading, are the dimensions of spelling, writing, oral language, motivation/engagement and listening comprehension addressed?			

(continued on the next page)

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Word Analysis (WA) Instruction/Word Study Phonological analysis, decoding, structural analysis, syllabication, context clues, spelling, & dictionary skills			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Overall, does instruction progress from easier word analysis activities to more difficult?			
Is word analysis only a small portion of each lesson (10 to 20 minutes)?			
Does the program emphasize the use of grade-appropriate dictionaries and student-friendly explanations?			
Is there explicit instruction in the use and weaknesses of context clues to determine word meaning?			
Is explicit instruction in the meaning of roots and affixes provided and are there activities for students to manipulate common roots and affixes to analyze the relationship of spelling to meaning of complex words?			
Are word parts that occur with high frequency (such as un, re, and in) introduced over those that occur in only a few words?			
Are the limitations of structural analysis made clear?			
Are there activities for distinguishing and interpreting words with multiple meanings?			
Does the program include word origins, derivations, synonyms, antonyms, and idioms to determine the meaning of words and phrases?			
Are words used in word analysis activities also found in the student text?			
Once word analysis strategies have been mastered, are these strategies immediately applied to reading and interpreting familiar decodable connected text?			
Is there ample unfamiliar decodable text to provide practice with word analysis strategies?			
Are there ample opportunities to read multisyllabic words daily?			
Is there a section of the program devoted to word study?			
Does the program include spelling strategies (e.g., word sorts, categorization activities, word-building activities, analogical reasoning activities)?			

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Fluency Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is fluency building a part of each day's lesson?			
Does fluency-based instruction focus on developing accuracy, rate, and prosody?			
Do fluency-building routines include goal setting to measure and increase word-level fluency instruction and practice, reading accuracy and passage reading rate, teacher or peer feedback, and timed readings?			
Is fluency assessed regularly?			
Is there a fluency goal for each set of grade levels (e.g., 4-5 [113-127 wpm], 6-8 [140-142 wpm])? (Based on Hasbrouk and Tindal's end-of-the-year oral reading fluency scores at the 40th percentile.)			
Are ample practice materials and opportunities at appropriate reading levels (independent and/or instructional) provided?			
Are there opportunities to read narrative and expository text aloud?			
Are research-based fluency strategies included (e.g., repeated reading, peer reading, tape-assisted reading, choral reading, student-adult reading)?			

Vocabulary Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there a component that incorporates reading and writing vocabulary?			
Is systematic and explicit instruction in morphemic analysis provided to support building word meaning through knowledge of root words, prefixes, and suffixes?			
Is high-level terminology used to bring richness of language to the classroom?			
Are there ample activities provided to practice writing vocabulary in context?			
Are there opportunities for wide, independent reading?			
Is there repeated exposure to vocabulary in many contexts?			

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Vocabulary Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there frequent use of teacher read-alouds using engaging books with embedded explanation and instruction?			
Is diverse vocabulary through listening and reading stories and informational text provided?			
Are a limited number of words selected for robust, explicit vocabulary instruction?			
Do sources of vocabulary instruction include words from read-aloud stories, words from core reading programs, words from reading intervention programs, and words from content area instruction?			
Are only important (words students must know to understand a concept or text), useful (words that may be encountered many times), and difficult (multiple meanings, idioms) words taught?			
Are vocabulary words reviewed cumulatively? For example, are words selected for instruction that are unknown, critical to passage understanding, and likely to be encountered in the future?			
Are ample opportunities to engage in oral vocabulary activities provided?			
Are student-friendly explanations as well as dictionary definitions used?			
Are word-learning strategies taught?			
Does the instructional routine for vocabulary include: introducing the word, presenting a student-friendly explanation, illustrating the word with examples, and checking the students' understanding?			
Are ample opportunities to use word-learning strategies provided?			
Is word awareness introduced through the use of word walls; vocabulary logs; and practice activities that are engaging, provide multiple exposures, encourage deep processing, and connect word meaning to prior knowledge?			
Is vocabulary taught both directly and indirectly?			
Are rich contexts for vocabulary learning provided?			
Are repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items prevalent?			
Are vocabulary tasks restructured when necessary?			
Is computer technology used to help teach vocabulary?			

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Comprehension Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is comprehension monitoring taught?			
Is the use of multiple strategies prevalent?			
Are cooperative learning groups part of instruction?			
Are frequent opportunities to answer and generate questions provided?			
Are graphic and semantic organizers, including story maps, used?			
Are there ample opportunities to engage in discussions relating to the meaning of text?			
Are there ample opportunities to read narrative and expository text on independent and instructional levels?			
Is explicit instruction in different text structures included?			
Are before-, during- and after-reading comprehension strategies emphasized?			
Is prior knowledge activated before reading?			
Are ample opportunities provided to generate questions during reading to improve engagement with and processing of text?			
Are there ample opportunities to employ a conceptual understanding of beginning, middle, and end in narrative text?			
Is learning to determine which strategy to use and why (metacognition) part of instruction?			
Are connections made between previously learned strategies and new text?			
Are strategies applied for authentic purposes using appropriate text?			
Is there an emphasis on creating independent strategic learners?			
Is strategy instruction cumulative over the course of the year?			
Are there frequent opportunities to discuss story elements and compare stories?			
Are elements of story grammar (setting, characters, important events, etc.) used for retelling a story?			
Are summarization strategies taught?			
Are opportunities provided to interpret information from charts, graphs, tables, and diagrams and connect it to text?			
Does text contain familiar concepts and vocabulary?			
Are main idea strategies previously taught (e.g., using pictures, then individual sentence, then paragraphs, etc.)?			

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Comprehension Instruction			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Are ample opportunities to employ main idea strategies using more complex texts, where the main idea is not explicit, provided?			

Listening Comprehension			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there an element of the program that requires students to follow specific oral directions in order to perform or complete written activities?			
Are ample opportunities to utilize listening comprehension strategies provided?			
Are there ample opportunities to listen to a variety of text structures?			
Are there ample opportunities to use reflective (describing feelings/emotions that accompany what is said instead of information given) and responsive (e.g., repeating, paraphrasing, summarizing, questioning for elaboration and/or clarification) listening skills to make connections and build on ideas of the author?			

Motivation and Engagement			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there a component of the program that fosters intrinsic motivation in students (e.g., student selection of books, various genres of book titles, multicultural/international book titles)?			
Are there clear content goals for supporting intrinsic reading motivation?			
Is there a component of the program that fosters extrinsic motivation in students (e.g., external recognition, rewards, or incentives)?			
Are there ample opportunities for students to engage in group activities (social motivation)?			
Are there personal learning goals provided for reading tasks?			
Are students given immediate feedback on reading progress?			

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Assessment			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is rigorous assessment included in the program?			
Is formative evaluation included?			
Are the assessment instruments reliable and valid?			
Do the assessments measure progress in word analysis, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension?			
Do the assessments identify students who are at risk or already experiencing difficultly learning to read?			
Does assessment aid teachers in making individualized instruction decisions?			
Does the program provide teacher guidance in response to assessment results?			

Professional Development for the Reading Program			
Characteristic	Yes	No	Comments (e.g., specific examples, strengths, concerns, questions)
Is there adequate time offered for teachers to learn new concepts and practice what they have learned (before implementation)?			
Is there a plan for coaches, mentors, peers, or outside experts to provide feedback to teachers and follow up assistance as they put new concepts into practice?			
Are teachers taught how to administer and interpret assessments that accompany the program?			
Is PD for the program customized to meet the varying needs of the participants (e.g., first-year teachers, coaches, principals)?			
Does the PD provide support (e.g., principal checklists, follow-up in class modeling, a video/CD for teachers to view modeled lessons, printed teaching charts, graphs, transparencies) to facilitate application of content?			

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White, T. G., Power, M. A., & White, S. (1989). Morphological analysis: Implications for teaching and understanding vocabulary growth. *Reading Research Quarterly, 24*, 283–304.

White, T. G., Sowell, J., & Yanagihara, A. (1989). Teaching elementary students to use word-part clues. *The Reading Teacher, 42*, 302–307.

Wiley, H. I., & Deno, S. L. (2005). Oral reading and maze measures as predictors of success for English learners on a state standards assessment. *Remedial and Special Education, 26,* 207-214.

Williamson, G. L. (2006, April). *Student readiness for postsecondary endeavors*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Wood, K. D., & Harmon, J. M. (2001). *Strategies for integrating reading and writing in middle and high school classrooms*. Westerville, OH: National Middle School Association.

Worthy, J., & Broaddus, K. (2002). Fluency beyond the primary grades: From group performance to silent independent reading. *Reading Teacher, 55*, 334–343.

Yates, E. (1950). *Amos Fortune, free man*. New York: Aladdin Books.

Resources for the Reading Teacher

NOTE: The following lists of assessments, books, and Web sites are provided as examples to the reader. These items are not endorsed by the authors of this book nor their sponsors. The list is not exhaustive, and many measures and materials that may be very useful to the reader may be missing from this list. The reader is urged to investigate several sources before selecting any materials.

SCREENING MEASURES

AIMSweb assessment system (oral reading fluency and maze tests). Information available at http://www.edformation.com/aimsweb.htm, info@edformation.com, 1-888-944-1882, or 320-245-2401.

Good, R. H., & Kaminski, R. (2003). *Dynamic indicators of basic early literacy skills* (6th ed.). Longmont, CO: Sopris West. Information available at http://www.sopriswest.com or http://dibels.uoregon.edu

Hammill, D. D., Wiederholt, J., & Allen, E. A. (2006). *Test of silent contextual reading fluency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Mather, N., Hammill, D. D., Allen, E. A., & Roberts, R. (2004). *Test of silent word reading fluency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Reading fluency monitor. (2003). St. Paul, MN: Read Naturally. Information available at http://www.readnaturally.com

Torgesen, J. K., Wagner, R., & Rashotte, C. A. (1999). *Test of word reading efficiency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

DIAGNOSTIC MEASURES

Phonics/Decoding & Spelling

Assessing reading: Multiple measures for kindergarten through eighth grade. Consortium on Reading Excellence. Information available at http://www.corelearn.com or 888-249-6155.

Cunningham, P. M. (1990). Names test: A quick assessment of decoding ability. *Reading Teacher, 44*, 124–129.

Duffelmeyer, F. A., Kruse, A. E., Merkley, D. J., & Fyfe, S. A. (1994). Further validation and enhancement of the names test. *Reading Teacher, 48*, 118–128.

Hasbrouck, J. E. (2006). *Quick phonics screener* (QPS). St. Paul, MN: Read Naturally. Information available at http://www.readnaturally.com or 1-800-788-4085.

Roswell-Chall diagnostic reading test of word analysis skills. Cambridge, MA: Educators Publishing Service. Information available at http://www.epsbooks.com or 1-800-225-5750.

Fluency

AIMSweb assessment system (oral reading fluency and maze tests). Information available at http://www.edformation.com/aimsweb.htm, info@edformation.com, 888-944-1882, or 320-245-2401.

Good, R. H., & Kaminski, R. (2003). *Dynamic indicators of basic early literacy skills* (6th ed.; K–6). Longmont, CO: Sopris West. Information available at http://dibels.uoregon.edu

Hammill, D. D., Wiederholt, J., Allen, E. A. (2006). *Test of silent contextual reading fluency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Mather, N., Hammill, D. D., Allen, E. A., & Roberts, R. (2004). *Test of silent word reading fluency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Reading fluency monitor. (2003). St. Paul, MN: Read Naturally. Information available at http://www.readnaturally.com

Torgesen, J. K., Wagner, R., & Rashotte, C. A. (1999). *Test of word reading efficiency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Comprehension

Assessing reading: Multiple measures for kindergarten through eighth grade. Consortium on Reading Excellence. Information available at http://www.corelearn.com or 888-249-6155.

Burns, P. C., & Roe, B. D. (2002). *Informal reading inventory preprimer to 12th grade* (6th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Leslie, L., & Caldwell, J. (2002). *Qualitative reading inventory* (QRI-3; 3rd ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Woods, M. L., & Moe, A. J. (2002). *Analytical reading inventory* (7th ed.) Prentice Hall.

Progress Monitoring Measures

AIMSweb assessment system (oral reading fluency and maze tests). Information available at http://www.edformation.com/aimsweb.htm, info@edformation.com, 888-944-1882, or 320-245-2401.

Fuchs, L., Hamlett, C., & Fuchs, D. *Monitoring basic skills progress* (computer tool for progress monitoring in reading and math). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed. Information available at http://www.proedinc.com or 800-897-3202.

Good, R. H., & Kaminski, R. (2003). *Dynamic indicators of basic early literacy skills* (6th ed.; K–6). Longmont, CO: Sopris West. Information available at http://dibels.uoregon.edu

Hammill, D. D., Wiederholt, J., Allen, E. A. (2006). *Test of silent contextual reading fluency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Mather, N., Hammill, D. D., Allen, E. A., & Roberts, R. (2004). *Test of silent word reading fluency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Pearson PASeries (grades 3–12). Pearson Education. Information available at http://paseries.com

Reading fluency monitor. (2003). St. Paul, MN: Read Naturally. Information available at http://www.readnaturally.com

Torgesen, J. K., Wagner, R., & Rashotte, C. A. (1999). *Test of word reading efficiency*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

BOOKS

Baumann, J. F., & Kame'enui, E. J. (2003). *Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice*. New York: Guilford.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2002). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction*. New York: Guilford.

Block, C. C., & Pressley, M. (Eds.). (2002). *Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices*. New York: Guilford.

Carnine, D., Silbert, J., & Kameenui, E. J. (2004). *Direct instruction reading* (4th ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill.

CORE reading research anthology: The why? of reading instruction. Consortium on Reading Excellence. Information available at http://www.corelearn.com 888-249-6155.

CORE teaching reading sourcebook: For kindergarten through eighth grade. Consortium on Reading Excellence. Information available at http://www.corelearn.com or 888-249-6155.

Curtis, M. E., & Longo, A. M. (1999). *When adolescents can't read.* Cambridge, MA: Brookline.

Deshler, D. D., & Schumaker, J. B. (2006). *Teaching adolescents with disabilities*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Fletcher, J. M., Lyon, G. R., Fuchs, L. S., & Barnes, M. A. (2007). *Learning disabilities: From identification to intervention*. New York: Guilford.

Fry, E. B., Kress, J. E., & Foutoukidis, D. L. (2000). *The reading teacher's book of lists* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Graham, S., & Harris, K. (2005). *Effective strategies for teaching students with learning difficulties*. Baltimore: Brookes.

Hall, S. L., & Moats, L. C. (1999). *Straight talk about reading*. Lincolnwood, IL: Contemporary Books.

Heimlich, J. E., & Pittleman, S. D. (1986). *Semantic mapping: Classroom applications*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Idol, L., Nevin, A., & Paolucci-Whitcomb, P. (1999). *Models of curriculum-based assessment* (3rd ed.). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

International Dyslexia Association. *Research-based education and intervention: What we need to know*. Baltimore: Author.

Jetton, T. L., & Dole, J. A. (Eds.). (2004). *Adolescent literacy research and practice*. New York: Guilford.

McCardle, P., & Chhabra, V. (Eds.). (2004). *The voice of evidence in reading research*. Baltimore: Brookes.

McEwan, E. K. (1998). *The principal's guide to raising reading achievement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

McEwan, E. K. (2001). *Raising reading achievement in middle and high schools*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Moats, L. C. (2000). *Speech to print*. New York: Brooks.

Pressley, M. (1998). *Reading instruction that works*. New York: Guilford.

Shaywitz, S. (2004). *Overcoming dyslexia*. New York: Alfred Knopf.

Shinn, M. R. (Ed.). (1989). *Curriculum-based measurement: Assessing special children*. New York: Guilford.

Simmons, D. C., & Kameenui, E. J. (1998). *What reading research tells us about children with diverse learning needs: Bases and basics*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Sprick, R., Sprick, M., & Garrison, M. (1993). *Interventions: Collaborative planning for students at risk*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Stahl, S. A. (1999). *Vocabulary development*. Newton Upper Falls, MA: Brookline Books.

Sturtevant, E. G., Boyd, F. B, Brozo, W. G., Hinchman, K. A., Moore, D. W., & Alvermann, D. E. (2006). *Principled practices for adolescent literacy: A framework for instruction and policy*. Mawah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sweet, A. P., & Snow, C. E. (Eds.). (2003). *Rethinking reading comprehension*. New York: Guilford.

WEB SITES

Center for Academic and Reading Skills (CARS) at the University of Texas Health Science Center Houston: http://cars.uth.tmc.edu

Center for Applied Linguistics: http://www.cal.org

Center on Instruction (collection of scientifically based research and information on K–12 instruction in reading, math, science, special education, and English language learning): http://www.centeroninstruction.org

National Center on Student Progress Monitoring (evaluations of progress monitoring assessments): http://www.studentprogress.org

Florida Center for Reading Research (descriptions and evaluations of programs): http://www.fcrr.org

International Reading Association: http://www.reading.org

National Reading Panel: http://www.nationalreadingpanel.org

Reading Next: A Vision for Action and Research in Middle and High School Literacy, a report to Carnegie Corp. of New York: http://www.all4ed.org/publications/ReadingNext/ReadingNext.pdf

Teaching LD Current Practice Alerts: http://www.dldcec.org/ld_resources/alerts

U.S. Department of Education's No Child Left Behind homepage: http://www.ed.gov/nclb/landing.jhtml

Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin: http://www.texasreading.org

What Works Clearinghouse (evaluations of the effectiveness of interventions): http://www.whatworks.ed.gov

Writing Next: Effective Strategies to Improve Writing of Adolescents in Middle and High School: http://www.all4ed.org/publications/WritingNext/index.html