Chapter 8

Assessing and Teaching Reading: Fluency and Comprehension

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Learning Outcomes

8.1 Describe the key components of the Common Core State Standards and other progressive state standards as they relate to reading fluency and comprehension. Describe the anchor standards and how they relate to reading for understanding.

8.2 Identify assessments that can be used for monitoring students' fluency, and briefly describe procedures for using and interpreting the data. Then list ways in which fluency data assist teachers in monitoring students' progress. Describe two or more approaches to improving fluency with students with reading difficulties.

8.3 Describe the assessment and instructional components needed in a reading comprehension program.

8.4 Describe reading comprehension, including several teaching practices associated with improved comprehension.

Jeff is a second grader who continues to sound out many words. He does not yet have automatic word recognition; consequently, his reading is very slow. Because Jeff uses so much of his cognitive effort reading each word, he has little remaining to concentrate on understanding what he reads.

Shoshanna, a fourth grader, had great difficulty learning to read. After several years of failure, she was taught using a multisensory structured language approach and her word reading improved. However, Shoshanna's reading rate is slow, which interferes with her understanding. When asked to define reading, she places emphasis on reading words correctly rather than on understanding what she reads. Though Jeff and Shoshanna have developed systems for identifying words, they are having difficulties reading fluently—that is, quickly and easily with accuracy and expression.

Why is poor fluency performance a problem? Research indicates that students with significant reading disabilities have difficulty developing fluency and continue to be slow readers into adolescence and adulthood (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002; Kim, Petscher, & Foorman, 2015). Students who are slow and labored readers (low fluency) may benefit from fluency instruction aimed at improving their automatic word recognition and practices focused on assisting them in allocating more effort to constructing meaning from what they are reading.

This chapter addresses the reading-related constructs of fluency and comprehension for students with reading problems. One key to becoming a good reader is to engage in reading for learning and enjoyment. Yet students with reading difficulties often do not have as many opportunities to engage in reading during school and do not choose reading as a leisure-time activity. Thus, one of the critical ways in which we become better readers—practice—is missing for students with reading difficulties who most need time to read with feedback. Fluency practices provide one pathway to improving practice time with feedback.

Teachers can assist students in becoming fluent readers and provide them with a wide choice of materials to read and discuss so that reading becomes a source of learning, enjoyment, and satisfaction. To reach this goal, it is important to plan instruction that focuses on strategies for building fluency and promoting active reading comprehension as presented in this chapter. Before discussing these necessary assessment and instructional practices, it is important to link this work to the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). While the CCSS are not used in every state, even those states that have designed their own standards have progressive standards that are well aligned with those in the CCSS.

Common Core State Standards: Fluency and Comprehension

The Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science and Technical Subjects (Common Core State Standards; **http://www.corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy**) outlines the essential literacy skills students should develop at each grade level, K–12. We refer to them as the CCSS. Figure 8.1 provides the list of CCSS that relate to fluency and comprehension instruction and also provides guidelines for teaching the CCSS for students with learning and behavior problems. Although we refer to the CCSS, we realize that several states use their own progressive standards, which are highly aligned with the focus goals of the CCSS.

The CCSS specify that all students will read increasingly difficult and challenging texts at each grade level until they are ready by the end of high school to meet the demands of reading within college and career settings. The course for this is to increase and build on previous grade-level accomplishments seamlessly across K–12 grades. The readings and materials for accomplishing this goal are not prescribed; however, sample texts are available to inform educators in selecting reading materials for their own curriculum. An important feature of the CCSS is the increased exposure to informational text; it is expected that by fourth grade 50% of the selections students read are expository or information texts.

Within CCSS, several strands weave throughout the grades. These are *key ideas and details, craft and structure, integration of knowledge and ideas*, and *range of reading and level of text complexity*. A brief summary of each of these strands follows with implications for teaching students with learning disabilities (Haager & Vaughn, 2013). Even if you are teaching in a state that has its own standards, the organizational framework and content of the CCSS likely overlap considerably with those in your state.

Students demonstrate that they understand and can express the *key ideas* in text (e.g., about characters, events, or themes). For very beginning readers (kindergarten), an example is that they can ask and answer questions about key text ideas when prompted by the teacher. For students in grade 2, the expectation is that they can demonstrate an understanding of the *key ideas and details* of text by both asking and answering various question types (e.g., who, what, when, where, why, how). As students proceed with reading development, the expectations for understanding key

Figure 8.1 Anchor Standards (CCSS) for Reading, Listening, and Speaking

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Anchor Standards for Reading

Key Ideas and Details

1. Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it; cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text.
2. Determine central ideas or themes of a text and analyze their development; summarize the key supporting details and ideas.
3. Analyze how and why individuals, events, and ideas develop and interact over the course of a text.

Craft and Structure

4. Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone.
5. Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole.
6. Assess how point of view or purpose shapes the content and style of a text.

Integration of Knowledge and Ideas

7. Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words.
8. Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, including the validity of the reasoning as well as the relevance and sufficiency of the evidence.
9. Analyze how two or more texts address similar themes or topics in order to build knowledge or to compare the approaches the authors take.

Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity

10. Read and comprehend complex literary and informational texts independently and proficiently

Anchor Standards for Speaking and Listening

Comprehension and Collaboration

1. Prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others' ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively.
2. Integrate and evaluate information presented in diverse media and formats, including visually, quantitatively, and orally.
3. Evaluate a speaker's point of view, reasoning, and use of evidence and rhetoric.

Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas

4. Present information, findings, and supporting evidence such that listeners can follow the line of reasoning and the organization, development, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.
5. Make strategic use of digital media and visual displays of data to express information and enhance understanding of presentations.
6. Adapt speech to a variety of contexts and communicative tasks, demonstrating command of formal English when indicated or appropriate.

Anchor Standards for Language

Conventions of Standard English

1. Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.
2. Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English capitalization, punctuation, and spelling when writing.

Knowledge of Language

3. Apply knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening.

Vocabulary Acquisition and Use

4. Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases by using context clues, analyzing meaningful word parts, and consulting general and specialized reference materials, as appropriate.
5. Demonstrate understanding of figurative language, word relationships, and nuances in word meanings.
6. Acquire and use accurately a range of general academic and domain-specific words and phrases sufficient for reading, writing, speaking, and listening at the college and career readiness level; demonstrate independence in gathering vocabulary knowledge when encountering an unknown term important to comprehension or expression.

ideas and details expands and, by fourth grade, students are expected to refer to details and examples in text when explaining what text says explicitly and inferentially.

Craft and structure refers to acquiring proficiency in text types, interpretation of perspectives and character in text, and understanding of word meanings and use in text. For example, beginning students are expected to recognize common types of text (e.g., storybooks and poems). In second grade, they should be able to recognize differences in points of view of characters, including demonstrating voice change when reading the words of characters. By the time students are in fourth grade, they are expected to determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in text.

Integration of knowledge and ideas refers to making connections between key ideas across texts. For example, a beginning reader is expected to view an illustration in text and to determine how the illustration relates to the story, whereas a second grader is expected to identify the reasons an author gives for supporting points in text. Older students should be able to use multiple texts (starting with two text types) and compare and contrast the main ideas in each of these text types. As students advance to middle and high school, they are expected to use and document multiple sources, including multiple texts to summarize key ideas related to an issue.

Range of reading and level of text complexity refers to students' reading and understanding increasingly complex texts that address history, social studies, science, and technical topics at their grade level and beyond. For example, beginning readers should be able to read with purpose and understanding, whereas older students read texts, including information texts (e.g., history, social studies, science), at their grade level and above with support.

Because many students with learning disabilities and behavior disorders are likely to need support to read at their grade level, it is reasonable to expect that these students will require accommodations and intensive interventions.

All of the Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts and Literacy are available on the **Common Core website**.

Assessing Fluency and Monitoring Student Progress

What is reading fluency, and how is progress in fluency monitored? Fluency is the ability to read a text at an appropriate rate, accurately, and with expression (i.e., *prosody*). We often refer to *fluent readers* as individuals who read with automaticity. By *automaticity* we mean the quick, effortless, and accurate reading of words in text. It is important to note that although speed of reading is emphasized, we do not mean that students should race through what they read without enjoyment or without monitoring their understanding. We are referring to a rate of reading that occurs with little focus or emphasis on decoding individual words—thus, the ideal rate of reading at each grade level increases as students advance through the grades. This is because students become better at automatically reading a greater range of words, increasing their accuracy and speed as they advance through the grades. In addition to reading accurately and with appropriate speed, fluency also includes prosody, or reading with phrasing, expression, and in a way that communicates understanding. This aspect of prosody of reading is often overlooked and can be a meaningful way for teachers to determine if students understand what they read. Listen to a student who is reading the words aloud but with no variation in tone. These students are unlikely to be comprehending what they read while reading. However, students who vary their tone and expression while reading aloud are likely reading with comprehension.

Of all the elements of reading (e.g., phonemic awareness, phonics, word study, comprehension), fluency is the one is most readily assessed and monitored. That is because in relatively little time, teachers can determine whether students are making adequate progress in fluency and how their progress compares to that of other students in the same grade at that time of year. Fluency has three parts: rate of reading, accuracy of word reading, and prosody. We typically assess rate and accuracy of reading to determine progress in fluency because prosody is not a particularly strong predictor of reading fluency or comprehension, whereas rate and accuracy of word reading are very good predictors of fluency and comprehension (Y. S. Kim et al., 2010, 2011). Also, it is interesting that while silent and oral reading fluency are related they are distinct in that word reading fluency (reading a list of words rather than connected text) is a better predictor of comprehension for average rather than skilled readers (Y. S. Kim et al., 2011).

Remember that the goal of improving students' rate of reading is not that they merely read faster, but that they read with such automaticity that they can free up their thinking to understand and enjoy text. What does this automaticity idea mean? When students read with automaticity, they can read each work without "decoding" it or "pausing" to figure it out—this allows them to think more about the content of the reading and thus improves their reading comprehension. With the increased emphasis on oral reading fluency as a progress-monitoring measure has come the concern that some teachers may lose touch with the most important aspect of reading: reading to learn and enjoy text.

Monitoring Student Progress in Fluency

Fluency is most frequently measured by the number of words read correctly per minute (WCPM) and through observations of phrasing, smoothness, and pace. An important reference for teachers to know is the number of WCPM

in a specified grade-level passage. For example, Michael reads 50 words correct per minute in mid-first-grade-level passages. Because Michael is a third-grade student, his fluency indicates that he is considerably behind expectations both in the number of words he reads correctly and in the level of text he reads. Table 8.1 provides an overview of fluency norms and rates by grade level. The table also provides the number of words per minute by which students are expected to improve.

How do you interpret the information in Table 8.1? The first column tells you the grade-level expectation. The second column tells you the normative data at that particular percentile. For example, students in the 75th percentile in the "winter" of first grade read, on average, 47 words correct per minute. You can see that for students at the 25th percentile the average normative performance is consistently lower at each grade level than for students at the 50th or 75th percentile. You can also see that oral reading fluency expectations increase developmentally, though the relative growth after fourth grade is lower than before fourth grade. You might also be interested in the information in the last column of Table 8.1, which provides information on the average weekly improvement. If you are monitoring the progress of a student in the third grade who is a low reader (at or below the 25th percentile), you can see from the table that you would expect that student to grow less than 1 word correct per week of instruction.

Table 8.1 Reading Fluency Norms Guidelines for Grades 1–8

Grade	Percentile	Fall	Winter	Spring	Average Weekly Improvement
1	75	–	47	82	2.2
1	50	–	23	53	1.9
1	25	–	12	28	1.0
2	75	79	100	117	1.2
2	50	51	72	89	1.2
2	25	25	42	61	1.1
3	75	99	120	137	1.2
3	50	71	92	107	1.1
3	25	44	62	78	1.1
4	75	119	139	152	1.0
4	50	94	112	123	0.9
4	25	68	87	98	0.9
5	75	139	156	168	0.9
5	50	110	127	139	0.9
5	25	85	99	109	0.8
6	75	153	167	177	0.8
6	50	127	140	150	0.7
6	25	98	111	122	0.8
7	75	156	165	177	0.7
7	50	128	136	150	0.7
7	25	102	109	123	0.7
8	75	161	177	177	0.5
8	50	133	151	151	0.6
8	25	106	124	124	0.5

Source: Based on Hasbrouk and Tindal, 2006. Numbers for Fall, Winter, and Spring represent words correct per minute. *Behavioral Research and Reading*, 2005.

How do you measure WCPM? A teacher selects two to three passages that are unfamiliar to a student and are at a student's instructional reading level, the level at which the student can read with the teacher's support, or independent reading level. Word recognition is around 90% at the instructional level and at or near 100% at the independent level. After selecting the passages, the teacher makes two copies of each passage of text to be used with the targeted student: one for recording errors and one for the student to read. A stopwatch can be used for timing, and it is often helpful to record audio of the student's reading on a monthly basis so that the student can hear as well as see personal progress. To observe oral reading fluency assessments for determining words correct per minute, take a look at these YouTube videos: **DIBELS NEXT: Oral Reading Fluency (DORF)** and **MASI-R Oral Reading Fluency Measures 3rd Grader.**

Web Resources

Many fluency passages are selected and scaled for teachers that provide multiple versions of grade-level texts: **www.progressmonitoring.org/.**

The teacher tells the student, "When I say 'Begin,' start reading aloud at the top of the page. Do your best reading. If you come to a word that you don't know, I'll tell it to you." If a student does not read a word within 3 seconds, the teacher says the word. The student reads for 1 minute. Following along as the student reads, the teacher marks her own copy by putting a slash (/) through words that were read incorrectly. This includes mispronunciations, substitutions, omissions, words pronounced after hesitations of more than 3 seconds, and reversals. Insertions, self-corrections, and repetitions should not be counted. The teacher should also note whether the student is having difficulty with phrasing; is ignoring punctuation; is reading slowly, word by word, or laboriously; and/or has frequent extended pauses, false starts, sound-outs, and repetitions. The teacher notes the last word the student read when the minute is up. If the student is in the middle of a sentence when the time is up, the teacher should have the student finish the sentence but count only the words the student read up to the stop point. If using WCPM infrequently (once every 10 weeks), the teacher should use two passages to ensure accuracy.

The following formula is used to calculate fluency:

$$\text{Number of words read correctly in 1 minute} - \text{Number of errors} = \text{WCPM}$$

For example, if a student reads 83 words during a 1-minute sample and makes 6 errors, then the WCPM would be 83 minus 6, which equals 77. The scores are averaged across at least two passages to get a mean rate. For example, if on the second reading of a different passage at the same grade level, the student read 84 words correctly but made 11 errors, the WCPM would be 73. The average of 73 and 77 is 75, so during this period, the student's WCPM is recorded as 75.

Guidelines for fluency rates for grades 1 through 8 are presented in Table 8.1. You can use this table to determine the relative performance of your students. For example, you have a student in the fifth grade, and at the beginning of the year, she is reading 60 WCPM. You can look at the chart and see that students in fifth grade at the beginning of the year read, on average, 110 to 139 WCPM—well above the 60 WCPM of your student. Looking at the chart you see that students read about 50 WCPM in the fall of second grade, providing you with a benchmark for necessary improvement.

Teachers should consider several critical points when assessing reading fluency:

- Text passages that are used for assessment should be comparably leveled each time so that when a student's performance is compared over time, the test is at an appropriate level to compare performance. More difficult texts reduce the rate and accuracy of reading, making comparisons with previous fluency checks invalid.
- Words that are pronounced correctly within the context of a passage are considered read correctly. If students repeat a word or phrase, it is counted as correct. When students read a word incorrectly (i.e., make an error) but correct themselves within 3 seconds, it is also counted as correct.
- Words that are read incorrectly are counted as errors. Errors include mispronunciations, substitutions, and omissions.
- When students pause for more than 3 seconds, you should tell them the word and then mark it as an error.

Apply the Concept 8.1 offers commercial fluency measures that provide leveled passages.

Using Oral Reading Fluency Scores to Establish Fluency Goals

Fluency information can be plotted in graphs such as the ones shown in Figure 8.2. Having students record their own progress serves as a motivation for reading, provides immediate feedback, and allows the students to set goals and see concrete evidence of their progress. Generally, for students with fluency problems, the goal is to add one or two more WCPM per week, with fluency increasing more quickly in the earlier grades. Refer back to Table 8.1 so that you can determine the expected growth per week in oral reading fluency word reading for each grade level and at each percentile within the grade level. Audio recordings of readings allow students not only to graph their progress but also to hear their progress over time. Generally, these reading samples are collected every 1 to 2 months and can be kept across the year.

Jeff's and Sarah's fluency instruction and progress, as shown in Figure 8.2, was measured weekly by using beginning second-grade instructional-level reading materials. Jeff was making consistent progress, and his WCPM increased substantially from the third to the fourth week (three words),

8.1 Apply the Concept

Published Fluency Assessments

Teachers can use several sources of passages to compare students' fluency rates over time. Each year additional companies and individuals publish fluency assessments. Following is a brief description of some of the more frequently used fluency measures:

- Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS Next, 2002). DIBELS has leveled reading passages for assessing fluency for kindergarten through sixth grade. The fluency assessment passages are also available for kindergarten through third grade in Spanish (*Indicadores dinámicos del éxito en la lectura*—R. H. Good, Bank, & Watson, 2004). DIBELS is administered to individual students and takes about 2 to 3 minutes per student.
- The Test of Oral Reading Fluency (2005). Like DIBELS, TORF is administered individually and takes about 2 to 3 minutes per student. Curriculum-based measures were developed by Drs. Stan Deno and Doug Marston.

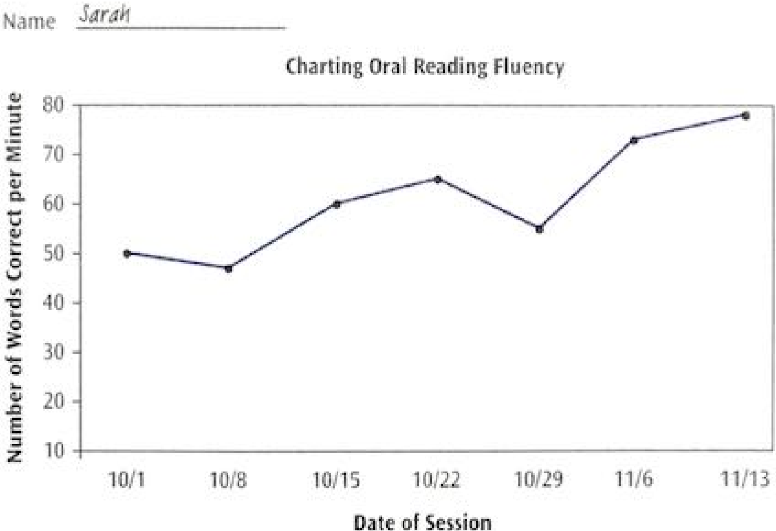
Ed Checkup

- AIMSweb. This group provides multiple passages at each grade level to provide extensive text for monitoring students' progress. The group also provides professional development and training as needed. This measure is owned by Pearson publishers.
- Test of Silent Word Reading Fluency (TOSWRF). This group-administered measure is designed to determine whether students can recognize printed words accurately and efficiently and can be administered to students in first grade and above.

PRO-ED

- Easy CBM oral reading fluency (easy CBM). This is an individually administered oral reading fluency measure across grade levels (**https://www.easycbm.com/**).

Figure 8.2 Fluency Monitoring



when he began to rely less on sounding out words and to attempt to read the words automatically. This also resulted in better phrasing and reading with more expression.

Teachers and students can establish baseline fluency scores and then target acceptable rates of growth in fluency on a bimonthly basis. For example, a student in third grade who reads 50 words correct per minute (WCPM) in a second-grade passage is below grade level in both accuracy (the text is below grade level) and speed (the student is reading too slowly). The teacher and student may decide to establish one word per week as the improvement goal. These goals can motivate students and provide excellent reporting data to parents. Using fluency data can assist teachers in making instructional decisions, as seen in Apply the Concept 8.2.

Web Resources

For more information on how fluency data can assist teachers in making instructional decisions, see the websites at the University of Texas and Florida State University: **http://www.meadowscenter.org/vgc/** and **http://www.fcrr.org.**

The **Behavioral Research and Teaching Center** at the University of Oregon also provides technical reports and resources on fluency.

Response to Intervention (RTI) and Fluency

Oral reading fluency is frequently used to monitor students' progress in reading. For this reason, it is also used as a means for determining how students with reading difficulties may be responding to interventions. For example, many schools screen students in first, second, and third grade using oral reading fluency to determine which students are at risk for reading problems. Teachers provide an intervention to these students four to five times per week for 20 to 40 minutes per day over an 8- to 12-week period. During this intervention, often referred to as a Tier 2 intervention, students typically receive an oral reading fluency test every 2 to 3 weeks, so that the "slope" of their progress can be charted. Based on students' overall progress and the extent to which they are closing the gap between their oral reading fluency before and during intervention, a decision is made about participation in subsequent interventions. To illustrate, Jeanine, a second grader, was making adequate progress in reading after she was placed in an intervention (gain of more than two words correct per week, on average) and appeared to be very close to meeting expected reading performance. Her teachers decided that it would be in her best interest to continue in the intervention

For a complete description of RTI, see Chapter 3.

8.2 Apply the Concept

Using Fluency Data

Student Data Show	Instructional Decisions
Student is making steady progress.	Continue in the same level of text.
Student meets goals on first reading.	Move to higher level of text or raise goal.
Student has difficulty achieving goals.	Alter fluency instruction; move to lower-level text or lower fluency goal.

for another 10 weeks. Max displayed a different pattern of learning. His overall progress was very low (adding fewer than one word correct per week, on average), and teachers were concerned that he needed even more intensive intervention. They adjusted his instruction both in the classroom and by providing a more intensive intervention (e.g., smaller group of three students with a highly trained teacher).

Reading Rockets provides a very interesting website with information on reading fluency and response to intervention.

Teaching Fluency

What are effective instructional practices for increasing reading fluency? Fluency instruction is designed to increase automatic word recognition, or the smoothness of the reading; rate, or the pace of reading; and prosody, or expression, appropriate phrasing, and attention to punctuation. According to the theory of automaticity (Samuels, 1997, 2004), fluent readers automatically process information at the visual and phonological levels, and therefore can focus most of their attention on the meaning of the text, integrating this information into their existing knowledge. The fluent reader's multitask functioning is made possible by the reduced demands on cognitive resources: The reader no longer has to focus on word recognition and other reading processes, thus freeing cognitive resources for comprehension. Because poor readers take much longer and require more exposures to automatically recognize and recall words, it is important that fluency instruction provide multiple opportunities for practice.

However, it is vital to note that fluency may be much more important with beginning readers (students who are reading at the first- and second-grade levels) than it is when students become more mature readers. In the beginning stages of reading, being able to read words automatically and effortlessly is associated with comprehension. As students read better (more than 70 WCPM), fluency may be less important (Stahl, 2004; Fletcher, Lyon, Fuchs, & Barnes, 2018). Although fluency practices are associated with improved outcomes at the elementary grades for students with reading disabilities (Stevens, Walker, & Vaughn, 2017), there is little compelling evidence that fluency practice with the majority of secondary readers—even those with reading difficulties—is valuable (Wexler, Vaughn, Roberts, & Denton, 2010). Additional research in this area that meets rigorous guidelines is needed (Chard, Ketterlin-Geller, Baker, Doabler, & Apichataburtra, 2009).

Fluency instruction and guided practice reading are important parts of any reading program, particularly for students with learning and behavior problems. Good fluency instruction provides students with repeated practice of reading materials at the student's independent or instructional reading level. In the following section, we examine several proven practices for assisting students in developing fluency in their reading as well as ideas for making difficult text more accessible.

Reading Aloud and Previewing Books

Students develop the concept of fluent reading through:

- listening to and watching others read aloud,
- previewing books,
- practice reading materials that are at their instructional to independent reading levels (word recognition from 90% to 100%), and
- reading with a partner and then rereading.

There is growing emphasis on the importance of reading aloud to children and previewing a book as ways not only to develop an enjoyment of literature and books but also to model and build fluent reading (Giroir, Grimaldo, Vaughn, & Roberts, 2015). The types of read alouds include repeated reading, story reading with questions, story reading with vocabulary, and other instruction (Swanson, Vaughn, et al., 2011). All of these read-aloud practices are associated with small-to-large effects for young students (preschool through third grade) on outcomes such as language, vocabulary, and phonological awareness.

Guided oral reading is a practice for enhancing fluency. What is guided oral reading? Guided reading refers to many related approaches of providing support to improve students' fluency. These approaches include reading aloud, modeling fluent reading while students read along, providing opportunities for better readers to serve as models for other students, listening to recorded text read aloud and then reading aloud, and reading poems and other genres after they have been read aloud by the teacher. Guided oral reading promotes the development of reading fluency in a number of ways.

First, it allows a teacher to model fluent reading. In reading aloud to a group of students who are just learning to read, the use of big books can be helpful because it allows the teacher to make the literacy act more visible and creates interest in the story. If a teacher, family member, or volunteer is reading aloud to one child, then sitting close to the child makes it easy for the child to interact with the print and the teacher. When reading aloud, the teacher or volunteer should read with expression, pointing to the words while reading or sweeping the fingers underneath them.

Second, modeling fluent reading by reading aloud provides many advantages to students of all grades. Reading aloud is **not** a substitute for students doing their own reading but can be an excellent supplement that helps students "hear" how reading sounds when done fluently and with expression. Also, reading aloud more challenging books can help students acquire background knowledge on a variety of topics that may be too challenging for them to read. Reading aloud also gives the teacher the opportunity to preview difficult words and unfamiliar concepts. In addition, once children have listened to a book, they are more likely to select it as a book they want to read. In a study of

kindergartners, Martinez and Teale (1988) found that children chose familiar books (i.e., those read repeatedly by the teacher) to read during free time three times more frequently than they chose unfamiliar books (books the teacher had not read). Rose (1984) compared the effects of teacher-directed previewing and not previewing texts with six students with learning disabilities and found that previewing substantially increased oral reading rates. Other studies have investigated the effects of taped previewing (Rose & Beattie, 1986) and peer previewing (Salend & Nowak, 1988). These procedures also increased fluency of the text but not to the degree that teacher-directed previewing did. Apply the Concept 8.3 presents a procedure for teacher-directed previewing.

Third, modeling fluent reading aloud for students exposes them to books that may be too difficult for them to read, which can be particularly helpful to students with disabilities (Santoro, Baker, Fien, Smith, & Chard, 2016). Many students with learning and behavior problems have listening comprehension that is several years more advanced than their reading comprehension. Reading a book aloud affords students the opportunity to talk about literature that is at a more advanced level.

Techniques for building sight words are discussed in Chapter 7.

Fourth, reading aloud can be orchestrated so that older, less adept readers can read books to young children and serve as cross-age tutors. This gives older students the opportunity to read aloud and to model the role of a good reader, an opportunity that is not often available in the regular or resource classroom.

Reading aloud has the following benefits (Trelease, 2006):

- Provides a positive reading role model.
- Introduces new knowledge.
- Demonstrates the pleasures of reading.
- Develops vocabulary.
- Provides examples of good sentences and good story grammar.
- Enables students to be exposed to a book to which they might not otherwise be exposed.
- Provides opportunities for discussions concerning the content of the book.

It is important to remember that reading aloud builds vocabulary and comprehension when teachers do the following (Santoro, Chard, Howard, & Baker, 2008; Santoro et al., 2016): (1) select texts to encourage "text-to-text" and "text-to-self" connections; (2) identify target words and then ask students to listen for these key words; (3) promote discussions that link students' responses to the text; (4) and preview text, stop while reading, and summarize after reading in ways that promote comprehension. To observe a read-aloud story, go to: **www.youtube.com: Reading Aloud: A Demonstration (Part 2 of 2)**.

Initial evidence indicates that when repeated reading is contrasted with continuous reading (e.g., rather than reading the same text more than once, students spend the same amount of time reading text aloud), students do equally well in both conditions (O. E. O'Connor et al., 2007). Thus, teachers may want to provide opportunities for students to read continuously as well as to apply repeated reading procedures. Also, repeated reading along with question generation by students may promote both reading fluency and comprehension (Hua et al., 2012). Additionally, consider previewing the text that is being read for fluency by reading it aloud for students. This practice is also associated with improved fluency when implementing a rereading approach (Lee & Yoon, 2017).

8.3 Apply the Concept

Guidelines for Implementing Previewing for Promoting Fluency

1. ***Decide on an appropriate book or text*** (i.e., one that is of interest to the students and at their independent to instructional reading levels). For longer books, preview only a section of the book at a time. Have student copies of the book or text available.
2. ***Introduce the book or text*** using the title and looking through the text or section. With the students, make predictions about the content. Introduce words that may be difficult for the students to automatically recognize or for which the meaning may be unfamiliar. Students may write these words in a personal dictionary or on word cards.
3. ***Have students follow along as you read the book or text orally*** at a relatively slow conversational rate (approximately 130 words per minute).
4. ***Have students partner and take turns reading*** a section after you have read it. Have the stronger partner read first, and as one student reads, have the other student provide support by pronouncing words the student does not know.
5. ***Have the students review the difficult words*** using techniques for building sight words.
6. ***Monitor students' reading fluency*** on a regular basis by using the procedures discussed earlier in this chapter in the Monitoring Student Progress in Fluency section.

Evidence-Based Practice

Repeated Reading

Procedures: Repeated reading consists of rereading short, meaningful passages several times (three to five) until a satisfactory level of fluency is reached. The procedure is then repeated with a new passage. Generally, the student repeatedly reads passages that range from 50 to 200 words in length, until he or she reaches a more fluent reading rate (see Table 8.1) and an adequate word-recognition level (e.g., 90% to 100% word recognition). When a student reads under the direct supervision of a teacher, the teacher pronounces the words a student does not recognize. To foster comprehension, discussion of the passage follows reading.

Using audio books, students listen to the stories and read and/or follow along with the written text. They listen to and read the same story until they can read the book by themselves. The teacher then listens to students individually read the story and discusses the story with the students. Guidelines for using recorded books, keeping records of students' reading, and using computers are presented in Apply the Concept 8.4.

To view an example of repeated reading, go to: **www .youtube.com: The Repeated Reading Method.**

8.4 Apply the Concept

Using Recordings, Videos, and E-Books for Repeated Reading

Selecting Books and Passages

Select books and passages that are of interest to the students and for which the students' word recognition is from 85% to 95%. For older readers, high-interest, low-vocabulary stories provide another source.

For more impaired readers, select more easily decodable texts (see Chapter 7). Pattern-language books (see Chapter 7) can be another good source because they provide students with frequent repetition of language patterns and words.

Video or Other Means of Recording the Books

Use an audio or video recording device. Audio or video record a book or passage while speaking at a conversational rate and with expression. Use appropriate phrasing. Provide the students with cues to assist them in keeping their place in the text while listening to the recording. Follow these guidelines:

- Allow 10 seconds of blank before recording.
- Remind students of any strategies you want them to use (e.g., "Remember to use your finger or a marker as a guide").
- Use a signal to cue turning the page.
- For a new page announce each page number.
- Direct students to put their finger on the first word on the page.

Record about 10 minutes of reading so that it will be easy for students to find their place. Label each recording with the title of the book and the page numbers covered. You can instruct parent volunteers to record books. You can also purchase prerecorded books, but be aware that they may not provide the same level of cueing.

Store the books with their tapes in clear plastic bags. Inside the bag, place the book and tape. If you have multiple copies of the book with a tape, they can be stored together.

Keeping Student Records

Have each student make a reading folder. Staple forms inside the folder on which the student can record the name of the book, the author, the date, how the student read the book, and with whom the student discussed the book. In this way, both the teacher and the student have a record of the student's reading.

Computer-Based Reading Practice

Computer software provides another avenue for children to repeatedly read books using the computer. For example, *Living Book Series* (Discus Books) and *Wiggleworks* (Scholastic) both provide opportunities for students to listen to books being read, to read along with the computer, and, in the case of *Wiggleworks*, to record their own reading of the book. Reading software provides flexibility; the text can be read in sentences or phrases, or the students can highlight individual words and have them pronounced. Many of these programs easily switch languages (most commonly between English and Spanish) and have built-in record-keeping systems so that teachers know the number of times students read the books and the type of assistance they use.

Using Audio Books at Home to Support English Language Learners

Audio books can also be integrated into a home-reading component. The advantage is that well-recorded books require minimal reading from parents, making them an ideal resource for parents who do not speak or read English. Students can be taught how to use the audio books, and notes can be sent home with the audio books reminding the children and their parents to read and listen to the books two or three times every day.

Name of Book	Author	Dates	Read with				Discussed with	
			Self	Tape	Student	Teacher	Student	Teacher

Comments: Students reading below grade level in elementary grades who have used repeated reading have consistently demonstrated gains in both fluency and reading comprehension (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002; Stevens et al., 2017):

- Consistently using repeated reading with poor readers increases reading speed, accuracy, expression, and comprehension.
  - Provides a model of fluent reading.
  - Provides performance feedback to students.
- Text materials should be at the students' independent to instructional reading level (90% to 100% word recognition).
- Passages should be read three to five times.
- Multiple reading of phrases may improve fluency.
- Specific strategies should take into account individual students' characteristics. For more impaired readers, provide greater adult guidance during reading, use more decodable texts as reading materials, practice on words and phrases from the text before reading the text, practice reading shorter passages, and model expressive reading.
- Short, frequent sessions of fluency practice (generally 10 to 15 minutes) should be used.
- Transfer of fluency is increased when the overlap of words across passages is substantial (Rashotte & Torgesen, 1985).
- Provide students with procedures to set goals and record their progress.

Choral Repeated Reading

Choral repeated reading is a technique that combines ideas and procedures from repeated reading and choral reading. We have used the approach with students who have significant reading difficulties in word identification and reading rate.

Evidence-Based Practice

Choral Repeated Reading

Procedures: Choral repeated reading is designed for students who can comprehend material that is read to them but, because of difficulties in word identification and reading rate, are unable to read material commensurate with their listening comprehension level. Students should have a sight vocabulary of at least 25 words. We suggest the following procedure:

- Explain the technique to the student.
- With the student(s), select a text of interest that is at a challenging reading level (85% to 90% word recognition) and that has frequent repetition of words and decodable text.
- Provide a copy of the text to all participating students.
- Read the text with the student(s), using the following three-step process:
  1. *Teacher reads:* Start at the beginning of the book, and read a piece of text to the student, ranging from several sentences to a paragraph. (The length of each section should be short enough that the student can rely on short-term memory as an aid for reading.) Read at a normal rate, and move your finger smoothly along underneath the words as the student watches, making sure that your reading matches your movement from word to word.
  2. *Teacher and student read:* Read the same section together aloud with the student. Continue to point to the words. The two of you may read the section once or several times, rereading until the student feels comfortable reading the section independently.
  3. *Student reads:* Have the student read the section independently. Pronounce any unknown words, and note words that the student consistently has difficulty recognizing. (See Apply the Concept 8.5):

8.5 Apply the Concept

Repeated Reading

Have you noticed how young children thoroughly enjoy having the same story read to them over and over again? As the adult sits with the child and reads a familiar book, the child automatically begins to read along. At first, the child joins in on some of the words and phrases. Eventually, the child is reading along for most of the book. With repeated reading of a story, children become so familiar with the text that their memory becomes a great aid to them. Repeated reading as a means of enhancing fluency is based on the idea that as students repeatedly read text, they become fluent and confident in their reading (Chard et al., 2009; Stevens et al., 2017). And because they are exposed to the same story several times, they have the opportunity to practice identifying unknown words while relying on their memory of the language flow to assist them.

Repeated reading is an empirically based practice that has improved rate of reading in elementary students with reading difficulties (Santoro et al., 2017; Vadasy & Sanders, 2008). What about the use of repeated reading with secondary students? Considerably fewer studies examine the effectiveness of repeated reading with older students with disabilities, and the studies we have reveal low effects (see Wexler, Vaughn, Edmonds, & Reutebuch, 2008). Another question that teachers may have about repeated reading is whether special considerations apply to students who are English language learners (ELLs). A report on effective instruction for ELLs (Francis, Rivera, Rivera, Lesaux, & Kieffer, 2006) indicates that successful repeated reading includes:

- Oral reading, providing opportunities for students to attend to words and opportunities to practice speaking and reading with expression.
- Corrective feedback from adults, drawing students' attention to miscues and pronunciation.
- Discussions and questioning about the text read.
- Increased exposure to print.
- Increased engagement and motivation to read.

- Discuss after reading how the story related to your predictions and what you have learned. New predictions and purposes for reading can be set.
- Repeat the three-step process throughout the book. The length of each section usually increases as the book is read, and the number of times you and the student read together usually decreases. For some students, the first step is discontinued.
- Write on word cards those words that the student consistently has difficulty identifying automatically. Use a variety of activities—for example, discussing the word meanings or locating the words in the text and rereading the sentences—as a means of increasing practice.
- Have the student keep records of personal progress (see Figure 8.2). Check the student's progress at least every third day when initially using the procedure.
- Using this method, focus approximately 10 to 15 minutes on oral reading. As the student becomes more confident in reading ability, use repeated readings with audio books or stories as independent reading activities.

To view an example of choral reading, go to: **www.youtube.com** and watch some of the videos on choral reading practices.

Comments: Choral repeated reading allows the teacher and student(s) to attend to word-identification skills and comprehension as well as fluency. Using the three-step process also allows the student to read more difficult books. We have found this particularly rewarding for older nonreaders in that the technique quickly gives them success in reading books.

Using Book Reading with Comprehension Cards to Support Summer Reading

Elementary-age students with learning and behavior problems usually do not choose reading as a recreational activity during the summer. John Bittner, a special education teacher, sent home books with the students along with directions on how to read and respond. The students practiced reading a book until they were comfortable. Then he asked the students, with the assistance of their parents, to read the book to him for 3 minutes or to summarize the book. Mr. Bittner also invited parents to leave a message about how the process was going. Parents noted that they liked the summer school connection that made their "sometimes reluctant reader more amenable to reading during vacation."

Recent research supports the work of Mr. Bittner. When students who were poor readers were provided eight books to read during the summer, with postcards providing guidance about what to do with the books, students demonstrated increases in reading achievement over those students who did not participate (Kim & White, 2008; Kim et al., 2016). What types of guidance was provided on the postcards?

- Encourage students to practice oral and silent reading of the book.
- Ask students to reread parts of the book.
- Guide students to develop questions about the book.
- Ask students to make predictions about what will happen next when reading.
- Ask students to summarize parts of the book while reading.
- Tell students to make connections while reading to the text or to their own response.
- Ask students to read orally with a parent or family member for several minutes.

Peer-Supported Reading

One concern for students with learning and behavior problems is that they read substantially less than high-achieving readers and spend less time engaged in using text as a source of knowledge. How can the amount of time devoted to text reading be increased? One strategy is to use peers to support each other when reading for the purpose of building fluency as well as supporting word recognition and comprehension. Techniques such as *assisted reading* (Decker & Buggey, 2014) and *classwide peer tutoring* or *partner reading* (e.g., Berkeley et al., 2010; D. Fuchs, Fuchs, & Burish, 2000; Lee & Yoon, 2017) provide opportunities for students to work in pairs and provide support for each other while reading. Peer partner reading fluency activities can be effectively used in both general and special education settings, providing more opportunities for students to actively engage in reading. It is important to note that peer-supported reading is an opportunity for supportive practice and not an alternative to instruction provided by teachers.

MyLab Education
Video Example 8.1
In this video, children are engaged in partner reading. How do they respond to this strategy? What are some advantages and disadvantages? How does the teacher support the students while they are partner reading?

Evidence-Based Practice

Peer-Supported Reading

Procedures: Peer-supported reading involves matching higher readers with less able readers to practice rereading text and asking and answering questions about text meaning.

How to successfully pair students and select appropriate reading materials are important considerations. One way to pair students is to rank-order the group or class of students on the basis of their current reading fluency and reading level. For example, if a group has 12 students, list them from high to low based on their current reading performance. Then split the class in half, and pair the top-ranked high-performing student with the top-ranked low-performing student, the second-ranked high-performing student with the second-ranked low-performing student, and so on. It is important to check whether certain partners will not work well together socially, and adjust accordingly. Maintain the pairings for 4 to 6 weeks. Reading materials should be at the lower-performing student's independent-to-instructional reading levels. If peer-supported reading is used three to four times per week, have enough materials selected so that students can work on two new passages per week. As in other fluency techniques, such as repeated reading and repeated choral reading, the reading materials will vary according to the students' needs. At first, it may be advantageous to use short passages or books as students learn the procedures, but high-interest–low-vocabulary chapter books can also be a good source of reading materials.

Teach students how to be both tutors/listeners and tutees/readers, and provide role-play practice and feedback. Give the tutors guidelines for how to correct errors during oral reading (e.g., point out the word, pronounce the word, and have the tutee say the word) and the questions they should ask when the tutee has finished reading (e.g., What is the story about? What is happening in the story now? What do you think will happen next?). Also assist the students in giving positive feedback.

When students work with their partners, first the stronger reader reads aloud to serve as a model, and then the other reader reads. The teacher should refer to them as *reader one* and *reader two*. Because the lower-performing students read what has just been read by the higher-performing students, the lower-performing students are more likely to read fluently and comfortably. The amount of material read before the students switch roles depends on the material and the readers; it usually ranges from a sentence to a page, or each student reads a specified amount of time (e.g., 5 minutes). Partners can take turns reading a book or passage several times, thus adding a repeated reading component. Copies of guidelines for the tutor and reader can be posted, and each pair can rate themselves on their effort (see Figure 8.3).

Comments: Research consistently indicates that peer-supported reading has positive outcomes for the reading fluency and comprehension of students with learning and behavior problems (Berkeley et al., 2010; Lee & Yoon, 2017; Okilwa & Shelby, 2010) even in first-grade classrooms (Mathes, Torgesen, & Howard, 2001). The research results suggest that the strength of the intervention may be related to the additional instructional time and student reading involvement afforded by peer-supported reading. The effects of peer pairing for reading fluency with secondary students need more research (Wexler et al., 2008).

Figure 8.3 Guidelines for Peer-Supported Reading

Partner Reading Procedures

- First reader reads.
- Second reader reads.
- Students discuss reading with one student asking questions and other student answering.
- Repeat until story is complete.

Tutoring Rules

- Talk only to your partner.
- Talk only about partner reading.
- Be cooperative.

Kinds of Errors

- Saying the word wrong.
- Leaving out a word.
- Adding a word.
- Waiting longer than 4 seconds.

Feedback about Words

- Stop. You missed this word (point to it). Can you figure it out?
- That word is______. What word? (Reader says word.) Good! Read the sentence again.

Scaffolded Sustained Silent Reading

A frequently used practice in the general education classroom is to allocate time each day for silent reading of student-selected texts—typically 20 to 30 minutes. Little research documents the effectiveness of this practice for students with learning or behavior problems; however, a modified version of scaffolded sustained silent reading holds promise (Reutzel, Jones, Fawson, & Smith, 2008).

Evidence-Based Practice

Scaffolded Sustained Silent Reading

Procedures: Most approaches to sustained silent reading involve little interaction between the teacher and the students during the time allocated for reading. Typically, both the teacher and the students read for the designated amount of time. Reutzel et al. (2008) recommend a more instructive role for the teacher that involves the following:

- Rather than allowing students to select whatever text they want to read, the teacher assists in identifying appropriate books or texts at their independent reading level.
- The teacher promotes reading across a variety of genres rather than allowing students to consistently read one or two genres (e.g., poetry, fairy tale, biography, information text).
- The teacher scaffolds learning to read for fluency and comprehension.

- The teacher holds brief conferences (5 minutes) to determine students understanding of text.
- The teacher and students record progress in books, read aloud passages for fluency checks, and answer questions.

Readers' Theater: Reading Performance

Although Ms. Sadlowski, the special education teacher, and Ms. Martinez, the fifth-grade teacher, were pleased with the progress students with learning and behavior problems were making in fluency through specific fluency-building activities, they wanted the students to have the opportunity to practice reading for purposes other than to build fluency. They decided to use readers' theater and buddy reading as techniques in which students practice reading a selection until they are fluent and then perform the reading (R. Clark, Morrison, & Wilcox, 2009).

Evidence-Based Practice

Reading Performance

Procedures: In *readers' theater*, students perform a play or a book adapted to script form by reading it aloud to an audience. Because the focus is on reading fluently, students are not expected to memorize the text, and props are minimal. Students with different reading skills can use the same text, because the different parts often vary widely in reading level. Students practice reading their parts with a teacher, tutor, and/or other students who are taking part in the performance. Even simple texts can be adapted to a script form, as Figure 8.4 illustrates.

Buddy reading consists of the students practicing and reading texts to younger students. This provides opportunities for students with learning and behavior problems to practice reading texts that are not at their grade level but are at their independent reading level without the stigma of reading "easy" books. In using buddy reading, it is important to choose books that the students can read easily and that are appropriate for and interesting to younger children.

Comments: Although techniques such as readers' theater and buddy reading do not provide the level of explicit instruction and support that are used with techniques such as repeated choral reading and peer-supported reading, they do give students who have learning and behavior problems opportunities to transfer their reading fluency to tasks other than practicing fluency. Furthermore, they lend themselves to implementation in general education classrooms.

Integrating Fluency Building into a Reading Program

Fluency building is an integral part of a reading program for students who have reading difficulties, and generally represents 15 to 25 minutes of time approximately three times per week (Figure 8.5 describes several fluency-building programs). In teaching fluency, strategies for improving word-identification skills and comprehension should also be instructional goals. As we mentioned in the discussions of previewing and repeated choral reading, word-recognition and word-extension activities can be developed naturally from the text. Although improving fluency can allow students to allocate more attention to comprehension, not all students will automatically acquire the skills associated with effective comprehension. For some students, methods of teaching comprehension may be required.

Helping Families Improve Their Children's Reading Fluency

Perhaps one of the most necessary tools for improving reading outcomes for children with special needs is wide reading. *Wide reading* refers to both the amount and type

Figure 8.4 Example of Adapting a Simple Text to Script Format for Readers' Theater

SOURCE: Based on Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts, *Professional Development Guide: Reading Fluency: Principles of Instruction and Progress Monitoring* (Austin: Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts, University of Texas-Austin, 2000).

Original Text	Scripted Text
One day Mrs. Duck went to the pond. It was hot and she wanted a cool drink. Mr. Fox was sitting by the side of the pond. He told Mrs. Duck that she could not get a drink because he was in a bad mood and did not want anyone near his pond. Mrs. Bird heard Mr. Fox say this and she called down sweetly from her branch. . . .	**Mrs. Duck:** I have been working so hard and now I am so thirsty. I need to go to the pond for a nice, cool drink. **Mr. Fox:** Hello, Mrs. Duck. I am in a very bad mood. No one can drink from my pond today. **Mrs. Bird:** This is not your pond. It belongs to everyone.

Figure 8.5 Selected List of Fluency-Building Programs

Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies—Reading (PALS) (Classwide Peer Tutoring)

PALS Reading was developed for students in kindergarten through high school. It is designed primarily for general education classrooms and as supplements to a teacher's more comprehensive reading program. PALS programs target key reading skills including fluency and, because students work with students on these skills, PALS provides students with intensive practice. Evaluative studies indicate that on average PALS accelerates the reading achievement of students with learning disabilities, low-achieving students, and average- and high-achieving students. PALS Math uses a similar format but focuses on math.

Contact: PALS Outreach
Vanderbilt University
Peabody Box 328
230 Appleton Place
Nashville, TN 37203-5701
615-343-4782
e-mail: PALS@vanderbilt.edu

Read Naturally

Students read along while listening to a tape of leveled, recorded high-interest passages and practice until they can read them at a predetermined rate. Students graph WCPM before and after practicing. Comprehension questions provided.

Contact: Read Naturally
750 S. Plaza Dr. #100
Saint Paul, MN 55120
800-788-4085
website. http://www.readnaturally.com
e-mail: info@readnaturally.com

Great Leaps

Great Leaps addresses fluency at three levels: phonics—students identify sounds and decode simple word patterns; sight phrases—students read phrases with sight words; reading fluency—students read stories. Students graph progress.

Contact: Diarmuid, Inc.
Box 357580
Gainesville, FL 32635
877-GRL-EAPS
website. http://www.greatleaps.com
e-mail: info@greatleaps.com

Carbo Reading Styles Program

The Carbo reading method has children listen to and repeatedly read along with audiotapes of books that have been recorded at a slow pace but with proper phrasing and intonation until they can read fluently. Books can be recorded by the teacher or can be purchased from the National Reading Styles Institute.

Contact: National Reading Styles Institute, Inc.
Box 737
Syosset, NY 11791
800-331-3117
website. http://www.nrsi.com
e-mail: readingstyle@nrsi.com

First Grade PALS (Peer-Assisted Literacy Strategies)

This program contains 48 lessons, enough for teachers to use three times a week for 16 weeks as a supplement to their reading program. The emphasis is on peer-interacted learning that addresses phonemic awareness and fluency tasks. The goal is to improve accuracy through repeated practice.

Contact: Sopris West
4093 Specialty Place
Longwood, CO 80504-5400
800-547-6747
website. http://www.sopriswest.com
e-mail: customerservice@sopriswest.com

The Six-Minute Solution: A Reading Fluency Program

This program has high-interest nonfiction practice passages (approximately 20 for each of the eight levels). The materials include assessment records, charts, word lists, and differentiated instruction through multiple reading levels.

Contact: Sopris West
4093 Specialty Place
Longwood, CO 80504-5400
800-547-6747
website. http://www.sopriswest.com
e-mail: customerservice@sopriswest.com

QuickReads

This series of program books and materials features short, high-interest nonfiction texts at second- through fourth-grade levels. The materials are designed to improve students' fluency, comprehension, and background knowledge. Each grade level sequentially builds across three books and includes increasingly more difficult high-frequency words and phonics elements. The program includes a pre- and posttest for placement, 12 copies each of the three leveled student books per grade level, a teacher's resource manual, and three read-along audio CDs per grade level. Additional comprehension strategies and extension lessons can be used to support ESL (English as a second language)/ELL students (Hiebert, 2002).

Contact: Modern Curriculum Press
299 Jefferson Road
Parsippany, NJ 07054
800-321-3106
website. http://www.pearsonlearning.com
e-mail: technical.support@pearson.com

of reading in which children are engaged. When students read widely, they read often—at least 20 minutes a day—and they read across many genres. This means that they read different types of books, not just narrative or information books, but biographies, history, and technical books. How can teachers increase the wide reading of the students they teach? The best way may be to engage family members in supporting wide reading.

The same activities that we recommend for the word cards generated from language experience stories (see Chapter 7) can be used with word cards generated from these fluency techniques.

The following are some ideas that teachers can share with families to promote wide reading:

- Establish a time each evening when you read with your child. For beginning readers, this may mean that you take turns reading from a book on the child's level. For a more advanced reader, you may each read different books, but you sit near each other and are engaged in the reading process.
- Determine many ways to access books and print materials. Libraries, bookstores, and online activities are excellent resources to access a wide range of books and print materials. Take advantage of every opportunity to examine and discuss books and other print materials.
- Share what you are reading. Discuss the books and materials that you are reading with your child.
- Ask questions about what your child is reading. The types of questions you ask about what your child is reading can promote continued reading. Children are likely to engage in and extend reading when family members show interest in what children are reading.
- Read different types of print materials, and share them with your child. Sources that adults read include recipes, newspapers, magazines, reference books, and leisure books. Share these types of reading materials with your child, and engage your child in reading different sources of text. Remember, wide reading is associated with overall improved vocabulary and knowledge.

Assessing Comprehension and Monitoring Progress in Reading Comprehension

What assessments and instructional resources might you consider to evaluate reading comprehension? Reading comprehension is the most difficult aspect of reading to assess. Perhaps this is because understanding and interacting with text occurs largely as thinking and is not readily observed. The only access teachers have to knowing whether and how students understand text is to ask students to respond orally or in writing about what they have read. Figure 8.6 lists 12 tests that can assist teachers in making decisions about their students' reading comprehension. These tests can be combined to assess students' comprehension more accurately and completely.

Consider several critical aspects of a comprehension test before selecting one. First, what is the purpose of the test? Does the teacher want to screen, monitor, diagnose, or evaluate students? Second, what type of information about the students' comprehension is the teacher seeking? Does the teacher want to know whether they can recall what is in the text? Is the teacher interested in whether the students can tell the main idea or make inferences? Third, does the test require a short or long amount of time, is it difficult or easy to score, and will it provide the type of information that will inform instruction?

When children are at the beginning stages of reading (first- or second-grade-level readers) and read fewer than 80 words correctly per minute, it is possible for teachers to monitor their reading comprehension by monitoring the students' oral reading fluency. For early readers, fluency is a good, though not perfect, predictor of reading comprehension. Oral reading fluency is a feasible means for determining whether students understand what they read and whether they are likely to pass high-stakes reading comprehension tests. However, as students develop more mature reading skills, other practices for monitoring their reading comprehension are needed.

One way to monitor students' comprehension is to ask them to retell the most important parts of a text they have just read. Story retelling provides an alternative to traditional questioning techniques for evaluating students' reading comprehension because it involves the integration of many skills that are necessary for reading comprehension. It requires students to sequence and reconstruct key information presented in the text. It also requires students to rely on their memory for factual details and to relate them in an organized meaningful pattern. One advantage to retelling is that the teacher can learn a great deal about what students understand and can determine what additional comprehension skills need to be taught. To observe a teacher using story retelling with a class, go to: **www.youtube.com: Story Bits: Retelling Stories to Build Strategies in Read Reading and Real Writing video.**

For the purposes of monitoring the progress of comprehension, retelling is administered individually. The following procedures can be applied:

1. Select brief passages (1 to 2 minutes) that are at the students' reading level.
2. Ask younger students to read their passage aloud. Ask older students to read their passage silently.

Figure 8.6 Reading Comprehension Assessments

SOURCE: S. Vaughn & S. Linan-Thompson, *Research-Based Methods of Reading Instruction, Grades K–3* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 2004), pp. 102–103. Reprinted by permission.

Title	Ages/Grade Levels	Estimated Testing Time	Key Elements and Strategies	Administration
Clay Observational Survey (Clay, 2002)	Grades K–3	15 minutes	• Oral reading • Reading vocabulary (i.e., words known in reading)	Individual
Comprehensive Reading Assessment Battery	Grades K–6	30–40 minutes	• Fluency • Oral comprehension • Sentence completion	Individual
Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (MacGinitie et al., 2000)	Grades K–12 and adult	55–75 minutes	• Word meanings (levels 1 and 2) • Comprehension (short passages of 1–3 sentences for levels 1 and 2; paragraphs for levels 3 and up)	Group
Gray Diagnostic Reading Tests (Bryant, Wiederholt, & Bryant, 2004)	Ages 6–13	45–60 minutes	• Letter/word identification • Phonetic analysis • Reading vocabulary • Meaningful reading	Individual
Gray Oral Reading Test 4 (Wiederholt & Bryant, 2001)	Ages 6–19	15–45 minutes	• Comprehension (14 separate stories, each followed by 5 multiple-choice questions)	Individual
Gray Silent Reading Test (Wiederholt & Blalock, 2000)	Ages 7–26	15–30 minutes	• Comprehension (13 passages with 5 questions each)	Individual, small groups, or entire class
Qualitative Reading Inventory (Leslie & Caldwell, 2001)	Emergent to high school	30–40 minutes	• Comprehension • Oral reading • Silent reading • Listening	
Test of Early Reading Ability 3 (Reid et al., 2001)	Preschool–second grade	20 minutes	• Comprehension of words, sentences, and paragraphs • Vocabulary • Understanding of sentence construction • Paraphrasing	Individual
Test of Reading Comprehension (Brown et al., 1995)	Ages 7–18	30–90 minutes	• General vocabulary • Understanding syntactic similarities • Paragraph reading (6 paragraphs with 5 questions each) • Sentence sequencing (5 randomly ordered sentences that need reordering) • Diagnostic supplement: content area vocabulary in math, social studies, and science • Reading directions	Individual, small groups, or entire class
Standardized Reading Inventory 2 (Newcomer, 1999)	Ages 6–14-and-a-half	30–90 minutes	• Vocabulary in context • Passage comprehension	Individual
Woodcock Reading Mastery (Woodcock, 1998)	Ages 5–75	10–30 minutes	• Word comprehension (i.e., antonyms, synonyms, analogies)	Individual
Woodcock-Johnson III Diagnostic Reading Battery (Woodcock, Mather, & Schrank, 2006)	Ages 2–90	5–10 minutes	• Phonemic awareness • Phonics • Fluency • Vocabulary • Reading comprehension	Individual

3. After reading, ask students to tell you what it was about or tell you the story.
4. Score the retell on the basis of the depth of information provided. Teachers may want to consider whether students mentioned characters, the story problem, events, problem resolutions, and story quality.
5. You can rate the quality of students' retells on a 7-point scale, with a higher number indicating a better retell, and use this to monitor their retelling effectiveness over time.

Another way to monitor students' comprehension is by using maze passages. Maze passages provide text written at a range of grade levels and offer students opportunities to select words from several options that fulfill the meaning of the text where words have been deleted. Read the Spotlight on Diversity for ideas on instructing English language learners with reading difficulties.

Web Resources

Sources of maze passages for progress monitoring can be obtained from the National Center on Student Progress Monitoring **https://rti4success.org/resource/student-progress-monitoring-what-means-your-child**.

Reading Comprehension and Response to Intervention

How can teachers use reading comprehension practices to determine students' response to intervention (RTI)? Knowing students' comprehension of text is the single most important outcome of interest when determining their RTI. Several progress-monitoring measures attempt to gauge comprehension. For example, the maze test provides a means for determining whether students can identify the syntactically and semantically correct word that fits in a passage, providing some information about text understanding.

Web Resources

For a description of the reliability, validity, and use of maze procedures for monitoring comprehension, see **http://www.rti4success.org**.

Teaching Comprehension

What is the purpose of comprehension instruction? Comprehension is the essence of reading and the ultimate goal of reading instruction. Reading comprehension is the process of constructing meaning by integrating the information provided by an author with a reader's word reading (able to accurately read the word), word knowledge (knows the meaning of the words), and background knowledge (knows enough about the topic that the reader can make sense of what was read). Students may have difficulty comprehending what they read, for several reasons. The primary reasons are (1) they have difficulty reading the words, and/or (2) they don't know what many of the words mean, and/or (3) they have inadequate background knowledge. Considering these three primary contributors to reading comprehension will assist you in focusing on how to promote adequate reading comprehension with your students.

As a fourth grader reading at second-grade level, Amanda would probably better comprehend what she reads if she did not have to allocate so much attention to word identification. In contrast, Scott is a word caller. He thinks that reading is "reading the words correctly." Even though he can read fluently, he does not attend to the meaning of passages. He frequently has difficulty recalling both the gist and details of a story. Sofia has been diagnosed as having language disabilities, with difficulties in syntax and semantics. These low oral language skills affect her comprehension of what she reads.

Sam can remember what he reads but does not make connections to what he already knows about the topic. He also does not adequately make connections with the most important ideas while he is reading. Therefore, he has particular difficulty answering questions that require him to integrate what he is reading with previous texts, background knowledge, or other text sources. Paolo, in contrast, relies too heavily on his background knowledge. This is adversely affecting his reading comprehension because he uses what he knows rather than what the text says when reading.

Kim fails to monitor her comprehension as she reads. She often reports that everything makes sense. Yet when her teacher asks questions, it becomes obvious that Kim has achieved limited comprehension.

All these students are struggling with reading comprehension, although their problems are very different. For students such as Amanda, word-identification difficulties get in the way of comprehension. Focusing on building word-identification skills is probably appropriate for her. However, comprehension skills should not be ignored. This may mean building listening comprehension at her current grade level as well as extending her knowledge of word meanings. For Amanda, it is making sure that reading is perceived as understanding and interacting with the text to construct meaning, not just reading the words correctly. Although word-identification skill development will be important, it needs to be coupled with teaching comprehension.

Spotlight on Diversity

Instructing English Language Learners Who Are at Risk for Reading Problems

What instructional practices should teachers consider when providing reading instruction to students with reading difficulties who are also ELLs? Teachers might consider the following practices:

1. *Remember that the quality of instruction is even more important than the language of instruction.* Although initial research suggests that students learning to read in their native language perform slightly better than when learning to read in English, the importance of quality of instruction is even more significant (Cheung & Slavin, 2012).
2. *Consider the commonalities between reading instruction in English and the reading instruction that is provided in the student's native language.* These commonalities can be used to build bridges between languages and apply what is known in one language to the other. Many commonalities exist between reading instruction practices in different languages, even though features of the instructional practices may differ (Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007). For example, oral language instruction, fluency, and reading comprehension are important aspects of learning to read for learners of all languages (Goldenberg, 2008).
3. *Identify procedures for instructing students in all of the critical elements of beginning reading (phonemic awareness, spelling, phonics, vocabulary, language development, fluency, and comprehension).* The following are instructional practices in reading that are effective for beginning ELLs: teaching explicitly; promoting learning of the English language; teaching phonemic decoding and phonics; integrating vocabulary development, use, and extension across the curriculum; maximizing student engagement through interactive teaching and student pairs; and scaffolding learners through instruction that provides opportunities to respond with teacher feedback.

   The foundation skills of phonemic awareness and phonics are more critical in the very beginning stages of reading and less important as students become readers of connected text. Improving vocabulary is an important part of reading and content learning all along. Improving listening comprehension is initially important, and then transferring these comprehension skills to text understanding becomes important.
4. *Recognize that English is the most difficult language of all alphabetic languages to learn to read, and therefore, many of the foundation skills such as spelling and phonics require more explicit and systematic instruction than they might in other alphabetic languages.* A study across 12 alphabetic languages revealed that many of the foundation skills of reading take twice as long for young children to acquire in English than in other alphabetic languages such as Spanish (Seymour, Aro, & Erskine, 2003). Thus, students who know another alphabetic language such as Spanish or Italian will require more time to learn foundation skills such as phonics and spelling to develop fluency and comprehension.
5. *Make connections between the home language and the language of instruction in school.* Many benefits result when teachers make connections between the home language and English. First, it provides students with a ready link between what they know and what they need to know. Second, it helps students learn more quickly because much of what they know can be used as a foundation for learning a new literacy. Third, it honors the students' home language and background, building language concepts and self-esteem.
6. *Capitalize on every opportunity to use and promote language development during instruction, and give opportunities for students to engage in higher-order questions.* ELLs often have limited opportunities to use oral language during instruction and few opportunities to address challenging or higher-order questions. Because students' language development may still be growing, teachers often ask these students questions that allow for one- or two-word responses. These students may have difficulty providing more complex answers, but with structured conversation and opportunities to use academic language, their skills will improve. For example, oral participation can be facilitated by providing scaffolding in the form of sentence stems that offer students a structure for orally responding to challenging questions. To assist students in addressing higher-order questions, teachers may initially model more complex syntactic structures and fade support as students become more proficient in English. Planned discussions can be promoted to encourage academic language, providing small-group or paired cooperative learning activities and development of prior knowledge.
7. *Promote all opportunities to teach and engage in vocabulary and concept building.* Vocabulary development is an essential feature of reading, comprehension, and content learning for ELLs. To fully appreciate and interpret what they are reading, students will be required to learn new words to understand expository and narrative texts (e.g., *civil, equity, molecule*) as well as to learn the meaning of descriptive words (e.g., *worried, marvelous, eagerly*). Teachers will add to students' vocabulary knowledge by providing highly organized, focused, and repeated opportunities to learn core words well enough to both understand their meaning in context and to apply them in their own language use. Ulanoff and Pucci (1999) suggest that students benefit from previewing important concepts

and vocabulary in their primary language before listening to stories read in English and reviewing key concepts in both languages after the reading. For a fun example of all of the ways words and concepts need further explanation for English language learners, go to: **www.youtube.com: Lesson 3—"Kitchen"—English Vocabulary**.

8. *Peer pairing and cooperative groups can be used to enhance learning.* Peer pairing and structured group activities are effective practices for improving oral language, acquisition of higher-level comprehension skills, and interaction for ELLs (Cheung & Slavin, 2012; Saenz, Fuchs, & Fuchs, 2005). Paired learning or cooperative grouping provides intensive individualized instruction for students from varied literacy backgrounds by increasing the amount of time spent in academic engagement and providing immediate feedback (e.g., reading errors, pacing) from peers. For an example of **peer pairing** with English language learners, go to: **www.youtube.com: Supporting ELL Students: Through Partner Word**. In the video, students have specific tasks and opportunities to discuss what they are learning, and it may be particularly beneficial for ELLs by presenting opportunities for them to use and learn specific vocabulary related to academic language (August, Branum-Martin, Cardenas-Hagan, & Francis, 2009; Vaughn, Martinez, et al., 2009).

For Scott, a considerable amount of emphasis in his reading program should be on comprehension. He requires assistance in changing his definition of the reading process. Helping Scott to set comprehension-oriented purposes for reading and teaching him how to ask questions as he reads should assist him in changing his definition of reading.

Sofia's difficulties relate to a language problem that affects her reading comprehension as well as her receptive language. For students such as Sofia, instruction in reading comprehension often parallels instruction in receptive language. Both reading and listening comprehension can be improved simultaneously. For example, when Sofia either listens to or reads a story, she needs to learn to ask and answer such questions as, "Who is the story about?" "Where did it happen?" "What was the problem in the story?" "What happened to solve the problem?" "How did the story end?"

Some students fail to relate what they are reading to what they already know about a topic. This is the case with Sam. Other students have limited background knowledge to bring to the reading process. Teaching strategies that encourage students to activate their knowledge or activities that provide opportunities for students to enrich their backgrounds before reading can facilitate comprehension.

Although some students do not rely enough on background knowledge, others rely too much on background knowledge, as is the case with Paolo. Often, these are the same students who tend to over-rely on context clues when identifying unknown words. When these students begin reading informational and technical texts that require accurate recall of information, comprehension problems become more evident. Comprehension strategies that encourage self-questioning can encourage such students to pay closer attention to the information presented in the text.

Kim has difficulty monitoring her understanding while reading—the metacognitive skill of comprehension monitoring. Strategies that teach students to ask questions about their comprehension and that require them to paraphrase and summarize what they read should help them to develop metacognitive skills (see Klingner, Vaughn, & Boardman, 2015 for sample reading comprehension practices for students with learning disabilities).

In this section on reading comprehension, we examine a framework for reading comprehension and then focus on instructional strategies for improving reading comprehension. Finally, we discuss approaches used for teaching reading and reading comprehension.

A Framework for Reading Comprehension

One way of guiding reading comprehension instruction is to determine the different reasoning and information-processing skills that are required by readers to construct meaning from what they read. When teaching reading comprehension, we can divide comprehension into types of reasoning according to how readers have to activate their background knowledge to construct the meaning. These three arbitrary categories are as follows:

1. *Textually explicit:* Information is derived directly from the text with minimal input from the readers' background knowledge.
2. *Textually implicit:* Information is derived from the text, but readers are required to use their background knowledge to put together the ideas presented in the text.
3. *Scriptually implicit:* Information is not stated in the text. Readers have to activate and use their background knowledge to obtain the information.

We can also categorize comprehension by the type of information or relationship it represents. For example, a basic question might be something like, "What did Pat do first to get help?" requiring the reader to focus on the

sequence of events in the story. Therefore, it requires a sequencing or temporal relationship. The question "Why was everyone proud of Pat?" requires understanding of a causal relationship. Types of information or relationships can be represented in text in many ways (e.g., main ideas, details, sequence, cause and effect). We can combine types of information with processes required (i.e., textually explicit, textually implicit, and scriptually implicit) to form a matrix for reading comprehension (Figure 8.7).

This matrix can be used in planning comprehension instruction, such as planning activities that will encourage students to engage in all the different facets of comprehension (cells in the matrix). For example, to work on sequencing of ideas, students could retell a story by having each student in the group tell one episode from the story; copy a story onto sentence strips and discuss how to arrange the sentences in a logical order; read an explanation of how to do something and write a list of the steps in order; ask each other sequence questions about a description of how to make something; write a description of how to make something; and then have the other students in the group read the description and make the object. Whereas all of these activities focus on sequencing, both explicit and implicit comprehension are required to complete the various activities.

A matrix rather than a taxonomy is used to depict the various aspects of comprehension because comprehension should not be thought of as a set of hierarchical skills. The comprehension process entails ongoing transactions between a text, the reader, and the author and the active use of comprehension strategies such as predicting, activating background knowledge, asking questions, clarifying, and checking for understanding (D. O. Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008; Klingner et al., 2015).

But comprehension goes further than this. We also read to reflect on and judge the quality of the information. To read critically, students must be able to suspend judgment, consider other viewpoints, and draw logical conclusions. Thus, we engage in *critical reading*, including such skills as the following:

- Recognizing the author's purpose
- Distinguishing between facts and opinions
- Identifying words that signal opinions
- Verifying factual statements
- Detecting assumptions
- Judging sources
- Identifying persuasive language
- Detecting propaganda
- Drawing logical conclusions

Critical reading involves thinking about the text in relation to the readers' beliefs. For example, when Ms. Andretti, the intermediate-level inclusion teacher, was working on critical and aesthetic reading in a third-grade classroom, she had the students read a passage about Pat and her father. After reading, she asked the students, "Have you ever had an experience that made you feel like Pat?" Figure 8.8 lists sample areas of critical and aesthetic reading and sample teacher comments.

Guidelines for Teaching Reading Comprehension

If comprehension is the essence of reading, how do teachers go about teaching students with learning and behavior problems to be effective comprehenders? In the late 1970s and early 1980s, observational research indicated that teachers spent

Figure 8.7 Matrix for Reading Comprehension

	Type of Reasoning Based on Background Knowledge		
Type of Information or Relationship	**Textually Explicit**	**Textually Implicit**	**Scriptually Implicit**
Main idea/summary	X	X	X
Detail	X	X	X
Sequence	X	X	X
Comparative relationship	X	X	X
Cause/effect relationship	X	X	X
Conditional relationship	X	X	X
Vocabulary definition	X	X	X
Vocabulary application	X	X	X
Figurative language definition	X	X	X
Figurative language application	X	X	X
Conclusion	X	X	X
Application		X	X
Analysis		X	X
Synthesis		X	X
Evaluation			X

Figure 8.8 Critical and Aesthetic Reading

Critical Reading

Critical reading: The reader reflects on and makes judgments about the content or information in the piece.

Sample Areas of Reflection or Judgment	*Sample Comments*
Reality or Fantasy	I don't think the author expected us to think this could really happen.
Fact or Opinion	You really get the idea they are pushing their point of view.
Adequacy and Validity	Some of this information just isn't right.
Worth	This piece really helped me write my report. I think this article could hurt his political campaign.

Aesthetic Reading

Aesthetic reading: The reader reflects on and makes judgments about the literary style of a piece.

Sample Areas of Reflection or Judgment	*Sample Comments*
Plot	I like the way the author always kept me interested in what was happening.
Characters	I didn't know enough about the witch to really understand why she did it.
Imagery	I could just picture myself being there.
Language	When the author said, "That was one frightened man," I felt a chill in my body.

little time teaching their students how to comprehend what they were reading (Duffy, Lanier, & Roehler, 1980; Durkin, 1978–79). For example, in Durkin's observational studies of reading instruction in fourth-grade classrooms, only 20 minutes of comprehension instruction was observed in more than 4000 minutes of reading instruction. Much of what teachers did to "teach" comprehension was ask their students questions about what they were reading. Furthermore, teachers typically provided a steady diet of literal or textually explicit comprehension questions, a ratio of 4:1 literal to inferential, with lower reading groups getting asked even more literal questions than higher-level groups (Guszak, 1972).

Since then, instructional research and practice have focused on how to teach reading comprehension. Even when students have reading comprehension problems, it is important to first determine the factors that may be contributing to these reading difficulties. Before focusing solely on reading comprehension instruction, teachers should answer the following questions:

- Do students have adequate decoding and phonics skills so that they can read words?
- Do students read within the expected rate of reading for their grade level?
- Do students have adequate knowledge of the meaning of the words they are reading?
- Does students' background knowledge adequately prepare them to understand the text?

For any student who does not meet these criteria, a complete reading comprehension program will require additional emphasis on decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and building background knowledge. It is unlikely that comprehension strategies alone will be sufficient for any student with reading difficulties.

Apply the Concept 8.6 looks at comprehension issues with students who are ELLs.

One of the keys to teaching reading comprehension, particularly for students with learning and behavior problems, is to teach them to use comprehension and comprehension-monitoring strategies (Block, Morrow, & Parris, 2008; Dymock & Nicholson, 2010; Klingner et al., 2007; 2015). This includes such strategies as the following:

- *Activating background knowledge:* Thinking about what one already knows about the topic and how one's knowledge relates to what one is reading.
- *Preteaching critical vocabulary and concepts:* Teaching students to prepare to read a text by preteaching essential vocabulary and concepts that facilitate learning and understanding.
- *Generating questions:* Asking relevant questions that promote understanding, such as *who, what, when, where, why*, and *how* questions.
- *Monitoring comprehension:* Checking for understanding and using fix-up strategies (e.g., rereading, clarifying a concept) to facilitate comprehension.
- *Clarifying:* Clarifying unclear concepts or vocabulary.
- *Using graphic organizers:* Using visual aids that illustrate concepts and relationships among concepts in a text while reading the text.
- *Finding main ideas:* Determining the most important information and explaining this information in one's own words.
- *Summarizing:* Identifying the main ideas, connecting the main ideas, eliminating redundant information, and putting this information in one's own words.
- *Using text structure:* Using knowledge of different text structures (e.g., narrative, expositive) as a framework for comprehension.

8.6 Apply the Concept

Understanding Reading Comprehension with Students Who Are English Language Learners

For each of the following questions, ask yourself whether you implement the practice: never (1); some of the time, but not enough (2); whenever needed (3). Then, choose several instructional practices that you rated 1 or 2 and begin to implement them more frequently.

Do You

- Ask students to make predictions about what they are going to read by using such features of the text as titles, pictures, and key words?
- Provide students with opportunities to integrate their background knowledge with the critical concepts in the text?
- Identify the language demands of the text they are reading, and preteach related vocabulary and concepts?
- Request that students monitor the words and concepts they do not understand while they're reading, make note of them, and then follow up with them?
- Ask students questions they can answer and then scaffold responses to meet language needs?
- Model and provide opportunities for students to construct mental images that represent text, so they can better remember and understand what they read?
- Provide opportunities for students to seek clarification about confusing aspects of what they read?
- Plan language-related activities that link with comprehending text, and then make these explicit to students?
- Give students adequate opportunities to develop questions about what they have read, and pose these questions to fellow students?
- Give students adequate time, and practice responding orally?
- Provide practice in summarizing and integrating information from text?

Source: Based on S. Linan-Thompson & S. Vaughn, *Research-Based Methods of Reading Instruction for English Language Learners* (Alexandria, VA: ASCD, 2007). Reprinted with permission.

In other words, teachers need to teach cognitive strategies that will give students with learning and behavior problems the tools for understanding and constructing meaning from what they are reading.

Knowing what the strategies are is the first step for a teacher; the more difficult one is knowing how to teach them. As is the case with higher-level academic learning, this is particularly challenging because comprehension involves thinking processes that are not nearly so visible as they are in other skills, such as spelling and math calculations. Therefore, instruction in reading comprehension is beneficial when teachers:

- Provide rationales and evidence for the effectiveness of its use.
- Describe and model the strategy using thinking aloud.
- Provide supported practice and feedback.
- Provide independent practice.
- Teach for generalization (i.e., when and where strategies apply) and maintenance.

Comprehension instruction can be accomplished through more direct explanations and mental modeling associated with cognitive strategy. Based on ideas from schema theories, our instruction assists students in activating their prior knowledge about a topic before they read so that they can apply this knowledge both during and after reading. Students also learn the importance of predicting and questioning as they read.

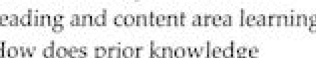
Effective comprehension instruction encourages students to engage actively not only in discussions related to the content of the text, but also in instructional conversations about the reading process. These discussions can be prompted by the following steps:

1. *Before reading*, the teacher activates the students' background knowledge for the selected passage and/or provides experiences to enrich their backgrounds. The teacher assists students in thinking about how this text may be related to other texts in terms of content, story line, and text structure. The teacher helps students to set purposes for reading by predicting and asking questions about what they are going to read. It is important that teacher support and scaffolding are used in order to prevent students from "guessing" without consideration of relevant text cues. It is also valuable for teachers to preteach proper nouns and to give students key ideas about the text before reading.
2. *During reading*, the teacher encourages students to self-question and monitor their comprehension as they read.
3. *After reading*, the teacher uses follow-up activities such as
   - discussions that focus on the content of the reading as well as evaluation of the content and the writing style.

- discussions that encourage students to generate more questions and ideas for further reading and investigation.
- retellings that assist students in summarizing and organizing what they have read.

Students with reading difficulties benefit from specific instructional supports for improving their reading comprehenson (Duke et al., 2011; Klingner et al., 2015). The idea behind explicit instruction of comprehension is that comprehension can be improved by teaching students to use specific cognitive strategies or to reason strategically when they encounter barriers to comprehension while reading. To see an example of comprehension instruction with middle-grade students, go to: **www.youtube.com: Reading Comprehension, 3–6, Part 1: Enhancing Explicit Instruction**.

The kind of reading involved in constructing a text base is what many progressive state standards in reading mean when they ask students to "read closely to determine what the text says explicitly" (p. 10). See Apply the Concept 8.7.

> **MyLab Education**
> **Video Example 8.2**
>
> In this video, experts explain the importance of developing students' prior knowledge in relation to reading and content area learning.
> 
> How does prior knowledge influence students' reading fluency and comprehension?

Previewing, Predicting, and Developing Prior Knowledge

Reading comprehension instruction occurs before reading through previewing, predicting, and developing background knowledge. Prereading activities help students prepare to understand and learn from what they read. Taking time to prepare students before they read can pay big dividends in terms of their understanding and finding reading enjoyable. It's important to note that the CCSS for Reading (**www.corestandards.org**) indicate that front loading as a means of previewing is not a recommended practice. When teachers "front load," they provide so much information about what students are going to read, it is not necessary to actually read the text. This is substantially different from effective previewing, in which students are provided preparation for reading and learning.

Graves and his colleagues (Graves et al., 2011) suggest that prereading activities

- Set purposes for reading.
- Motivate students to read.
- Activate and build background knowledge.
- Build knowledge of the text features.
- Relate reading to students' lives.
- Preteach vocabulary and concepts.
- Provide opportunities for prequestioning, predicting, and direction setting.

For students with reading disabilities, it is particularly helpful to preteach proper nouns such as persons' names, places, and things. Preteaching these words helps students read more effectively and understand what they read.

8.7 Apply the Concept

Structure of a Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction Lesson

- 10 minutes—Students practice their oral-reading fluency with poetry or informational books (3 days per week) or hands-on science activity and/or study of science concepts.
- 10 minutes—The teacher provides a comprehension minilesson on self-monitoring, inferencing, or fix-up strategies, including rereading, chunking, discussing, questioning, visualizing, connecting, looking up, reading ahead, reading aloud, and using knowledge.
- 15 minutes—One of three teacher-led guided reading groups uses texts related to the conceptual theme, during which the teacher models, scaffolds, and provides guided practice in the application of reading comprehension strategies to serve learning related to the conceptual theme.
- 15 minutes—While the teacher is with the second guided reading group, students write about information and concepts learned from the guided reading text or about their responses to a theme-related novel they are reading.
- 15 minutes—While the teacher is with the third guided reading group, students engage in independent reading of novels for which they have book clubs.

Note: Some teachers added up to 5 minutes to each activity for a total of 90 minutes of concept-oriented reading instruction.

Source: Based on "Contributions of Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction to Knowledge About Interventions for Motivations in Reading," by J. T. Guthrie, A. McRae, & S. L. Klauda, 2007, *Educational Psychologist, 42*(4), 237–250.

Remember, prereading activities should be relatively brief and provide students just enough information and connection so that they can read successfully.

Web Resources

For a program that is used with K–8 students, in conjunction with the three-tiered RTI model to support struggling readers, students can practice phonological awareness and phonics to help themselves improve their reading skills at Lexia by Lexia Learning Systems, Inc., at **http://www.lexialearning.com/**.

What instructional techniques can a teacher use that will help students with learning and behavior problems to activate relevant background knowledge (schema), bridge what they know to what they are reading, motivate them to read, assist them in making predictions about what they are going to be reading, preview the reading, and assist them in becoming familiar with difficult vocabulary? Activating prior knowledge is particularly important for students with learning and behavior problems. As with all learners, their prior knowledge is crucial to the successful construction of meaning. Apply the Concept 8.8 presents ideas for facilitating and teaching comprehension.

One way to promote brainstorming is the use of mind maps, which are really sophisticated graphic organizers.

Brainstorming Brainstorming is a teaching strategy that activates the students' relevant prior knowledge, aids the teacher in determining the extent of the students' prior knowledge, and stimulates interest in the topic.

Evidence-Based Practice

Brainstorming

Procedures: Brainstorming works best with groups of students who are reading the same or related selections. Before beginning the activity, determine the major topic or concept presented in the selection(s). Next decide what to use as a stimulus to represent that topic. It might be a single word or phrase, a picture, a poem, or a short excerpt from the reading passage. Before reading, conduct the brainstorming session:

1. Present the stimulus to the students.
2. Ask the students to list as many words or phrases as they can associate with the stimulus. Encourage them to think about everything they know about the topic or concept. Allow

8.8 Apply the Concept

Strategies for Promoting Reading Comprehension for Students Who Are Culturally Diverse and/or English Language Learners

For students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and for students who are ELLs, a number of strategies can be used to promote reading comprehension.

Making Input More Comprehensible

- Teach new concepts by working from the students' prior knowledge and incorporating the funds of knowledge from the students' communities.
- Use demonstrations and gestures to augment oral and written communication.
- Discuss connections between the concepts being read and the students' home cultures.
- Encourage students to share the new vocabulary in their first language and incorporate the first language into instruction.
- Pair more proficient ELLs with less proficient peers, and encourage students to discuss what they are reading.
- Provide opportunities for students to learn to read and to read in their first language.
- Highlight key words and phrases in text, and incorporate them into semantic maps.
- Teach text structures, and use visual representations of text structures.
- Ask questions or discuss new ideas or vocabulary; slow the pace.
- Repeat key ideas, and write them.
- Use think alouds to make comprehension strategies more explicit.

Incorporating Multicultural Literature into the Reading Program

- Select literature that reflects various cultures.
- Study authors from various cultures.
- Read literature that incorporates various dialects.
- Select genres that are typical of different cultures.
- Use book lists, directories, websites, and textbooks on multicultural education as resources for multicultural literature.
- Provide text written in the students' first languages available to them.

several minutes for the students to think and get ready to report or write their ideas.

3. Record the students' associations on the board. Ask for other associations, and add them to the list. While writing ideas on the board, assist students in making connections among these ideas by talking about how they are related.
4. With the students, categorize the associations. Clarify the ideas and discuss what titles to use for the categories. You may want to organize the ideas into a learning map.

Comments: Brainstorming is a quick and simple way to activate background knowledge. It usually takes 5 to 10 minutes to complete. However, for some students and topic combinations, simple associations without further discussion may not provide enough input to activate and build on students' prior knowledge. The next procedure provides additional activities for further activating knowledge.

PreReading Plan The PreReading Plan (PReP) is a three-phase instructional-assessment strategy that builds on the activity of brainstorming. Designed by Langer (1981, 2011), it assists students in accessing knowledge related to the major concepts presented in a reading selection.

Evidence-Based Practice

PreReading Plan

Procedures: Before beginning the activity, provide a phrase or picture to stimulate group discussion about a key concept in the text. For example, if a science selection is about the types and characteristics of mammals, *mammals* might serve as the stimulus word. After introducing the topic, conduct the following three-phase process:

1. *Initial association with the concept.* Cue students by saying something like, "Say what you think are attributes of mammals." Have the students generate a list of ideas, words, and associations. Record the key ideas on the board, noting the student's name by each association.
2. *Reflections on initial associations.* Now ask the students, "What made you think . . . [the responses given by each of the students during phase 1]?" This phase requires the students to bring to the conscious level their prior knowledge and how it relates to the key concept. It also allows the students to listen to each other's responses.
3. *Re-formation of knowledge.* After students have had an opportunity to think and tell about what triggered their ideas, ask, "On the basis of our discussion, do you have any new ideas about mammals?" This question gives the students the opportunity to discuss how they have elaborated or changed their ideas on the basis of the previous discussion. Because the students have had the opportunity to listen to other students, new links between prior knowledge and the key concept are also formed.

On the basis of the information gathered during this three-phase procedure, Langer and Applebee (2007) present a means of assessing prior knowledge into levels to determine whether further concept building will need to be completed before reading. The three levels and their instructional implications are as follows: (1) *Much Knowledge*, including analogies and links to related key ideas and concepts, (2) *Some Knowledge*, including definitions and links to much of the key information needed to comprehend adequately, and (3) *Little Knowledge*, which reflects students who have very little understanding of the key ideas, vocabulary, and concepts and are unlikely to understand what they read without substantive support for building their background knowledge. Remember, depending on the content, students' background knowledge varies.

Comments: The PReP provides a direct means of activating the students' background knowledge. The authors have frequently used both brainstorming and PReP, particularly with upper-elementary and secondary students with learning and behavior problems. We find that taking the extra time to conduct PReP is worthwhile, because it requires students to bring to the conscious level why they made their associations, and it gives them the opportunity to reflect on what they have learned through the discussion. It is a good idea to have students add to and adjust their lists during reading and after they read.

Strategies for organizing story maps are discussed later in this chapter, and strategies for developing content maps are discussed in Chapter 10.

Text Preview Text previews are designed to increase students' prior knowledge, motivate students to read, and provide a scaffold for text comprehension (M. F. Graves et al., 2011). Text previews can be used with students at varying reading and grade levels and with both narrative and expository texts.

Evidence-Based Practice

Text Preview

Procedures: The two major steps in using text previews are preparing the preview and then using it with the students.

1. *Preparation and construction of text previews.* A text preview is a synopsis of a text that is written in an organized framework that enhances student comprehension of the text by bridging it to their real-world experiences. It has three sections: one that piques student interest, a brief discussion of the text's theme (e.g., for stories this could include the setting, character descriptions, and essential story organization), and questions or directions that guide student reading.
2. *Presentation of text previews.* The following steps are suggested for implementing the text preview and should take no longer than 5 to 10 minutes:
   - Cue students about the new reading.
   - Discuss an interesting aspect of the story or content that will pique motivation.

- Make connections to the students' lives and world knowledge.
- Present the questions or directions that should guide student reading.
- Have students read the text.

Discussing an interesting aspect of the story or content helps students to delve into reading materials, knowing that there will be new knowledge, discoveries, and/or excitement. These motivational activities often involve hands-on experiences and intrigue that are then tied to the story that is being read. For example, a teacher might say, "Feel these fabrics, and tell me what it makes you think about and how it makes you feel. In the story, Robbie has a special blanket made out of these fabrics—satin and flannel. As you read the story think about what is special about this blanket and how it feels." Making connections to the students' lives and their world knowledge also activates background knowledge and creates motivation. Using a connections chart such as the one in Figure 8.9 helps students think about connections they can make to their own lives and to world knowledge they have about a topic. For example, in reading about dolphins, students can list experiences they have had with dolphins as well as facts they know about dolphins before they read and then add to the list after they read.

Comments: Although text previews take time to prepare, students report that previews enable them to understand texts to a fuller extent (Simmons et al., 2010). When using text previews with expository text, the teacher may want to include important points, vocabulary, and big ideas related to the text (Simmons et al., 2010). Additionally, teachers can use text previews as potential writing assignments. Students can be assigned to develop text previews for other students' guided reading. Critical thinking about the ideas presented in a text selection will ensue as students create text previews for one another.

K-W-L K-W-L is a strategy that is designed to activate students' background knowledge and to assist them in setting purposes for reading expository text (J. Bryant, 1998; Ogle, 1986, 1989, 2009).

Figure 8.9 Connections Chart About Dolphins

Connection to Dolphins

Connections to Our Experiences	Connections to World Knowledge
Reneé, Maria, Jon, Marcos petted the dolphins at Sea World	Skin is soft and smooth
	Seem to communicate with one another
Peter saw dolphins swim under boat when his family was sailing in Florida	Bottlenose dolphin
Everyone has seen dolphins on TV	Have to come to surface to breathe

MyLab Education
Video Example 8.3

In this video, you will see co-teachers use the K-W-L strategy with students to expand their learning about coral reefs. How is this strategy beneficial for students? How can the K-W-L strategy be used in other subject areas?

Evidence-Based Practice

K-W-L

Procedures: The K-W-L strategy consists of three basic steps representative of the cognitive/metacognitive steps that students use in this strategy:

1. Accessing what I Know
2. Determining what I Want to learn
3. Recalling what I Learned

To assist the students in using the strategy, Ogle (1986, 1989, 2009) developed a simple worksheet for the students to complete during the reading–thinking process (see Figure 8.10).

During the *Know* step, the teacher and students engage in a discussion designed to assist students in thinking about what they already know about the topic of the text. For this step, the teacher starts by using a brainstorming procedure (see the section on brainstorming). As in the PReP, students are encouraged to discuss where or how they learned the information so as to provide information about the source and substantiveness of their ideas. After brainstorming, the teachers and students discuss the general categories of information that are likely to be encountered when they read, and how their brainstormed ideas could help them determine the categories. For example, a teacher might cue students that when they read they should consider one category that addresses "causes of the war" and a second category that considers "consequences of the war."

During the *Want to Learn* step, the teacher and students discuss what they want to learn from reading the text. Although most of this step uses group discussion, before students begin to read, each student writes down the specific questions of greatest personal interest.

During the *Learned* step, the students write what they learned from reading. They should also check the questions they generated in the previous step to find out whether they were addressed in the text.

Comments: K-W-L is a strategy for helping students to actively engage in the reading process and for assisting teachers in teaching reading using an interactive model of reading. Informal evaluation of the strategy indicates that students recalled more information in articles when they used K-W-L and that they enjoyed using the strategy and used it independently (Ogle, 1986). Carr and Ogle (1987) added mapping and summarizing activities to K-W-L to gain the advantage of these powerful comprehension tools. Ogle (1989) added a fourth column, "what we

Figure 8.10 K-W-L-Q Chart for Pond and Pond Life

SOURCE: Based on P. R. Schmidt (1999), KWLQ: Inquiry and literacy learning in science, *The Reading Teacher, 52*, pp. 789–792.

What I Know	What I Want to Learn	What I Learned	More Questions I Have
Contains water	How does the pond get its water?	Underground springs and rain	Why do ponds die?
Smaller than a lake	Why are ponds green and muddy?	Algae and other plants make it green	What happens to a pond in winter?
Fish			
Ducks	Does the temperature change?	Like the air but temperature is less affected the deeper you go	How does algae help or hurt a pond?
Frogs			
Muddy	What fish live in the pond?	Blue gill, trout, bass, catfish	
Algae	What insects live in the pond?	Dragonflies, mosquitoes, water fleas	
Insects on top			
Birds eat insects	What plants live in the pond?	Algae, cattails, water lilies	

still want to learn," and referred to this adaptation as K-W-L Plus. J. Bryant (1998) referred to it as K-W-W-L to assist students in generating questions and designing scientific experiments, and Schmidt (1999) referred to it as K-W-L-Q, with the *Q* representing more questions. This addition encourages further research and reading.

Questioning Strategies

Asking questions is a major vehicle that teachers use to foster understanding and retention and to check for comprehension. When questions are asked about information in text, that information is remembered better. Asking higher-level questions that require integration of background and text knowledge (see Figure 8.6) will promote deeper processing and therefore more learning (Boardman, Vaughn, et al., 2016; Solis et al., 2012). Even asking "Why?" and "How?" can significantly increase retention of information, and encouraging students to ask these questions while reading benefits their comprehension (Joseph, Alber-Morgan, Cullen, & Rouse, 2016). Some of the simple questions that students can learn to ask include:

- What's happening?
- What's the author's purpose
- How does what's happening connect with previous reading?
- What do I need to know more about?

However, simply asking questions does not ensure that students will develop questioning strategies. Students' answers to questions can give limited insight into their understanding of text. As has already been demonstrated, teacher and student questioning before reading helps to activate prior knowledge and to set purposes for reading. Self-questioning during reading (e.g., Does this make sense? Am I understanding what I am reading? How does this relate to what I already know? What will happen next?) assists students in monitoring comprehension.

The following techniques require teachers to model comprehension questions and comprehension-monitoring questions, teach students to recognize types of questions, and encourage students to self-question before, during, and after they read.

Question Development Learning to ask and answer questions before, during, and after reading is an effective technique associated with improved understanding of text. One of the advantages of this approach is that it can be used in narrative text as well as information text. Also, this practice is particularly useful for students in grades 4 and above who have reading disabilities (Joseph et al., 2016; Solis et al., 2012).

Evidence-Based Practice

Student Question Generation

The goal is to model question generation through thinking aloud and turn taking. The teacher takes a designated amount of text (with younger students a couple of sentences; with older students a paragraph or more) and ensures that students all have access to the same text. First, the teacher asks everyone to read the text silently. Then the teacher reads the text aloud. After reading, the teacher says, "I wonder, _____" and then asks a question about what she has read. She then asks the student to read the same text silently and ask a question. When students become more proficient at asking questions, the teacher's modeling can be reduced.

Procedures: This technique for student question generation relies heavily on modeling, which is a major premise of cognitive strategy instruction. Select materials at the students' instructional to independent reading levels. You can select materials that are more narrative, or you can also use information text.

You and the students read a sentence or section of the passage and then take turns asking each other questions. Your role is to model good questioning and to provide feedback to students about their questions. In modeling, include higher-level questions that require you to use scriptually and textually implicit information and that require critical and aesthetic reading. Also include monitoring questions (e.g., Does this make sense?).

A YouTube video example shows how a teacher uses sticky notes with students to facilitate their tracking their questions while reading: **www.youtube.com: Active Reading-Asking Questions Using Post Its.**

Many procedures can be used for teaching students to generate questions before, during, and after reading. One way is to teach students various question types and to teach them the stems that go with these question types (Swanson, Vaughn et al., 2011; Swanson, Wanzek, Vaughn, et al., 2017).

The procedure itself consists of the following steps:

1. *Silent reading.* You and the students read the sentence or paragraph(s).
2. *Student questioning.* Close your book while the students ask questions. Model appropriate answers, and reinforce appropriate question generation. The students ask as many questions as possible.
3. *Teacher questioning.* The students close their books, and you ask questions modeling a variety of question types (see Figure 8.6).
4. *Integration of the text.* After completing the procedure with the first sentence or section, repeat the process with subsequent sentences or sections. Integrate the new section with previous sections by asking questions that relate to new and old sections.
5. *Predictive questioning.* When the students have read enough to make a prediction about the rest of the passage, ask predictive questions (e.g., What do you think will happen? Why do you think so?). If the predictions and verification are reasonable, you and the students move to the next step.
6. *Reading.* You and the students read to the end of the passage to verify and discuss your predictions.

Comments: One important aspect of this strategy is the questions that the teacher models, including:

- *Predictable questions:* The typical *who, what, when, where, why,* and *how* questions.
- *Mind-opening questions:* Questions that are designed to help the students understand how written and oral language are used to communicate ideas.
- *Introspective questions:* Metacognitive questions that are oriented toward self-monitoring and self-evaluation.
- *Ponderable questions:* Questions that stimulate discussion and for which no right or wrong answer is apparent.
- *Elaborative knowledge questions:* Questions that require students to integrate their background knowledge with the information given in the text.

This procedure can also be used as a game. The students and teacher take turns asking questions and keeping score of appropriate answers. We also recommend that the text be read in longer, more natural segments rather than individual sentences. Some students benefit from having question starters to help them initiate questions. These question starters could be things like, Why did he . . . ? Why do you think the ending . . . ? What would happen if . . . ?

Question–Answer Relationships Strategy The question–answer relationships strategy (QARs; Raphael, 1982, 1984, 1986; Raphael, Highfield, & Au, 2006) is designed to assist students in labeling the types of questions that are asked and to use this information to help guide them as they develop answers. QARs was developed by Raphael and Pearson (1982) to facilitate correct responses to questions. It helps students realize they need to consider both the text and their prior knowledge when answering questions and to use strategic behavior to adjust the use of each of these sources.

Evidence-Based Practice

Question–Answer Relationships Strategy

Procedures: QARs was originally taught by Raphael (1984), using the three categories of information suggested in the matrix for reading comprehension (Figure 8.7). The three categories were renamed for use with students:

1. *Right There:* Words used to create the question and words used for the answer are in the same sentence (textually explicit).
2. *Think and Search:* The answer is in the text, but words used to create the question and those used for an appropriate answer would not be in the same sentence (textually implicit).
3. *On My Own:* The answer is not found in the text but in one's head (scriptually implicit).

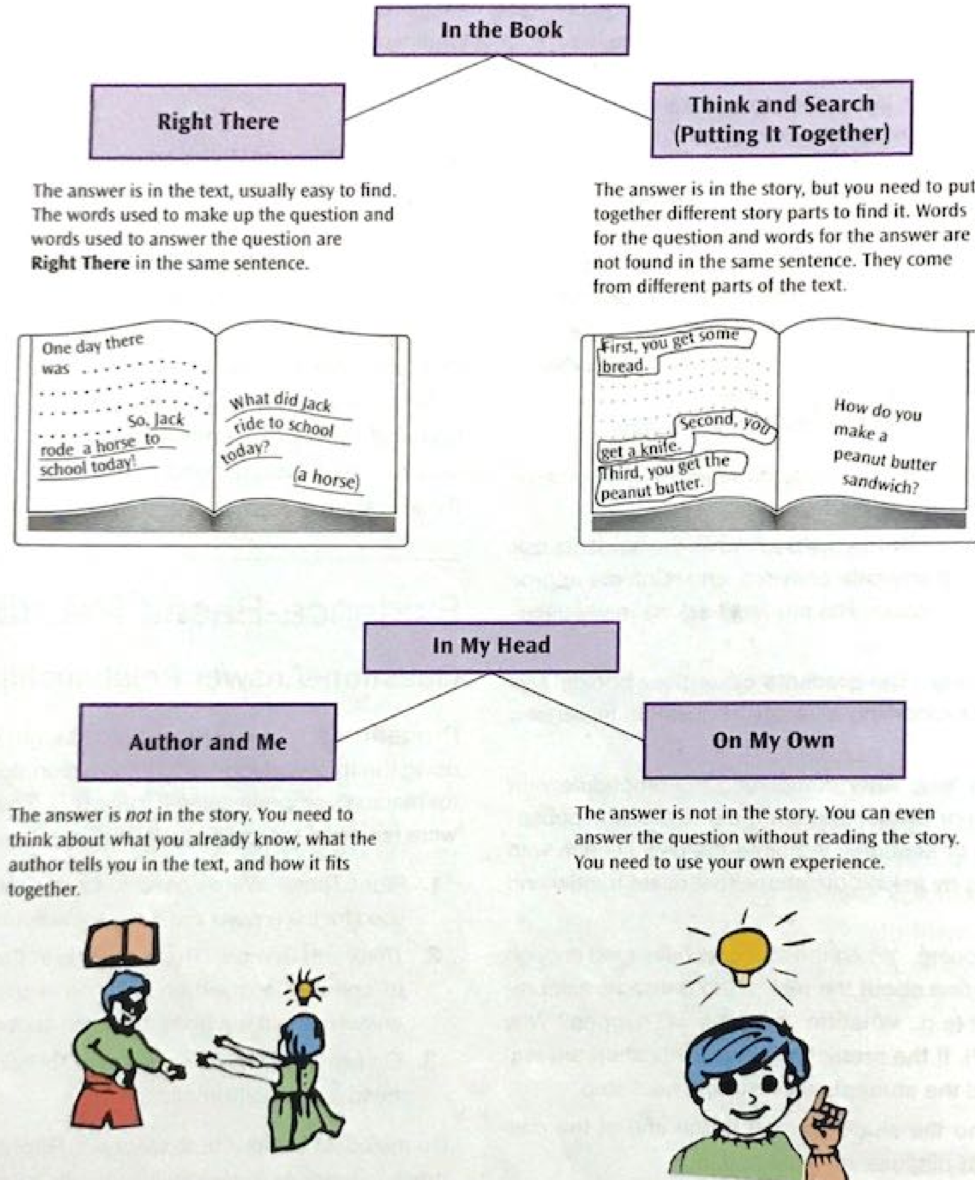
On the basis of input from teachers, Raphael (1986) modified these categories to include two major categories—*In the Book* and *In My Head*—and then further divided these categories, as shown in Figure 8.11.

Raphael suggests the following procedure for introducing QARs: The first day, introduce the students to the concept of QARs, using the two major categories. Use several short passages (from two to five sentences) to demonstrate the relationships. Provide practice by asking students to identify the type of QAR, the answer to the question, and the strategy they used for finding the answer. The progression for teaching should be from highly supportive to independent:

1. Provide the text, questions, answers, QAR label for each question, and reason why the label was appropriate.
2. Provide the text, questions, answers, and QAR label for each question. Have the students supply the reason for the label.
3. Provide the text, questions, and answers, and have the students supply the QAR labels and reasons for the labels.
4. Provide the text and questions, and have the students supply the answers, QAR labels, and reasons for the labels.

Figure 8.11 Cue Card for Question–Answer Relationships (QARs)

SOURCE: Based on T. E. Raphael (1986). Teaching question–answer relationships, revisited, *The Reading Teacher, 39*(6), pp. 516–523.



When the students have a clear picture of the difference between *In My Head* and *In the Book*, teach the next level of differentiation for each one of the major categories. First, work on *In the Book*, then go to *In My Head*. When the information must come from the reader but in connection with the information presented by the author, then the QAR is *Author and You*. Falling into this category, for example, are questions that ask the readers to consider their perceptions or views about an interpretation from the text.

Once the students are effectively using the QARs in short passages, gradually increase the length of the passages and the variety of reading materials. Review the strategy, and model its use on the first question. Have the students then use the strategy to complete the rest of the questions.

Comments: After teaching QARs using the original three categories, Raphael (1984) found that groups of low-, average-, and high-achieving fourth-grade students had higher performance on a comprehension test and gave evidence that the QARs transferred to reading improvement in the content areas. This strategy helped lower-achieving students to answer all three types of questions, particularly their performance on textually explicit and implicit questions. Simmonds (1992) taught 24 special education teachers to implement either QARs or selected traditional methods of reading comprehension instruction, including the skills of answering literal questions (recall of factual information and main ideas), locating supportive details, and drawing conclusions. Using a lesson sequence similar to the one just described, they found that students who participated in QARs instruction performed better than other students on tests of comprehension over the social studies text they read. Labeling the types of questions and then using that information to assist in answering questions appear to constitute an effective strategy for students and one that encourages active involvement in the comprehension process. QARs-type approaches have also been used with secondary students with reading disabilities (Klingner et al., 2001).

Self-Questioning Strategies Self-questioning strategies are a good example of how metacognition assists students in reading. These questions typically have the student focus on activating prior knowledge and setting purposes for reading, asking questions to assist the comprehension process, checking understanding during reading, and reviewing after reading to determine understanding. Questions that foster comprehension include:

- What's happening?
- What's the big idea?
- What do you want to know more about?
- Who or what is interesting to you?
- What do you want to find out?
- What's happening so far?
- How well do I understand what I'm reading?
- What would I like to understand better?
- What is the author saying, and what did I think about it?
- What am I learning?

Evidence-Based Practice

Self-Questioning Strategies

Procedures: First, teach the students the concept of a main idea. During this stage, teach them how to identify the main idea(s) in paragraphs.

Teach the students the steps of self-questioning strategy:

1. Why are you studying this passage? (So that you can answer some questions you will be given later.)
2. Find the main idea(s) in the paragraph, and underline it (them).
3. Think of a question about the main idea you have underlined. Remember what a good question should be like. (*Good questions* are those that directly focus on important textual elements. Write the question in the margin.)
4. Learn the answer to your question. (Write the answer in the margin.)
5. Always look back at the previous questions and answers to see how each successive question and answer provides you with more information.

In teaching, model the strategy, and then have the students study the steps in the strategy. Next, have the students practice using this strategy on individual paragraphs, and provide them with immediate corrective feedback. Have the students use a cue card like the one in Figure 8.12 to assist them in remembering the steps in the strategy. When the students succeed, switch to multiple-paragraph passages, and gradually fade the use of the cue cards. Give feedback at the end of each passage. At the end of each lesson, discuss the students' progress and the usefulness of the self-questioning strategy.

Figure 8.12 Frame for Answering Wh- and How Questions

Student Name: ______________________

Title: ______________________

Pages: ______________________

Date: ______________________

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

Comments: Students with learning disabilities who learned the self-questioning strategy performed significantly higher on comprehension tests than did students who were not taught the strategy (Berkeley et al., 2011; Solis et al., 2012).

Another self-questioning strategy designed specifically for secondary students with reading disabilities, the Kansas University Center for Research on Learning (KU-CRL)

self-questioning strategy, was developed at the KU-CRL (F. L. Clark, Deshler, Schumaker, Alley, & Warner, 1984; Schumaker et al., 2006). This strategy facilitates secondary-level students with learning disabilities in comprehending and remembering the important information presented in content-area textbooks. The KU-CRL self-questioning strategy focuses on teaching students how to generate questions about important information in a passage, predict the answers, search for the answers while reading, and talk to themselves about the answers by using the mnemonic ASK IT. The ASK IT steps are as follows:

1. Attend to the clues as you read.
2. Say some questions.
3. Keep predictions in mind.
4. Identify the answer.
5. Talk about the answers.

For self-questioning strategies to be effective for students with reading difficulties, it is important that teachers provide modeling, direct coaching, prompting, and guidance (Swanson, Edmonds, et al., 2011). Teaching students to stop and question themselves before, during, and/or after reading is another key element of success (Edmonds, Vaughn, et al., 2009). Self-questioning practices can also be effective in promoting understanding and interest when reading short stories with older students (Janssen, Braaksma, & Couzijn, 2009).

Questioning the Author Though not technically a practice designed to teach students to ask themselves questions, Questioning the Author (Beck & McKeown, 2006; McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009) provides students with well-scaffolded instruction that supports their interactions with texts and eventually with each other as though the author were available for comment and conversation. The idea is to have students actively engage with a text. With Questioning the Author, the teacher gives distinct goals and several queries that assist students in reaching those goals. First, students and teachers require coherent texts so that understanding and engaging in discussion is a possible enterprise. Second, students need to have some background knowledge of the topic so that they can adequately discuss what they are reading. Third, teachers and students require a logical set of questions to better understand text.

Evidence-Based Practice

Questioning the Author

Procedures: First, select text that is coherent. The text type selected may be either narrative or expository. Be sure to consider the background knowledge that students require to understand the text. To the extent possible, identify key ideas and concepts, and preteach them to students before reading the text.

Second, teach students to "grapple" with ideas while they are reading and to consider what the author means and the extent to which the author may not have communicated very well. Meaning is built as students read rather than at the end of the reading. Students share and discuss while reading, enhancing background knowledge and understanding, and increasing understanding of text as they continue reading. The focus is not on the discussion per se but on the understanding of what they are reading.

Third, teachers and students use queries to promote understanding and to place responsibility for understanding text on the students—for example, What is the author trying to tell us? and Why do you think the author is saying this?

Fourth, the teacher establishes the fallibility of the author with the students so they learn that a text is simply one person's ideas written down and that these ideas should be considered in light of other knowledge and their own experience. This provides students with an engagement with text and the author that is typically not available.

Comments: Several studies document the effectiveness of Questioning the Author in classwide implementation in general education classrooms with at-risk students (for a review, see Beck & McKeown, 2006) as well as students who are English language learners (Baleghizadeh, 2011). Findings have not been conducted separately for students with learning disabilities. Also, studies have been conducted with fourth-grade students.

According to McKeown and Beck (2004), "the development of meaning in [Questioning the Author] focuses on readers' interactions with text as it is being read, situates reader–text interactions in whole-class discussion, and encourages explanatory, evidence-based responses to questions about text" (p. 393). Evidence from their studies in many classrooms suggests that teachers and students who adopted this Questioning the Author perspective also became increasingly engaged with text. In addition, interactions in the classroom changed from the traditional question-and-answer routines, which appear to be much like test questions and answers, to more collaborative discussions that involved both teacher and students in questioning and the development and elaboration of new ideas. You can read more at **Reading Rockets.**

Text Structure and Summarization Strategies

Text structure refers to the organizational features of text that help readers understand and predict how the text will be organized. For example, text structures around fairy tales and text structures around biographies are different. Understanding how they are different can help you with

comprehension. Often, teachers divide text into two major types: narrative and expository. Expository text is also often referred to as information text. *Narrative texts* tell a story and can be organized into components such as setting, problem statement, goals, event sequences or episodes, and ending. Generally, stories are easier for students to comprehend than expository text because the story structure is more consistent and has a linear orientation, making it more predictable. Carnine, Silbert, and Kame'enui (2004) suggest that teachers use the following four story grammar questions:

1. Who is the story about?
2. What is she or he trying to do?
3. What happens when she or he tries to do it?
4. What happens in the end?

Typical questions that focus on story grammar include:

- Where does the story take place (setting)?
- When does the story take place (setting)?
- Who are the main people in the story (characters)?
- What problems does the main character face (problem)?
- What are the main character's goals (goal)?
- What does the main character want to do to solve the problem (goal)?
- What are the main things that happened in the story to solve the problem (plot)?
- How did each thing work out (plot)?
- Is the problem finally resolved? If so, how (outcome/ending)?

Expository texts are also referred to as *information texts* because they are designed to explain phenomena or provide information. These are the informational texts that students encounter not only in school content-area subjects such as social studies, science, math, and vocational education, but also in newspapers and magazines and on the Internet. Expository texts can be more difficult to comprehend because their organization varies more (e.g., describing an object, comparing and contrasting two ideas, explaining a cause–effect relationship), the content may be less familiar, and a high proportion of technical terms may be present. Teaching types of expository texts can help students with comprehension problems to understand the more complex scientific style of thinking that is evident in expository text (Williams, 2005). Figure 8.13 presents six types of expository texts with signal words and cohesive ties that note the relationships and sample frameworks that depict the relationships. These text structures can also guide the types of questions that promote comprehension. For example, here are some questions that can be asked to help students understand the process of "revolution" and how it relates to their lives:

- What motivates individuals to participate in a revolution?
- What are some revolutions you can think of?
- What conditions are associated with revolution?
- What kinds of things happen to prevent revolution?
- What are examples of people who have participated in revolutions?
- Can you think of examples of situations that would promote your participation in a revolution?

The type of text may vary within an expository passage or paragraph, and thinking about the specific type can facilitate comprehension. As we discussed in the section on question generation, teaching students to generate a range of questions related to the information text they are reading promotes active processing of text and comprehension (Pyle et al., 2017; Taboada & Guthrie, 2006).

Story-Mapping and Story-Retelling Strategies Story-retelling strategies provide students with a framework for retelling the key points of narrative texts. The strategies can be combined with story maps, which provide students with a visual guide to understanding and retelling stories. Figure 8.14 shows a visual framework for a simple story.

Teachers have taught students with reading problems how to use story maps and story strategies to aid in comprehending and retelling stories (Bos, 1999; Gardill & Jitendra, 1999) to students with learning disabilities. Bos (1987) used a story-retelling strategy to assist intermediate students with learning and language disabilities in retelling stories. Whereas these two strategies focus on the components of the story, Williams (1998) has developed an instructional lesson to assist students with severe learning disabilities to identify the themes of stories and relate them to their lives.

More techniques related to expository texts are presented in Chapter 10 in the discussion of content area learning.

Evidence-Based Practice

Story Mapping

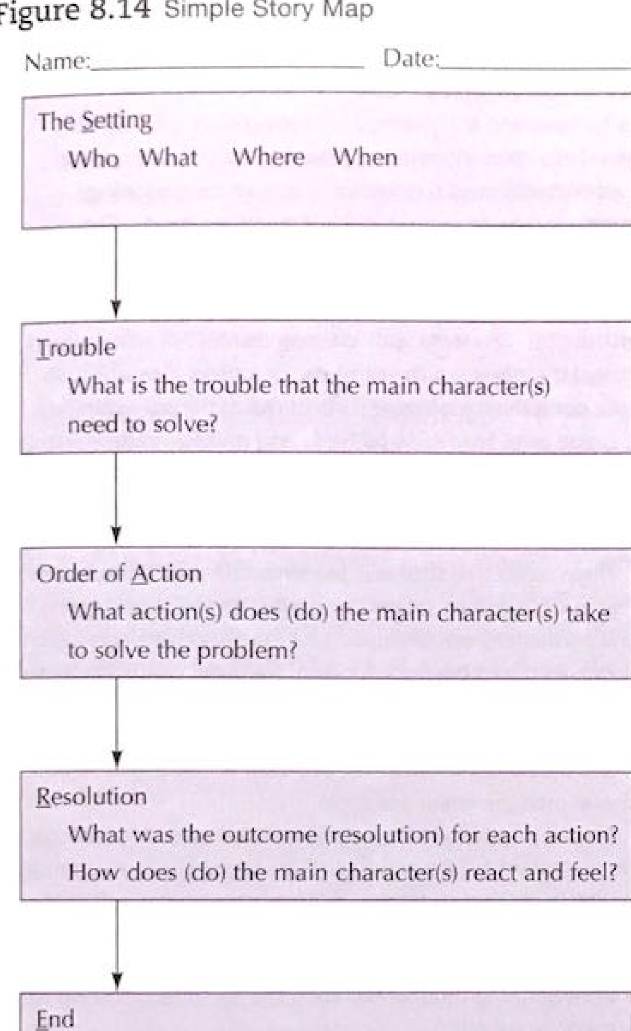
Procedures: Idol (1987b) used the visual in Figure 8.14 and the following procedure to teach story mapping:

1. During the *model* phase, model how to use the story map by reading the story aloud, stopping at points where information pertaining to one of the story components is presented. Ask the students to label the part, and then demonstrate how to write the information on the story map. Have the

Figure 8.13 Types of Expository Texts

Text Type	Cohesive Ties and Signal Words	Sample Frameworks
Descriptive or Enumerative Describes the characteristics, attributes, examples, or a series of facts about a topic	for example, for instance in addition besides to illustrate characteristics are can be described as moreover such as in other words	
Sequential or How To Tell how to do something or a series of events presented in order	first, second, third next last, finally before, after in the past, in the future currently	
Compare–Contrast Two or more topics are compared according to the their likenesses and differences	different from same as, alike however in contrast in comparison, compared to instead of on the other hand whereas similarly	
Cause–Effect Explanation of the reason(s) for something or why something happened and the resulting effect(s)	cause, because therefore, thus as a result of if . . . then consequently for this reason	
Problem–Solution Statement of a problem and possible solutions, sometimes with resulting effects	problem is possible solutions	
Argument or Persuasion Statement of a position on an issue with justification	the point is first, second, next, last reasons major reason consequently therefore	

Figure 8.14 Simple Story Map



students copy the information on their own maps. If the information is implicit in the story, model how to generate the inference.

2. During the *lead* phase, have students read the story independently and complete their maps, prompting when necessary. Encourage the students to review their maps after completing the story, adding details that may have been omitted.
3. During the *test* phase, ask students to read a story, generate their maps, and then answer questions such as "Who were the characters?" "Where did the story take place?" and "What was the main character trying to accomplish?"

Bos (1987) used principles based on cognitive strategy instruction to teach a story-retelling strategy. The procedures are as follows:

1. Motivate the students to learn the strategy by demonstrating how it will help them remember what they have read.
2. Describe the components in a story and the steps used to identify and remember the different components:

STORE the Story

Setting: Who, what, when, where

Trouble: What is the trouble that the main character(s) needs (need) to solve?

Order of action: What action(s) does (do) the main character(s) take to solve the problem?

Resolution: What was the outcome (resolution) for each action? How does (do) the main character(s) react and feel?

End: What happened in the end?

Explain how answering these questions will help the students STORE, or remember, the important parts of the story.

3. Practice together reading stories, labeling the components, and retelling the stories. The students can retell their stories to the teacher, retell them to each other, audio record their retellings, or answer questions about the stories.
4. Have the students independently read stories and retell them by using the STORE the Story strategy.

Williams (1998, 2005) developed an instructional program to assist students with learning disabilities to generate themes for stories and relate them to the students' lives. The lesson was organized around a single story and had five parts, as demonstrated for the story "Kate Shelly and the Midnight Limited." This story is about how Kate braved great danger to warn the stationmaster that a railroad bridge had collapsed and thereby averted the wreck of the Midnight Limited. The procedure was as follows:

1. *Prereading discussion about lesson purpose and story topic.* This includes discussion of the importance of identifying and understanding the theme.
2. *Story reading.* The students listen to and/or read the story and discuss the story grammar components and the story (e.g., What do you think will happen next? Do you think Kate was brave? Why?).
3. *Discussion to generate theme.* The teacher and students discuss five questions designed to help generate the theme:
   - Who is the main character? (Kate Shelly.)
   - What did she do? (She ran more than a mile in a terrible storm to warn the stationmaster about a collapsed railroad bridge; she persevered.)
   - What happened? (She reached the station in time to save the train and the passengers.)
   - Was this good or bad? (Good.)
   - Why was this good or bad? (It was good that Kate persevered because she saved lives.)
4. *Writing the theme.* The teachers and students write the theme using the format "Kate should have persevered. We should persevere."
5. *Generalization to real-life experiences.* Discussion is focused around the following questions: "To whom would this theme apply?" "When would it apply?" "In what situations?"

Williams compared this theme discussion framework to more traditional discussions about stories.

Comments: Students using these story-mapping procedures recalled substantially more relevant information after learning each strategy. They also answered more explicit and implicit comprehension questions about the stories. Students were also more likely to label the parts of the story in their retellings, thereby providing the listener with a framework for listening. Students also generated and applied qualitatively better themes. These same strategies have also been adapted and used to help students plan and write stories.

Emery (1996) suggests using story guides in which the story events are outlined in one column and different characters' perspectives are listed in subsequent columns. This assists the students in seeing how different characters react to different events in the story. Using *why* questions about the characters during discussions (e.g., Why did the characters act that way? Why did the characters feel that way?) also promotes comprehension.

Paraphrasing Strategy Getting the main idea(s), paraphrasing, and/or summarizing when reading expository materials are important skills, particularly in content-area subjects such as science and social studies. The paraphrasing strategy, developed and validated at KU-CRL (Schumaker, Denton, & Deshler, 1993), instructs students in recalling the main ideas and specific facts of materials they read and has been used successfully with students in elementary (Hagaman, Casey, & Reid, 2012), middle school, and adults (Hagaman & Reid, 2008; Hagaman et al., 2016; Hock & Mellard, 2005).

Evidence-Based Practice

Paraphrasing Strategy

Procedures: The steps in the strategy that the students learn are as follows:

1. *Read a paragraph.* As you silently read, think about what the words mean.
2. *Ask yourself, "What were the main ideas and details of this paragraph?"* This question helps you to think about what you just read. To help you, you may need to look quickly back over the paragraph and find the main idea and the details that are related to the main idea.
3. *Put the main idea and details in your own words.* When you put the information into your own words, it helps you to remember the information. Try to give at least two details related to the main idea.

The acronym for the steps in the strategy is RAP. (Paraphrasing is like rapping or talking to yourself.) Students are also given the following two rules for finding the main idea:

1. Look for it in the first sentence of the paragraph.
2. Look for repetitions of the same word or words in the whole paragraph.

The criteria that are used in generating a paraphrase are that it (1) must contain a complete thought and have a subject and a verb; (2) must be accurate; (3) must make sense; (4) must contain useful information; (5) must be in one's own words; and (6) must have one general statement per paragraph. Specifics for teaching the strategy, including a scripted lesson, cue cards for learning and generalizing the strategy, record and worksheets, and suggested materials for practicing the strategy, are presented in the instructors' guide, *The Paraphrasing Strategy (Learning Strategies Curriculum)* (Schumaker et al., 1993).

Chapter 2 provides a description of cognitive strategy instruction (CSI).

Comments: Students with learning disabilities who learned and used the paraphrasing strategy increased their ability to answer comprehension questions about materials written at their grade level from 48% to 84%, and middle-grade students improved their comprehension (Hagaman & Reid, 2008; Hagaman et al., 2012; Hagaman et al., 2016; Schumaker et al., 1993).

When using this strategy, students talk their paraphrases into an audio recorder rather than write them. This approach seems particularly advantageous for students with learning and behavior problems because many of them also experience writing problems. However, once students have mastered the skill, it may be helpful for them to write their paraphrases. Students can then use the paraphrases as an overview to integrate the information across the entire passage.

We have had students put their paraphrases for each paragraph or section on sticky notes so that they can then arrange the notes to make a summary of the whole reading selection. You and the students may also want to vary the size of the unit that the students paraphrase. For example, for some books, it may work better to paraphrase each section or subsection rather than each paragraph.

Several YouTube videos describe the paraphrasing strategy and paraphrasing strategy notebooks.

Summarization Strategies Summarization also requires students to generate the main idea and important details from a text. On the basis of analyses of informational or expository texts, Brown and Day (1983) generated five rules for writing summaries:

MyLab Education
Video Example 8.4

This video emphasizes the importance of summarizing information and using summarization skills in all academic areas. How do summarization skills promote good writing and understanding of expository text?

1. Delete irrelevant or trivial information.
2. Delete redundant information.
3. Select topic sentences.

4. Substitute a superordinate term or event for a list of terms or actions.
5. Invent topic sentences when the author has not provided any.

Summarizing strategies employ many of the principles of cognitive strategy instruction, including explicit explanation of the rules, modeling of the strategy, guided practice in controlled materials, monitoring with corrective feedback, independent practice, and teaching each rule to criterion.

Evidence-Based Practice

Summarization Strategy

Procedures: To teach the summarization strategy, use sets of short paragraphs, each set highlighting a different rule. In this way, the rules can be explained, modeled, and practiced individually. Then apply the rules to informational passages. As the students learn the rules and their application, give the students more responsibility for practicing the rules and checking that each rule has been applied. Figure 8.15 presents a checklist that students can use to judge the quality of their summaries and teachers can use to monitor student progress.

Comments: Reviews of literature on reading comprehension practices for students with reading disabilities at the elementary, middle, and high school level reveal positive outcomes for students when summarization practices for comprehension are taught (Berkeley et al., 2010; Edmonds et al., 2009; Scammacca et al., 2016; Solis et al., 2012). On the whole, students with learning disabilities who were taught the summarization strategy performed better than a comparison group of students with learning disabilities on main idea, inference, and factual questions. Students who participated in the strategy instruction also improved performance on a reading test.

Malone and Mastropieri (1992) taught middle school students with learning disabilities how to summarize and self-question using two questions:

1. Who or what is the passage about?
2. What is happening (to the characters)?

Using principles of direct instruction and explicit teaching of the summarization and self-questioning, they found that these middle school students outperformed students who had received traditional comprehension instruction on recall of the passage content and that the students could generalize the strategy to new texts. Simmons and colleagues (2010) taught summarization strategies to middle-grade students to improve their reading comprehension during social studies, resulting in overall gains in reading comprehension.

Using Multicomponent Cognitive Strategy Instruction to Teach Comprehension

So far, we have discussed techniques to facilitate the use of specific comprehension skills such as activating prior knowledge, predicting, asking and answering questions, getting the main idea, and summarizing the text. Students with learning and behavior problems often have difficulty with a number of these skills. For example, even when Shamika, an eighth-grade student with decoding and reading comprehension problems, is reading text that is easy for her to decode (about fifth-grade level), she still has difficulty understanding what she reads. Her approach to reading comprehension is to "just begin reading and read to the end." She reads quickly and when finished can answer detailed questions about what she has read if

Figure 8.15 Student Checklist for Monitoring Summaries

How Good Is That Summary?

Student: ________________ Date: ________________
Title: ________________
Pages: ________________
Summary:
____
____
____

Rating: 3 = Clear, Concise Summary
2 = Somewhat Clear, Concise Summary
1 = Several Sentences That Do Not Accurately Summarize Information
0 = Not Completed

_____ Does the summary state the **main idea**?
_____ Is the **main idea** stated first?
_____ Does the summary give ***only*** **the most important information**?
_____ Is the summary brief with **unimportant and redundant information** deleted?
_____ Is the summary written well and clear?

the information is provided in the text. If she is not sure about an idea, Shamika reports, "I usually just skip it." She has difficulty generating a summary and reports that she does not make predictions during reading and does not think about how what she is reading relates to what she already knows. For students like Shamika, it may be more efficient and effective to teach a multicomponent strategy that includes several robust strategies, such as predicting, questioning, and summarizing, than to teach individual strategies (Klingner et al., 2007; Solis et al., 2012). This section discusses one such multicomponent approach to teaching comprehension—reciprocal teaching (Oczkus, 2018; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; see Rosenshine & Meister, 1994, for a review)—and an adaptation of reciprocal teaching: collaborative strategic reading (CSR; Boardman, Vaughn, et al., 2016; Klingner, Vaughn, et al., 2012; Vaughn, Klingner, et al., 2011).

Both reciprocal teaching and CSR are built on ideas associated with metacognition, schema theory, and the sociocultural theory of learning. From metacognition comes the strong emphasis on comprehension monitoring (e.g., checking to determine whether understanding is adequate, given the purposes for reading). From schema theory, these approaches incorporate activities that encourage students to activate and use relevant background knowledge. From sociocultural theory comes scaffolded instruction in which the teacher and students take turns assuming the leader role.

These instructional techniques build on the idea that successful comprehension and learning are based on six activities:

1. Clarifying the purpose of reading (i.e., understanding the task demands, both explicit and implicit).
2. Activating relevant background knowledge.
3. Allocating attention to the major content at the expense of trivia.
4. Evaluating content for internal consistency and compatibility with prior knowledge and common sense.
5. Monitoring ongoing activities to determine whether comprehension is occurring by engaging in such activities as periodic review and self-questioning.
6. Drawing and testing inferences, including interpretations, predictions, and conclusions.

Although both approaches build on these activities, reciprocal teaching was developed first; CSR further elaborates on reciprocal teaching.

Reciprocal Teaching In the initial research on reciprocal teaching, Palincsar and Brown (Palincsar, 1982; Palincsar & Brown, 1984) chose four comprehension strategies to teach seventh-grade students who had average decoding skills but had significant difficulty with comprehension. The four strategies were as follows:

1. Predicting
2. Clarifying
3. Questioning
4. Summarizing

They used an interactive mode of teaching that emphasized modeling, feedback, and scaffolded instruction.

Evidence-Based Practice

Reciprocal Teaching

Procedures: The procedure used to teach the four strategies was *reciprocal teaching*, a technique in which the teacher and students took turns leading a dialogue that covered sections of the text. Palincsar and Brown (1984) described the teaching procedure as follows:

> The basic procedure was that an adult teacher, working individually with a seventh-grade poor reader, assigned a segment of the passage to be read and either indicated that it was her turn to be the teacher or assigned the student to teach the segment. The adult teacher and the student then read the assigned segment. After reading the text, the teacher (student or adult) for that segment asked a question that a teacher or test might ask on the segment, summarized the content, discussed and clarified any difficulties, and finally made a prediction about future content. All of these activities were embedded in as natural a dialogue as possible, with the teacher and student giving feedback to each other. (pp. 124–125)

The teacher initially modeled the leader role, and as the students assumed the role, the teacher provided feedback by using the following sequence:

1. *Modeling.* "A question I would have asked would be . . ."
2. *Prompting.* "What question do you think might be on a test?"
3. *Instruction.* "Remember, a summary is a short version—it doesn't include details."
4. *Modifying the activity.* "If you can't think of a question right now, go ahead and summarize, and then see if you can think of one."
5. *Praise.* "That was a clear question, because I knew what you wanted." "Excellent prediction—let's see if you're right."
6. *Corrective feedback.* "That was interesting information. It was information I would call a detail. Can you find the most important information?"

To ensure a level of competency, each strategy is introduced individually and in a functional manner (e.g., summarize a television show or movie), and opportunities are provided for the students to practice using the strategy. Palincsar (1988) provides a number of suggestions for teaching each comprehension strategy.

Predicting

- Begin a new passage by having students predict on the basis of the title.
- Encourage students to share information they already know about the topic.
- Refer to, and interweave the text with, their predictions and background knowledge as you read.
- Use headings to help students make predictions.
- Use other opportunities to predict, such as when the author asks questions or gives information about what will be covered next.
- Use predictions in an opportunistic and flexible manner.

Questioning

- Encourage students to ask teacher-like questions.
- Fill-in-the-blank questions should be discouraged.
- If the students cannot think of a question, have the students summarize first.
- Provide prompts if needed (e.g., identify the topic, provide a question word).

Summarizing

- Encourage students to identify the main idea and an example of supportive information.
- Encourage students to attempt their summaries without looking at the passage.
- Remind students of the rules for generating summaries:

  Look for a topic sentence.
  Make up a topic sentence if one is not available.
  Give a name to a list of items.
  Delete what is unimportant or redundant.

Clarifying

- Opportunities for clarifying generally occur when referents (e.g., *you, he, it*) are unclear; difficult or unfamiliar vocabulary is presented; text is disorganized or the information is incomplete; or unusual, idiomatic, or metaphorical expressions are used.
- Clarifying will not always be necessary.
- It may be helpful if students are asked to point out something that may be unclear to a younger student.

Comments: Palincsar and Brown studied the effectiveness of reciprocal teaching with poorly comprehending seventh-grade students who were taught individually or in groups of four to seven students (Palincsar, 1986; Palincsar, 2007; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Even substantial improvements in standardized reading comprehension scores were reported. Lovett and colleagues (1996) found that reciprocal teaching resulted in significant improvements in the comprehension skills of seventh- and eighth-grade students with reading disabilities compared to control students. Like Palincsar and Brown (1984), they also found that reciprocal teaching transferred to new texts. Lederer (2000) found that reciprocal teaching improved the ability of fourth through sixth graders with learning disabilities to compose summaries of what they read but not their ability to answer comprehension questions. When three student teachers used reciprocal teaching, they reported that marking children's copies of the text with cue pictures, implementing a reward system to maintain focus, and selecting interesting and challenging literature were important for student success (Speece, MacDonald, Kilsheimer, & Krist, 1997). Reciprocal teaching has been implemented effectively with a range of students: middle school students who are English language learners (ELLs) with learning disabilities, including low decoders (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996; Vaughn & Klingner, 2004); high school students in remedial classes (Alfassi, 1998); and average and above-average readers at various grade levels (Ahmadi & Ismail, 2012; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994).

Collaborative Strategic Reading CSR is related to reciprocal teaching, but elaborates on its use by focusing on expository text, specifying use of strategies, engaging students in pairs or cooperative groups, and teaching students to record what they are learning through learning logs (Boardman, Vaughn et al., 2016; Klingner et al., 2007; Klingner et al., 2012; Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998; Vaughn, Denton, et al., 2010; Vaughn, Klingner, & Schumm, 1996).

Evidence-Based Practice

Collaborative Strategic Reading

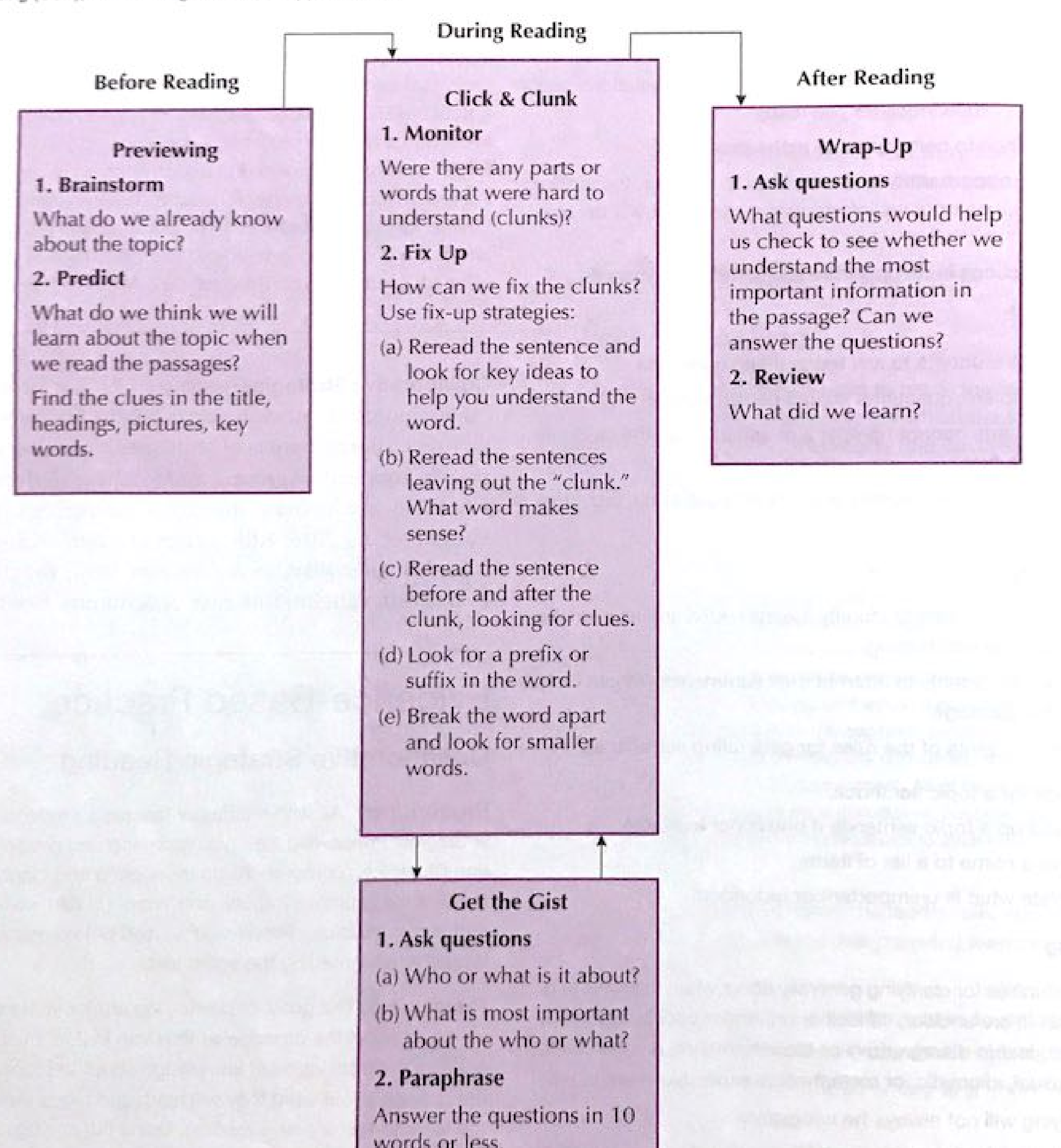
Procedures: As with reciprocal teaching, students learn four strategies: Previewing (i.e., brainstorming and predicting), Click and Clunk (i.e., comprehension monitoring and clarifying), Get the Gist (i.e., summarization), and Wrap-Up (i.e., self-questioning and summarization). Previewing is used before reading, and Wrap-Up after reading the entire text.

Previewing. The goals of previewing are for students to learn as much about the passage as they can in 2 to 3 minutes, activate their background knowledge about the topic, make predictions about what they will read, and pique their interest in the topic to foster active reading. Using the analogy of a movie preview is a good way to teach previewing. In previewing, students are taught to check out the headings, key words, pictures, tables, graphs, and other key information to identify what they know about the topic and to make predictions. Ms. Royal, who teaches a fifth-grade class that includes a number of students with learning and behavior problems, gives her students 1.5 minutes to write down everything they already know about the topic, 1 minute to share with the group, 1.5 minutes to write down predictions, and 1 minute to share (Klingner & Vaughn, 1998). Figure 8.16 presents the four strategies for CSR with key questions the students can ask as they complete the process.

Click and Clunk. Students "click and clunk" while reading each section of the text. *Clicks* are the portions of the text that make sense, and *clunks* are the portions that aren't clear (e.g., students

Figure 8.16 Plan for Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR)

SOURCE: Based on J. K. Klingner & S. Vaughn (1999), Promoting reading comprehension, content learning, and English acquisition through collaborative strategic reading (CSR), *The Reading Teacher, 52*, pp. 738–747.



do not know the meaning of a word). The clicking and clunking strategy is designed to assist students in monitoring their comprehension and to employ fix-up strategies to clarify their understanding. Ms. Royal places the fix-up strategies on clunk cards so that the cooperative groups can use them during reading:

- Reread the sentence, and look for ideas that help you to understand the word.
- Reread the sentence, leaving out the clunk. What word makes sense?
- Reread the sentences before and after the sentence with the clunk.
- Look for prefixes or suffixes in the word.
- Break the word apart, and look for smaller words you know.

Getting the Gist. Students learn to get the gist by reading each section and then asking themselves the following questions:

- Who or what is it about?
- What is most important about information about the who or what?

The goal is to teach the students to restate in their own words the most important point as a way of making sure they

understand what they read (Klingner & Vaughn, 1998). Students are taught that a "good" gist does the following:

- Answers the two questions: Who or what is it about? and What is most important about the who or what?
- Is paraphrased in your own words
- Contains 10 words or fewer (L. S. Fuchs et al., 1997)

In teaching how to get the gist, we have used the analogy of a sand sieve to demonstrate that the sand (i.e., details) goes through, and all that is left are the rocks (i.e., the main details that answer the two questions). Using the gists from several students or groups to discuss and construct a "best" gist is another technique that can assist students in understanding how to get the gist or main idea. Students repeat the second and third strategies (Clink and Clunk and Getting the Gist) for each paragraph or section of the passage. Having students keep a CSR learning log such as the one in Figure 8.17 can help them to identify information that will assist them in completing the last strategy: Wrap-Up.

Wrap-Up. In the Wrap-Up step, students formulate questions and answers about the key ideas from the entire passage and discuss what they have learned. The goal is to improve their knowledge, understanding, and memory of what they read. For students with learning and language disabilities, it may be necessary to explicitly teach them to ask questions using *what*, *where*, *who*, *when*, *why*, and *how*. As in reciprocal teaching, students are to think about questions that a teacher might ask. To assist students in generating higher-level questions, it is important to model question stems such as What do you think would happen if . . .? How were _____ and _____ the same? How were they different? Why do you think . . .? Students can use the gists they have generated for the different sections to think about the most important information in the whole passage.

Cooperative Learning Groups. Once they have developed proficiency in applying the comprehension strategies through teacher-led activities, the students learn to use CSR in peer-led cooperative learning groups of about four or five students. Typical roles that are used during CSR include the following:

- *Leader:* Leads group by saying what to read and what strategy to use next.
- *Clunk expert:* Reminds students to use clunk strategies to figure out a difficult word or concept.
- *Announcer:* Calls on different members to read and share ideas.
- *Encourager:* Watches the group, and gives encouragement and feedback.
- *Reporter:* During the whole-class wrap-up, reports to class the important ideas learned and favorite questions.
- *Timekeeper:* Keeps time, and lets the group know when it is time to move on. Students should change roles on a regular basis. After wrapping up in their cooperative groups, a whole-class wrap-up is completed to give the teacher and groups the opportunity to report and to discuss the content.

Figure 8.17 Example of CSR Learning Log

CSR Learning Log

Title: ______________________ Name: ______________________

Pages: ______________ Date: ______________________

Preview

What I already know about the topic: ______________________

What I predict I will learn: ______________________

Clicks and Clunks

List your clunks and what they mean.

Getting the Gist

Write/tell the gists for the sections you read.

Wrap-Up

What was the most important thing the entire passage was about? ______________________

Write questions you may have for your classmates. ______________________

What I learned. ______________________

Comments: CSR has been used by a number of classroom teachers who have students with learning and behavior problems and ELLs included in their classrooms (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996, 2000; Vaughn, Klingner, et al., 2011; Vaughn, Klingner, et al., 2011). For example, seventh- and eighth-grade ELLs with learning disabilities were taught to apply CSR while working on social studies content (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996). Students' reading comprehension scores for the passages they read as well as their scores on standardized tests improved significantly. It has also been a successful practice with upper-elementary and middle school students with reading problems (D. Bryant, Vaughn, et al., 2000; Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998; Klingner, Vaughn, Argüelles, Hughes, & Ahwee, 2003). CSR has also been used through technology with middle and high school students with reading difficulties or disabilities (A. Kim, 2002; A. Kim et al., 2003). The computer program Computer-Assisted Collaborative Strategic Reading is designed to provide systematic instruction in comprehension strategies of CSR along with ample practices to apply those strategies. Students' ability to find main ideas and generate comprehension questions improved significantly, and their scores on standardized comprehension tests also improved to a moderate extent (A. Kim et al., 2003). Overall, the results demonstrate the effectiveness of explicit instruction of cognitive strategy training and comprehension monitoring in improving a range of reading comprehension skills.

Special Considerations for Adolescent Readers

All of the approaches to teaching reading comprehension previously discussed are appropriate for older students with reading disabilities. However, in addition to these approaches, several important considerations address the motivation and disposition of older students.

Perhaps one of the most consistent responses of older students with reading difficulties about reading is that they "don't like it." However, it is interesting that although they do not read for pleasure, the majority of adolescents perceive reading as important and as something that they value. Students realize that reading is the key to success in school and to their future success.

1. Remember that all students, even secondary students, want to succeed as readers as long as appropriate and situated instruction is provided.
2. Consider that older students value "choice" about what they read. Even when the topic is restricted to content-area learning such as social studies and science, providing choice about text types related to the topic will improve their motivation and interest.
3. Many forms for reading go beyond traditional print. Even poor readers spend time each day searching the Web for information (Klauda & Guthrie, 2015). Consider technology as a source of information and text. What are some of the sources adolescents (even students who are poor readers) read regularly?
   - Text messages
   - Blogs
   - Websites
   - Social media
4. With older students, dedication to reading is the best predictor of reading achievement (Klauda & Guthrie, 2012). What is dedication? It refers to the positive valuing of reading, including recognition that reading is important for your future and necessary for school success.

Instructional Activities

This section provides instructional activities that are related to reading comprehension and fluency. Some of the activities teach new skills; others are best suited for practice and reinforcement of already acquired skills. For each activity, the objective, materials, and teaching procedures are described.

Web Resources

Several websites provide excellent examples of lesson plans that may assist you in designing effective instruction for your students:

http://www.texasldcenter.org/teachers

(Click on *Teachers*, and you'll be able to locate lessons, professional development, and videos.)

http://www.meadowscenter.org/

(Click on *resources*, and you'll have access to sample lessons and videos.)

http://www.intensiveintervention.org/

(Check out the intensive intervention tools chart and sample lessons.)

Choral Reading

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to practice reading aloud rapidly, accurately, and expressively with the teacher

Grades: Kindergarten through primary

Materials: Reading passages

Teaching Procedures:

1. Provide each student with a copy of the reading passage.
2. Model fluent reading of the passage by reading aloud. The teacher reads the passage accurately with prosody and sets the pace.
3. Students read along with the teacher the second time the passage is read. This strategy can be implemented individually, in whole groups, or in small groups.

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2003b).

Partner Reading

Objective: To improve students' reading accuracy and rate

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Reading passages, graph paper, colored pencils, timer for the teacher

Teaching Procedures:

1. Pair students, using the following procedure: (a) Rank the students according to reading ability, (b) split the list in half, (c) pair the top-ranked student in the higher-performing half (partner 1) with the top-ranked student in the lower-performing half (partner 2), and so forth.
2. Give each pair two copies of the reading passage at the instructional level of the less fluent student. (Instructional reading level means that the reader can decode about 90% of the words correctly.)
3. Remind students of the procedures for partner reading: (a) read for 4 minutes each; (b) correct errors (omission/addition of words, stopping more than 3 seconds, etc.); (c) do the best 1-minute reading (while timed); (d) calculate the fluency rate; and (e) graph the fluency rate.
4. Have partner 1 model fluent reading for 4 minutes while partner 2 follows along and identifies and corrects errors. Partner 2 should use the following procedure for error correction:
   a. Say, "Sound it out."
   b. Wait 4 seconds.
   c. If the partner figures out the word, say, "Good. Now reread the sentence."
   d. If the partner doesn't figure out the word, say, "That word is. . . . What word?" Wait for the partner to respond _____. Say, "Good. Now reread the sentence."
5. Have the students reread the passage for 1 minute (best reading), with partner 1 reading first. Partner 2 follows along, marks errors, and marks the last word read at the 1-minute mark.
6. Have the students calculate their fluency during the 1-minute best reading using WCPM. This is found by subtracting the number of errors from the total number of words read: (Total − errors = fluency).
7. Have the students graph their fluency using colored pencils and graph paper, as shown in Figure 8.18.

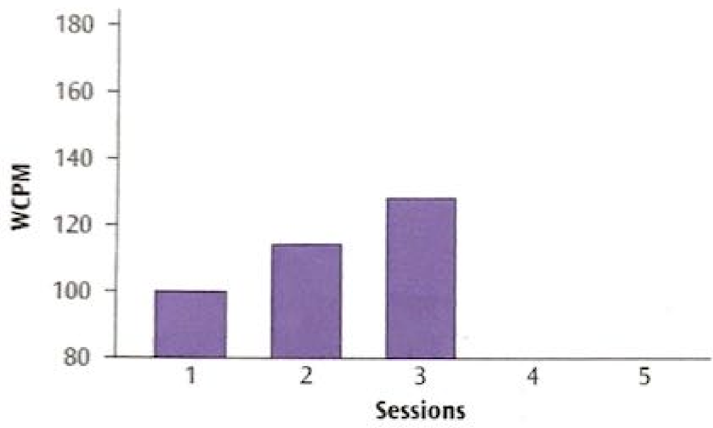
Phrase Card Reading

Objective: To help students improve their reading rate and accuracy

Grades: Elementary through intermediate

Figure 8.18 Fluency Graph

SOURCE: Based on University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2001a). Adapted by permission.



Materials: Reading passages, index cards, pens

Teaching Procedures:

1. Pair students, using the procedure described in "Partner Reading."
2. Give each pair two copies of the reading passage at the instructional level of the less fluent student.
3. Have each pair highlight phrases from the passage that include difficult words.
4. Have each pair write these phrases on index cards.
5. Have the more fluent reader in each pair read the phrases from the cards first.
6. Then have the less fluent reader in each pair read the same phrases from the cards. While the less fluent reader reads the phrases, the fluent reader identifies and corrects errors, if any.

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2002).

Audio-Assisted Reading

Objective: To help students improve their reading rate and accuracy

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Reading passages, audio player/recorder

Teaching Procedures:

1. Before the instruction, select a reading passage at each student's instructional or independent reading level. Record the passage. While recording, read with appropriate rate, accuracy, and expression.
2. Tell the students to listen to the passage on their audio player and to follow along by running their fingers under the line of the print. (*Note:* Students should not point to each word.)
3. Have the students read the passage aloud three times along with the audio.
4. Have the students read the passage aloud along with the audio while you listen to identify and correct errors.
5. Have the students read the passage aloud without listening to the audio for 1 minute.
6. Have the students calculate and graph their fluency rate (using the procedure described in "Partner Reading").

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2002).

Chunk Reading

Objective: To help students improve their reading accuracy and rate while reading phrases

Grades: Elementary

Materials: Reading passages, graph paper, colored pencils, timer for the teacher

Teaching Procedures:

1. Before the instruction, select a reading passage at an instructional level that is appropriate for the less fluent students. Place slash marks between chunks (i.e., phrases) to mark two- to five-word sentence segments and prepositional phrases in each passage.
2. Pair students using the procedure described in "Partner Reading."
3. Give each pair two copies of the reading passages with chunking marks.
4. Tell the students that connected text is divided into meaningful phrases and that paying attention to these phrases while reading will enhance their fluency and comprehension.
5. Tell the students to pause briefly between phrases, exactly as marked. No pauses should be made except at slash marks.
6. Remind students of the procedure for partner reading: (a) 4-minute reading for each, (b) 1-minute best reading for each, (c) calculating fluency, and (d) graphing.
7. Have partner 1 model fluent reading while partner 2 follows along. Partner 1 emphasizes chunking phrases together for meaning. For instance, read the sentence "One day last week my sister and I drove to the lake" like this: "One day last week / my sister and I / drove to the lake." (A slash indicates a pause.) Then partner 2 reads the passage while partner 1 follows along.
8. Tell the students to reread the passage for 1 minute (best reading), with partner 1 reading first. While partner 1 reads, partner 2 follows along, marks errors, and marks the last word read at the 1-minute mark.

9. Ask the students to calculate the fluency using Words Correct Per Minute (see the procedures in "Partner Reading") and to graph their fluency on the graph paper with colored pencils.

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2001a).

Dramatic Reading

Objective: To help students improve their reading fluency

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Copies of a play for each student

Teaching Procedures:

1. Make groups of four, consisting of two more fluent readers and two less fluent readers.
2. Give a copy of the play to each student, and assign each student a role.
3. Tell students that they will practice the play with other group members and will put on the play for the class.
4. Set a performance day and time.
5. Instruct students to practice the play in their group. Have each student practice reading his or her lines while the other group members listen and provide feedback.
6. Next, have students work together to read their parts as if in a play. Encourage students to provide feedback to each other.
7. On the performance day, have each group of students put on their play for the class.

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2002).

Critiquing Oral Reading

Objective: To provide students with opportunities to critique their oral reading

Grades: Primary and intermediate

Materials: Reading passages, audio player/recorder, a blank tape for each student labeled with the student's name

Teaching Procedures:

1. Explain that the purpose of the activity is to give the students an opportunity to listen to how they read.
2. Let the students know that they are to listen for things they do well and things they want to improve.
3. Model the process by practicing, recording, listening, and critiquing a passage you read.
4. Before the students read into the tape recorder, have them practice the segment. Each student should practice and then read and record a passage of about 100 to 500 words.
5. After the students record, they should listen to their tapes and finish writing the following statements:

   When I read orally, I do a really good job of ____.

   One thing I could do better when I read out loud is ____.
6. Listen to and discuss each tape, and then ask the students to critique each presentation. Have the students record their oral reading every 3 to 6 weeks so that they can compare and hear how they are improving.

Adaptations: Each student can record two passages: one that has been practiced and one that is unpracticed.

Previewing

Objective: To help students activate their prior knowledge and make predictions about what they are going to learn from the passage

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Expository reading passage, copies of a preview log (see Figure 8.19)

Teaching Procedures:

1. Pass out a preview log to each student.
2. Introduce the topic of the lesson, and ask students to record it at the top of their preview logs.
3. Divide the class into small groups.
4. Give each group 2 minutes to brainstorm what they already know about the topic, and ask them to record their ideas in their preview logs along with how this topic relates to previous lessons.
5. Ask several groups to share their brainstorming ideas.
6. Introduce and discuss three key vocabulary words. Have students record the words along with the definition in their preview logs.
7. Pass out a reading passage to each student.
8. Ask the students to scan the passage, looking for clues or physical features, such as the title, subtitle, headings, subheadings, bolded words, graphics, and/or pictures, that could be used to make predictions about the passage.
9. Ask each group to make two predictions about what they think they are going to learn from the passage. Have students record their predictions in their preview logs.
10. Ask several groups to share their predictions.
11. After the lesson, discuss and check students' predictions to see how close their predictions were to what they actually learned from the text.

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2001a).

Figure 8.19 Preview Log

Topic:

What do I already know about the topic?

How does this topic relate to previous lessons?

Key vocabulary and definitions

1.__________ : ______________________________

2.__________ : ______________________________

3.__________ : ______________________________

Predictions

By looking at the ❑ title ❑ headings ❑ pictures ❑ others: __________

I think that I am going to learn about...

By looking at the ❑ title ❑ headings ❑ pictures ❑ others: __________

I think that I am going to learn about...

Getting the Gist

Objective: To help students identify the main idea of a paragraph

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Expository reading passage, copies of a gist log (see Figure 8.20)

Teaching Procedures:

1. Pass out a reading passage and a gist log to each student.
2. Explain to students that a gist statement represents the main idea of a paragraph. The main idea is the most important information in a paragraph.
3. Tell students that there are three steps to getting the gist: (a) naming the *who* or *what* the paragraph is mostly about, (b) telling the most important information about the *who* or *what*, and (c) writing a complete sentence about the gist in 10 words or less.
4. Pair the students, and have them take turns reading with a partner.

Figure 8.20 Gist Log

1. Who or what is the paragraph mostly about?

2. What is the most important information about the who or what?

(Use this information to develop the gist statement.)

3. Write a gist of 10 words or less in a complete sentence.

5. After each paragraph, each pair identifies who or what the paragraph is mostly about.
6. Next, each pair identifies the most important information about the *who* or *what*.
7. Then each pair puts the two pieces of information together in a complete sentence of 10 words or less.
8. After all pairs complete getting the gist statements, call on several pairs to share their statements with others.

Self-Monitoring

Objective: To help students monitor their understanding

Grades: Secondary

Materials: Two different triple-spaced reading passages, two transparencies of both passages, copies of a monitoring symbol cue card, overhead projector, marker

Monitoring Symbol Cue Card

✓ = Got it!
? = What Does This Mean?
MBI = Must Be Important
RR = Reread
DW = Difficult Word
LG = Look at Graphs

Teaching Procedures:

1. Introduce monitoring symbols, and tell students that the use of the symbols will help them to monitor their understanding.
2. Present and describe each symbol.
3. Pass out the first triple-spaced passage.
4. Place the first passage on the overhead projector, and model how to use the symbols while reading.
5. Read the passage aloud, and insert the symbols where appropriate to mirror your self-monitoring strategies. Tell why you insert the symbols.
6. Pass out the second reading passage and a monitoring symbol cue card to each student.
7. Ask the students to insert monitoring symbols as they read.
8. Circulate around the class, and provide additional support if necessary.
9. After the students finish the second passage, place the second passage on the overhead projector. Call on several students to share which symbols they used and why.
10. Answer any questions about the passage or difficult words.

Adaptations: This instructional activity can be used with a Click and Clunk activity. A teacher can ask students to use the Click and Clunk strategy when they come across difficult words.

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2002).

See the description of Click and Clunk in the Evidence-Based Practice section titled Collaborative Strategic Reading, earlier in this chapter.

Generating Questions

Objective: To help students generate questions about important information after reading

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Two different reading passages, overhead projector, marker, transparency

Teaching Procedures:

1. Pass out the first reading passage to each student.
2. Explain to students that there are three types of questions: "right there" questions (the answer to the question is right in the text); "think and search" questions (the answer to the question is in the text, but students have to read the text and to compose the answer themselves based on what they have read); and "on my own" questions (the answer to the question is not in the text, and students have to integrate their own previous experiences with what they have learned from the text).
3. Read the entire reading passage aloud.
4. Model how to generate questions about the important information by using the key words *how, who, what, when, where*, and *why*.
5. Pass out the second reading passage to each student.
6. Remind students that there are three types of questions.
7. Pair the students, and have them take turns reading with a partner.
8. After reading the entire passage, have each pair generate at least one question for each type.
9. Monitor the students to make sure that they all properly generate questions.
10. After all pairs have finished generating the questions, call on several pairs to share their questions with others.

Source: Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, and Boardman, 2016.

Directed Reading–Thinking Activity (DR–TA)

Objective: To help students make and check predictions before, during, and after reading

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Reading passage in which a teacher marks several stop points, copies of a DR–TA organizer (see Figure 8.21)

Figure 8.21 DR–TA Organizer

Title:___

Predictions based on the topic:

Predictions based on skimming information such as the title, pictures, etc.:

Predictions after reading the first part of the text: Pages ___ to ___

Predictions after reading the second part of the text: Pages ___ to ___

Predictions after reading the third part of the text: Pages ___ to ___

Teaching Procedures:

1. Pass out a reading passage and a DR–TA organizer to each student.
2. Before reading, discuss the topic.
3. Show pictures, graphs, headings, or bolded text in the passage, and ask students what they think the passage topic could be.
4. Call on several students to share their predictions about the passage topic. Discuss with students how to generate the best predictions, and record the predictions on the DR–TA organizer. Have students write predictions on their DR–TA organizers.
5. Have students take turns reading the first part of the passage (before the first stop point).
6. Ask the students to think back about predictions they generated and what evidence is presented to either confirm or disprove their predictions.
7. Ask the students to revise or make new predictions if necessary.
8. Call on several students to share their revised and/or new predictions. Discuss with students how to generate the best predictions, and record the predictions on the DR–TA organizer. Have the students write the predictions on their DR–TA organizers.
9. Repeat the same procedure until the entire passage is read.
10. After finishing the entire passage, ask the students to reflect on their predictions.
11. Call on several students to share their reflections.

Source: Adapted from C. Blachowicz and Ogle (2001).

Expository Text Question Cards

Objective: To teach students to identify different types of expository text structure and to ask comprehension questions appropriate to each text structure while reading text

Grade: Secondary

Materials: Expository reading passages (two different passages for each text structure type), expository comprehension cards (one card set for each text structure type; see Figure 8.22)

Teaching Procedures:

1. Hand out a passage with a concept/definition type to each student.
2. Tell students that the text is the concept/definition type.
3. Provide the students with the card set for the concept/definition type.
4. Model how the students can use the sample questions on the card to ask and answer specific questions about the content.
5. Hand out another passage with the concept/definition type to each student.
6. Have the students take turns reading.
7. During reading, periodically stop the students from reading, and ask several students to use the sample questions on the card to ask and answer specific questions about the content.
8. Use the same procedure for expository reading passages with other text structure types (e.g., cause and effect, compare and contrast).

Source: Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2003a).

Figure 8.22 Expository Comprehension Cards

Concept or Definition

1. What topic or concept is described? ____________
2. What are some of its characteristics? ____________
3. What is its function? ____________
4. To what category does it belong? ____________
5. What are some related ideas or words? ____________
6. What are some examples? ____________
7. What do you think is the most unusual or memorable characteristic?

____

Cause and Effect

1. What happens? ____________
2. What causes it to happen? ____________
3. What are the important elements or factors that caused it to happen? ____________
4. Will the result always happen this way? Why or why not? ____________
5. How can elements or factors change? ____________

____

Compare and Contrast

1. What is being compared and contrasted? ____________
2. How are things similar? ____________
3. How are they different? ____________
4. What are the most important qualities that make them the same or different? ____________
5. What conclusions can we make? ____________
6. How can the things be classified? ____________

Position Statement or Support

1. What is the opinion, hypothesis, theory, or argument?

____

2. Are valid reasons given to accept it? ____________
3. Do you agree with the viewpoint, theory, hypothesis presented? Why? Why not? ____________
4. What credible evidence and data are presented? ____________

____

Using Narrative Comprehension Cards

Objective: To teach students to use narrative comprehension cards while reading text

Grade: Elementary

Materials: Narrative reading passage, narrative comprehension cards (see Figure 8.23), pocket chart

Teaching Procedures: Before the instruction, set narrative comprehension cards on the left side of the pocket chart in the correct order (1 to 15).

1. Hand out a reading passage to each student.
2. Introduce narrative comprehension cards. Explain to students that each card is color coded. Tell them that green cards are used *before reading*, yellow cards are used *during reading*, and red cards are used *after reading*.
3. Before reading, read the first green card question (card 1) aloud.
4. Call on several students to answer the question. As the first green card question is answered, move the card to the right side of the pocket chart to indicate that the question has been answered.
5. Repeat the same procedure until all green card questions have been answered.
6. Have the students take turns reading.
7. During reading, periodically stop the students from reading, and ask several students to answer the first yellow card question (card 4).
8. As each yellow card question is answered, move the card to the right side of the pocket chart.
9. Repeat the same procedure until all of the yellow card questions have been answered.

Figure 8.23 Narrative Cards

Green Cards—Use Before Reading

Card 1: What does the title tell me about this story?
Card 2: What do the pictures tell me?
Card 3: What do I already know about?

Yellow Cards—Use During Reading

Card 4: Who? (Tell who the story is about, or name the characters.)
Card 5: What? (State the problem.)
Card 6: When? (Tell the time the story takes place.)
Card 7: Where? (Tell the place of the story.)
Card 8: Why? (Explain why something happened.)
Card 9: How? (Tell how the problem was solved.)
Card 10: What do I think will happen next? (Make predictions.)

Red Cards—Use After Reading

Card 11: Who were the characters?
Card 12: What was the setting? (When and where.)
Card 13: What was the problem?
Card 14: How was the problem solved?
Card 15: Why did . . . ? (Elaborate on why something happened.)

10. After reading, ask the students the first red card question.
11. As each red card question is answered, move the card to the right side of the pocket chart.
12. Repeat the same procedure until all red card questions have been answered.

Source: Adapted from University of Texas, Center for Reading and Language Arts (2000a, 2000b).

Story Jumble

Objective: To provide students practice in sequencing a story

Grades: Primary and intermediate

Materials: Short stories that have been cut into story parts (e.g., setting, episodes, endings), paragraphs, or sentences; index cards with the segments of the story mounted onto them

Teaching Procedures:

1. Present the cards to the students, and have the students read each part and arrange the cards so that the story makes sense.
2. Have students read the story again to determine whether it makes sense. If students disagree about the order, have them explain why they prefer a certain order.

Adaptations: Students can work on this activity in groups of two or three or individually.

Predict the Plot

Objective: To provide students with practice in predicting the events and plots in stories.

Grades: Intermediate and secondary

Materials: Cartoon strips or other picture sequences from books

Teaching Procedures:

1. Select a cartoon strip or book with pictures, and expose one picture at a time for the students to read.
2. Have students predict the plot by asking such questions as these:
   - What do you think is going to be pictured in the next frame? Why?
   - Of the ideas we have generated, which one do you like best? Why?
   - How do you think the story will end? Why?
3. View the next picture. Discussing the previous predictions and making predictions about the next frame.
4. After the story is completed, have students draw their own pictures, using the characters presented in the strip or creating new characters.
5. Have students share their cartoons with others.

Adaptations: Mystery and adventure stories also lend themselves to this type of plot prediction. Segments of the story could be read, and then predictions could be made. Students could also finish this activity by writing a mystery or adventure story.

WH Game

Objective: To provide students with practice in answering *who, what, when, where, why,* and *how* (WH) questions

Grades: Elementary through secondary

Materials: Generic game board, spinner or die, and markers; WH cards, which are small cards with "WH Game" written on one side and one of the following words written on the other side: Who, What, When, Where, Why, How; sets of Story and Article Cards, which are copies of short stories and articles mounted on cards. There should be one copy for each player. Select topics of interest for the age level of students.

Teaching Procedures:

1. Explain the game to the students.
2. Have students select a set of Story or Article Cards.
3. Have all students read the story or article and place their cards face down.
4. Have students take a turn by throwing the die or spinning and selecting a WH Card.
5. Have the student make up a question using the Wh-word indicated on the card and answer it correctly in order to move the marker.
6. If another player questions the validity of a player's question or answer, the players may look at the story or article card. Otherwise, these cards should remain face down during play.
7. After questions have been asked using one Story or Article Card, another set is selected. The students read this card, and then the game continues.
8. The first player to arrive at the finish wins.

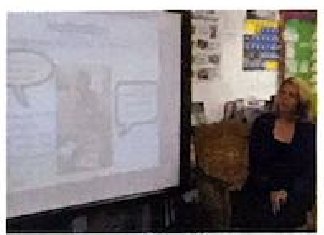
Adaptations: Students may also work in pairs, with one person on the team making up the question and the other person answering it.

MyLab Education Self-Check 8.1
MyLab Education Self-Check 8.2
MyLab Education Self-Check 8.3
MyLab Education Self-Check 8.4

MyLab Education Application Exercise 8.1: Assessing and Monitoring Fluency

MyLab Education Application Exercise 8.2: K-W-L Activity

MyLab Education Application Exercise 8.3: Reading Comprehension



Summary

- Fluency is the ability to read a text quickly, accurately, and with appropriate expression.
- The following techniques have been identified as effective for increasing reading fluency for struggling readers: modeling fluent reading while students read along, such as repeated reading of a text, choral repeated reading, peer-supported reading, and reading performance; these all allow the teacher to assess and monitor student progress.
- Comprehension is a difficult task to measure quickly, although maze procedures are used to assess reading comprehension for progress-monitoring purposes. Several standardized and norm-referenced measures take between 25 and 45 minutes to administer (some group administered and some individually administered) and provide reliable and valid information on students' reading comprehension.
- Comprehension instruction should encourage students to engage actively in discussions related to the content of the text and about how to read for meaning. The components of reading comprehension instruction include preview techniques, questioning strategies and comprehension monitoring, and text structure and summarizing strategies.