The Pikes Peak
 literacy strategies project

Applying the findings and recommendations of the National Reading Panel
to the teaching and learning of reading in Colorado

Spring 2005

This document is designed to improve the teaching of reading throughout Colorado. Colorado Schools and Districts may duplicate, distribute, extend, and apply this report with appropriate credit given to the Pikes Peak Literacy Strategies Project (PPLSP). Project participants have made a significant effort to cite primary source research wherever possible. The members of the project are not liable for the content. Any errors gladly will be corrected.

This document is available electronically at:
www.wpsdk12.org/pplsp  ~or~  www.pplsp.org
# Contents

Introduction to the Pikes Peak Literacy Strategies Project............................... 1
Acknowledgments.................................................................................................. 2
Training Modules.................................................................................................. 3

The Process: Body of Evidence → Needs → Strategies .................................... 4
What is a Body of Evidence.................................................................................. 5
The Importance of Identifying Skills and Needs................................................. 6
The Importance of Strategies............................................................................. 7
Overarching Instructional Strategies.................................................................... 9
Seven Things Every Teacher can do to Improve Student Achievement .......... 12
Phonemic Awareness.......................................................................................... 13
Phonics............................................................................................................... 17
Fluency.............................................................................................................. 24
Vocabulary......................................................................................................... 30
Comprehension................................................................................................. 37
References......................................................................................................... 52
Additional Suggested Readings......................................................................... 73

Appendix A: Special Circumstances ................................................................. 79
Appendix B: Parent Tips – Elementary .............................................................. 84
Appendix C: Parent Tips – Secondary............................................................... 89
The Pikes Peak Literacy Strategies Project
Spring 2005

In Spring 2003, nine school districts in the Pikes Peak region volunteered to participate in a project to translate the report of the National Reading Panel (2000) into a useable, practical document for classroom teachers. The goals of the group were:

- To ensure that Individual Literacy Plans (ILPs) reflect the comprehensive, recent research describing what reading is and how to teach it
- To provide teachers with instructional strategy suggestions that are based in the findings of empirical research
- To speak a common language about literacy that will assist teachers as students move from one school to another throughout the region
- To improve the quality of instruction at school and support at home for developing readers

The group produced the first version of the PPLSP document in March 2004, which was well received throughout Colorado.

During the 2004-05 school year, with funding from a Power Educators Grant from the Colorado Department of Education, seven school districts in the Pikes Peak region decided to continue the work of the Project. The document has undergone significant revision from its original form. In addition, 10 training modules were developed to accompany the document.

This document is organized as a user-friendly resource tool for district and school administrators as well as for reading specialists and classroom teachers from all content areas. It can be used as the central document in staff development and is a natural part of any discussion about writing and implementing ILPs. The document is available at no cost in PDF format and may be duplicated on paper or in electronic format with appropriate credit given to the source.
Acknowledgments

Support for the project came from the nine school districts in the Pikes Peak Region in year 1 and from a Power Educators grant through the Colorado Department of Education and from 7 districts in year 2. Throughout the process, participants called into question their teaching practices and their beliefs about how students acquire the complex set of skills we refer to as reading. It was a challenging and extraordinary process for all involved, resulting in an appreciation of why a project such as this has not been undertaken previously.

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The Pikes Peak Literacy Strategies Project
Training Modules

The ten training modules are available electronically for anyone interested in using them as long as appropriate credit is acknowledged. The modules are posted at www.wpsdk12.org/pplsp. The training modules were designed to be used in conjunction with this document.

1. Introduction to the 5 Components of Reading
2. Introduction to the PPLSP and CBLA
3. Instructional Strategies
4. Phonemic Awareness Evidence and Strategies
5. Phonics Evidence and Strategies
6. Fluency Evidence and Strategies
7. Vocabulary Evidence and Strategies
8. Comprehension Evidence and Strategies
9. Reading Strategies for Secondary Teachers in other Content Areas
10. Bodies of Evidence and a Process for Building the ILP

Differentiated Recommendations for Training: Depending on the role of the teacher and the teacher’s background knowledge, different approaches to training are suggested. For the teacher with deep background knowledge, an abbreviated training, group leader role, or facilitator role is suggested. For other teachers, their role may dictate which modules are most important.

A. Elementary or secondary teacher or specialist directly involved in construction and implementation of the ILP: All 10 modules are recommended. Modules 1-3 should occur first. Modules 4-8 may be presented in any order. Module 9 is suggested but not necessarily needed. Module 10 should occur last.

B. Elementary or secondary teacher or specialist who works with ILP students, but who is not primarily responsible for its construction: Modules 1-3 should occur first. Modules 4-8 are optional and may be presented in any order. Module 9 is strongly suggested especially if 4-8 are omitted. Module 10 is optional and should occur last.
The Process: Body of Evidence → Needs → Strategies

A thoughtful **review** of the student’s comprehensive body of evidence

leads to...

The accurate **identification** of the student’s literacy skills and needs

resulting in...

The **selection** of appropriate instructional strategies based on identified needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The body of evidence should...</th>
<th>The skill areas identified as needs should...</th>
<th>The strategies to teach the skills should...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Be comprehensive</td>
<td>• Result from a thoughtful review of the body of evidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Include all 5 components of reading</td>
<td>• Be based on the 5 components of reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Be gathered over time</td>
<td>• Be aligned to the skills the student is expected to demonstrate at his/her grade level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Include multiple measures</td>
<td>• Represent a synthesis of the evidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Tell a story describing the student’s overarching strengths and needs</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Be selected after needs are identified clearly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Be selected from the areas of greatest need (especially if the student has many needs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Have research evidence to demonstrate their effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Involve parents, the school, and the student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is a Body of Evidence?

What is a body of evidence?
A body of evidence is a collection of samples over time that, when taken together, help to determine whether a student is on track or in need of assistance. The evidence must be aligned to the grade level expectations and include all 5 components of reading.

Why multiple measures?
No single measure or single sample can tell you everything you need to know about the student’s reading skills. Also, there are different purposes for using each measure:
- Screening – Identifies which students are in need of assistance
- Progress Monitoring – Frequent updates on student progress
- Summative – Identifies whether the student achieved what was expected in the end

What does CDE require?
CBLA currently is undergoing changes, so please refer to documents from the CDE for specific requirements from the law and rules.

Are some assessments better than others?
There are several important considerations when interpreting the results from a particular assessment in the body of evidence:
1) Was the measure well-designed? Are there clear administration procedures? Is there evidence of high reliability and validity?
2) How well does the assessment align to the grade-level expectations? You should use the results only for the areas to which it is well aligned.
3) How good is good enough? Does research exist showing how the assessment compares to other assessments that measure the same thing? How well does performance at different levels predict future performance on measures such as CSAP?
4) Was the assessment administered under the correct conditions according to the documented procedures? A good assessment administered poorly is not useful.

CDE provides a starter list of assessment recommendations, but the list is not comprehensive. A list of criteria for high quality assessments is being written now, and it is hoped that a formal review process addressing the questions above (and others) will be coordinated by CDE in the future.

How does a body of evidence result in a decision about which students need an ILP?
Districts have procedures or “decision rules” to determine which students need an ILP. These procedures vary from district to district. The decision should include all relevant information from the body of evidence and should be connected clearly to the grade level expectations. Teachers should have adequate training in interpreting their evidence so that if two different teachers reviewed the same evidence, they would come to the same conclusion.
The Importance of Identifying Skills and Needs

What is a need?
When interpreting a body of evidence, it is important to answer two questions: 1) Is the student behind? 2) In what skill areas does the student need assistance? A good set of procedures to interpret the body of evidence can help answer the first question. If the student is behind, then the same body of evidence is used to identify the specific areas of focus, or needs, for the literacy plan.

Aren’t the 5 components specific enough?
The PPLSP project teams found that the 5 components of reading are too broad if your goal is to write an effective literacy plan. For example, within fluency there are three different sets of skills the student needs to master: accuracy, speed, and expression. The student who is fast but not accurate is different from the student who is accurate but very slow. Both of these students need work on fluency, but the strategies the teacher employs in each case should be different.

Why are needs important?
Since the first version of the PPLSP document was produced, we have noticed three lingering problems with ILPs: 1) If the need is misidentified, then the strategies selected will not help the student; 2) If too many needs are identified, then the literacy plan will be overwhelming and will not provide sufficient focus for the teacher and family; and 3) If a teacher goes directly to strategies without being clear about the needs first, then the literacy plan is disconnected.

What skill areas did the PPLSP team identify?

Phonemic Awareness
- Identification
- Phoneme Manipulation
- Segmentation
- Auditory Memory
- Auditory Sequencing

Phonics
- Consonants
- Vowels
- Compound Words
- Phonograms / Word Families
- Affixes
- Syllabication

Fluency
- Accuracy
- Automaticity / Speed
- Expression / Prosody

Vocabulary
- Application
- Meaning
- Word Knowledge

Comprehension
- Background Knowledge
- Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition
- Knowledge of Text Structure
- Retelling / Recalling
- Summarizing
- Literal Comprehension
- Inferential Comprehension
- Evaluative Comprehension
The Importance of Strategies

What is a strategy?  A strategy is a tool, plan, or method used for accomplishing a task. (Beckman, 2002)

Different types of strategies are employed within instructional settings throughout the school day. Teachers use instructional strategies to guide student learning. Effective learners activate cognitive strategies to perform academic tasks. Students and teachers utilize specific steps, known as learning strategies, to accomplish short and long-term goals and objectives.

How is a strategy different from an activity or a skill?
Effective readers have a bank of skills that they employ effortlessly to make meaning of print. Strategies are the *deliberate* use of methods to make sense of print. Skills are the *unconscious* use of those same methods. Strategies that are directly taught and practiced frequently enough become automatic skills. Activities are the means of teaching strategies. Classroom activities, then, should be done for two reasons: 1) directly teach new strategies or 2) practice strategies so they become internalized skills. Activities that are not used as tools for strategies or skills are simply “things to do” and use up valuable teaching time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Skill</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Characterized by: | • A planned and organized action  
• Purpose is to teach a strategy or reinforce a skill | • Conscious use  
• “How to…”  
• Transfers to other contexts  
• Transfers to other texts | • Unconscious use  
• Obtained when a strategy becomes automatic |
| Developed by: | N/A | • Introduction  
• Modeling of use  
• Construction of critical characteristics  
• Shared guided practice  
• Independent practice  
• Revisit for transfer | • Repeated independent practice  
• Motivated problem-solving  
• Diverse applications |

Allen (2002)

Why is strategy instruction important?
The guidelines of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 demand that today’s teachers reach all students. The exercise of strategic teaching encourages metacognition – the understanding and monitoring of one’s own learning. When struggling readers are taught strategies coupled with reassurance, guidance, and practice, they improve in their ability to process information.
When should strategies be taught?
Strategy instruction is not another subject for teachers to squeeze into an already overtaxed schedule. Rather, strategy instruction is a distinct part of every subject. It runs throughout the school day and the school year. When strategy instruction becomes an integral part of quality instruction, how teachers teach takes precedence over what teachers teach.

How should strategies be taught?
Strategies should be taught directly. If we do not teach specific strategies for learning, students will create their own, which are often not effective or reliable. The steps are:
1. describe the strategy and its purpose
2. model its use within the context of a lesson
3. provide guided practice
4. encourage self-monitoring, evaluation, and implementation across various subjects and genre (Beckman, 2002)

Who benefits from direct strategy instruction?
Implementation of strategies results in engagement on the part of the learner. Engaged, rather than passive, readers are motivated to attend to instruction and text (Guthrie & Alao, 1997). As engagement, or involvement, increases, so does intrinsic motivation and understanding (Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992). Therefore, all readers benefit from strategy instruction, but especially struggling readers who don’t know how to help themselves when decoding or comprehension breaks down for them. Motivated students access their prior knowledge in multiple areas to monitor their comprehension. As students develop good habits in employing strategies, the strategic thinking goes “underground” and becomes an automatic skill. When strategies are taught directly, practiced with guidance, and used consistently before, during, and after reading text, even struggling readers can be taught to be skillful readers. (Allen, 2000)

How are strategies connected to the process of language acquisition?
Reading occurs within the framework of the natural process of language acquisition. The order of language acquisition cannot be changed, but its rate can be enhanced. Stephen Krashen’s (1993) research suggests five key concepts to enhance language acquisition:
1) The order or sequence of language acquisition is minimally impacted by conscious learning (such as in school), both in oral and written language.
2) There is a natural order to language acquisition.
3) Effective language instruction is best used in editing writing when there is more time to deliberate and recall.
4) Targeting language just above a learner’s proficiency level is ideal for growth in new structures and vocabulary.
5) Language development is connected to affect. Affect influences the student’s ability to engage in and retain new language. In order for a person to monitor their language usage through reading, there must be sufficient time, focus of attention, conscious knowledge of the rules involved, and suitable affect.
Overarching Instructional Strategies

Some strategies do not fit neatly into a particular reading component and so a general category was created. Below is a list of strategies supported in the research literature that can be used by the teacher, parent, or student to improve overall achievement. In most cases, the strategies below can be used as a means to teach or reinforce the specific reading strategies described in each dimension. For example, modeling is an important method the teacher/parent uses to demonstrate for the student how proper oral reading expression sounds (a fluency skill). The teacher also can use modeling to demonstrate a sequencing strategy that enhances comprehension.

These strategies are not limited in their usefulness to a particular content, grade level, or student demographic. All students benefit from high-quality teaching and the techniques described here can be very effective when implemented under the right conditions.

Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001) identifies nine instructional strategies teachers can use in all grade levels and content areas to improve student achievement. They include:

1. **Identifying similarities and differences** helps students recognize the critical characteristics of concepts and ideas, which are the foundation of knowledge acquisition. For young children, building the understanding of comparing and contrasting is accomplished through classifying concrete objects. Activities of this nature lead to the understanding of abstract ideas and problem solving. For older students, graphic organizers and symbolic representations such as metaphors and analogies elevate understanding of content. Being able to distinguish and apply patterns within and among topics enhances learning at all stages.

2. Despite their age, **summarizing and note taking** retain their niche among the most highly effective cognitive strategies. To concisely summarize, one must possess the prerequisite skill of separating pertinent from non-relevant information. This pulling apart and reassembling, or synthesizing, of information is even more crucial in our society of “information overload”. To be successful, students need guidance and practice in analyzing information at a deep level through the application of rules, questioning techniques, clarification of vocabulary, and understanding of text structure.

3. Effectively **reinforcing effort and providing recognition** speaks to the affective domain of learning, but also impacts the cognitive domain through stimulating motivation. All students do not inherently believe in the power of effort, but its connection to academic success can and should be taught and demonstrated. Charting effort and progress through the use of rubrics and graphs empowers students and promotes ownership for their own learning. Because the concepts of reward and praise can easily be misused and misunderstood, the authors prefer the application of recognition for specific performances towards a given goal. This recognition should be personal and specific.
4. Practice turns strategies into skills. Homework expands practice. **Homework and practice** move students along the continuum to mastery. Practice should first be guided and move toward independent. Focused practice is most beneficial when students are engaged in tasks that require a complicated process. Focusing on subtasks for practice strengthens the entire skill. The purpose of homework should always be clear and specific. Homework may be assigned for the purposes of practicing a previously taught content or preparing students’ thinking for new content. Homework should generally be at a student’s independent level. If it is worth assigning, it should be worthy of feedback. The amount of homework should vary by grade level.

5. **Nonlinguistic representations** provide enhanced learning opportunities especially for students whose strengths lie in the areas of visual and kinesthetic modalities. The greatest portion of new content is presented linguistically. Nonlinguistic representations couple linguistics with imagery, the two ways information is stored in the brain. Nonlinguistic representations include a variety of activities including: creating mental images, drawing pictures and pictographs, graphic organizers, physical models, and physical movement.

6. **Cooperative learning**, can be a productive support for a variety of students. When students are thoughtfully grouped for specific learning outcomes, cooperative learning promotes both social and academic skills. Specific group interaction skills should be taught to students prior to their participation in groups. Two key elements include ensuring all students contribute to the good of the group and all students are held accountable individually within the group to foster positive interdependence.

7. Encouraging students to **set goals and then providing feedback** on the status of their progress toward their objectives reinforces direction, purpose, and metacognition. Goals should be specific but flexible. Feedback should specifically include what the student is doing right and what the student is doing wrong. Some students may need personal contracts to accomplish their goals.

8. The cognitive skill of **generating and testing hypotheses** moves students to the higher levels of thinking in diverse subjects. Deductive thinking involves implementing known rules to predict future outcomes. Inductive thinking is performed when conclusions are drawn from known information. Encouraging students to explain their thought process further deepens understanding.

9. **Cues, questions, and advance organizers** are instructional techniques that prepare students for new learning by activating prior knowledge. Cues, or hints, and questions should focus on important concepts rather than minute facts. Questions should include the literal, inferential, and evaluative levels. Wait time, or pausing for several seconds after posing a question, encourages deeper thinking and active engagement on the part of more learners.

In addition to the strategies described above, a number of other techniques appeared repeatedly in the research literature as they relate to learning in general, including:

1. **Acquiring skills and behaviors** is aided through **modeling** the desirable skills and behaviors according to Albert Bandura’s social cognitive theory. By demonstrating the
skill for the student, the teacher is providing a visual/auditory means by which the student can replicate the skill. When students are left to “figure out what the teacher means” through written or oral directions, they are less likely to produce outcomes at a high level of quality.

2. **Repetition.** The National Reading Panel notes that new vocabulary most likely will become internalized when it is presented many times and in multiple contexts. While some behaviors are learned by observing them once or a few times, the skills associated with reading are more complex. Also, with reading skills, the goal is for students not only to be able to demonstrate a strategy on demand, but to internalize the skill and apply it appropriately and independently as needed. Students will need guided opportunities to apply the strategy in multiple contexts and with a variety of texts to transform the conscious strategy into an automatic skill.

3. **Scaffolding** is the process of providing structure and/or assistance to students to help them as they learn a new skill. The concept is based on Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and more specifically the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The ZPD is defined as the distance between what the student can do by himself and the next level that he can be helped to achieve with competent assistance. This is a highly motivating and challenging level of learning for the student with the scaffolds providing temporary assistance allowing them to direct their activities, plan, and have successful outcomes. Gradually, more responsibility is released to the student as the skill becomes internalized.

4. **Progress Monitoring and Ongoing Classroom Assessment.** The special education community has been applying the concept of progress monitoring through IEPs for a number of years. More recently, the regular education community is applying the concept of progress monitoring in reading and other content areas. The thought is that by measuring student achievement in a standardized way more frequently, teachers can modify instruction and remediate immediately when a problem is identified. Certain measures are more susceptible to practice effects and it is easy to over rely on a single measure, so one must be cautious. However, regularly connecting classroom assessment to progress on important skills, and modifying instruction based on student needs is desirable.

   **Concept-Based Instruction.** Learning best occurs when students see networks of information, rather than isolated facts to be memorized. Instruction based on “sameness” helps students develop a holistic understanding of process and content. For example, in the teaching of reading, students are taught to decode unknown words by recognizing common phonetic elements in the words. In reading instruction, students are taught to identify common elements of narrative writing (story grammar) and can then apply their knowledge of setting, main characters, goal, events and resolution to new stories thus enhancing comprehension. In content areas such as history or social studies, learning can become an exercise in the memorization of isolated facts, dates, and events. The use of a concept-based approach allows students to see information in the larger framework of related concepts, recurring problems and solutions (Kinder & Bursuck, 1991).
Seven Things Every Teacher can do to Improve Student Achievement

1. RESPONSIVE: Provide instruction that is responsive to the diagnosed needs of students. Carefully listen to and observe students to understand not only who is struggling, but why. Where are the misconceptions? Which skills are lacking? To do this well, the teacher must skillfully interpret the data available to them that helps identify the students’ strengths and needs. Also, teachers must clearly understand the skills and level of sophistication that the student must develop in order to be successful.

2. HIGH EXPECTATIONS: Set high expectations for all students. A recent article in Education Week (Burris, 2004) described a school in which the honors track became the normal track for students. The focus was on equity. Not only did regular achievers thrive, but so did the traditional high achievers.

3. SCHEMA ACTIVATION: Introduce new concepts by helping students see connections between what they already know and what is new. As a result, they are more likely to make meaningful and permanent connections to new information and ideas. Before expecting students to read text independently in an area in which the student has little background knowledge, begin by connecting it to prior knowledge in a related area. This can be done through vocabulary and/or through a discussion of related concepts and ideas.

4. SCAFFOLDING: Scaffolding is when the teacher provides students with assistance as a temporary means to help the student perform at a level above what he can do independently. It helps the student operate in his zone of proximal development (Vygotsky), which is a highly motivating and challenging skill level. Obviously, if a teacher simply starts teaching all students with higher expectations (see #2 above) without providing them with the support they need to reach those expectations, many students will struggle and give up. It is important to note that the scaffold should be removed gradually until the student is able to perform the skill independently.

5. MODELING: Students have the right to know what we expect of them and at what skill level it is expected. Albert Bandura provided the field with numerous research studies illustrating the power of modeling in student learning. Students learn a considerable amount from what they observe. Models allows students to see what the teacher expects, thus allowing them to use the high quality samples to gauge their own work.

6. FEEDBACK: Provide specific and immediate feedback. Carol Dweck and others have conducted considerable research in the field of human motivation illustrating that specific feedback is more useful than general feedback, and that immediate feedback is more effective than delayed feedback.

7. INTERNAL MONITORING: Help students develop metacognition skills. Scott Paris, Dale Schunk, and others conducted research related to helping students raise their awareness of what they know and don’t know. Students who are consciously aware of their understanding and who ask questions of themselves as they read are more likely to notice when their comprehension breaks down.
Component: Phonemic Awareness

**Definition:**
Phonemic Awareness is the ability to hear, discriminate, and manipulate the sounds of language.

**Overview:**
Phonemic Awareness is the critical foundation upon which reading skills are built. It is much easier for a student to learn to read print, when they are already aware of how the sounds of language work. Through phonemic awareness training, students learn that words are made up of single speech sounds or “phonemes.” The sounds are connected to the symbols (graphemes) of our language through phonics. Phonemic awareness and phonics have a reciprocal relationship; developing skills in one area helps the other, but they are very distinct and separate skills.

*Note:* a letter written between two slashed lines (e.g., /b/) signals that the sound of the letter should be made, not the name of the letter.

**Skill Areas Within this Component:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identification</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to hear and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discriminate each isolated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sound that makes up a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phoneme isolation</strong></td>
<td>first sound in Dan is /D/</td>
<td>first sound in Dan is /b/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>last sound in trap is /p/</td>
<td>last sound in black is /bl/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>medial sound in men is /e/</td>
<td>last sound in trap is /b/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>medial sound in men is /a/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Beginning Sounds: Alliteration** |                                                                                   |                                                                                  |            |
|                                  | tip, toe, tub all have the same beginning sound /t/                                |                                                                                  |            |

<p>| <strong>Phoneme Catagorization</strong>     | Teacher: Tell me which of these 3 words does not begin the same.                 | Teacher: Tell me which of these 3 words does not begin the same.                |            |
|                              | dog, dot, cup.                                                                    | dog, dot, cup.                                                                    |            |
|                              | Student: cup                                                                      | Student: dot                                                                      |            |
|                              | Teacher: check, chocolate, thick                                                  | Teacher: check, chocolate, thick                                                 |            |
|                              | Student: thick                                                                    | Student: check                                                                    |            | 3          |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phoneme Manipulation</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Phoneme Substitution**   | Student can change a letter in a given word to make a new word.  
• change the /g/ in bug to /n/ = bun | Student cannot change a letter in a given word to make a new word  
• change the /g/ in bug to /n/ = nug or nub. | 4          |
| **Phoneme Addition**       | Student is able to add phonemes to form words:  
• /b/ /i/ /g/) = big  
• add /s/ to “park” to get “spark” | Student is unable to add phonemes to form words:  
• /b/ /i/ /g/) = gib  
• add /s/ to “park” to get “parks” | 5, 6       |
| **Phoneme Deletion**       | Student is able to delete phonemes to form words:  
• say fields without the “s” = field  
• say pant without the “p” = ant  | Student is unable to delete phonemes to form words:  
• say fields without the “s” = ields  
• say pant without the “p” = pan | 7          |
| **Segmentation**           |                                                                                 |                                                                                  |            |
| **Segmenting Phonemes**    | Student breaks words into individual parts.  
• can=/c/ /a/ /n/  
• ship=/sh/ /i/ /p/ | Student cannot break words into individual parts.  
• can=/ca/ /n/  
• ship=/s/ /i/ /p/ | 8, 9       |
| **Auditory Sequencing**    | Student keeps segmented sounds in memory and blends them back together to form the word.  
• /p/ /a/ /n/ /t/) = pant  
• /f/ /i/ /n/ /t/) = fin | Student cannot keep segmented sounds in memory and blend them back together to form the word.  
• /p/ /a/ /n/ /t/) = pan  
• /f/ /i/ /n/ /t/) = fun | 10         |

**What the Research Says:**

- Phonemic awareness is best taught as a pre-phonics skill in kindergarten and first grade.
- Phonemic awareness has a strong relationship to reading success in all types of readers (Ehri, 1994).
- Remedial readers generally have poor phonemic awareness (Bradly & Bryant, 1985).
- Remediation in phonemic awareness is highly effective for struggling early readers (Blachman, Ball, Black, & Tangel, 1994).
• The effects of phonemic awareness instruction are evident long after the actual instruction stops (Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1995).
• Each skill area has multiple levels of difficulty. Working with the initial sounds in words is easiest. Next students should move to the final sounds and work on the medial (vowel sounds) last.
• Teaching segmenting and blending improves performance. Teaching only segmenting has a positive effect. Teaching only blending is not effective instruction (Torgesen, Morgan, & Davis, 1992).
• Phonemic awareness training is most effective when instruction is brief and occurs daily. Daily auditory practice is an effective tool for achieving success in phonemic awareness. This auditory practice consists of 1-2 minutes of daily practice on each phoneme skill described above.
• Instruction in onset and rime through phonemic awareness positively effects spelling skills (Fox & Routh, 1984).
• There are better results when students concentrate on using only one or two types of manipulation (NRP, 2000).
• All instruction helps, but small group instruction for phonemic awareness is more effective than large group or one-on-one instruction (Bus & van Ijzendoorn, 1999).

**Best Practices in Instruction:**
• Teach through the auditory mode. Although it leads directly into phonics when matching the letters (graphemes) to the sounds, phonemic awareness is an auditory skill.
• Stress proper pronunciation of phonemes. There should be no vowel intrusion and sounds should be crisp when pronounced. The letter “B” says /b/, not /buh/.
• Promote older students’ understanding of phonemic awareness skills by having them create examples in peer tutoring situations with younger students.
• Start with larger units and move to phonemes. A sample progression: start with rhyming words, move to identifying small words withing compound words, to identifying syllables, to identifying phonemes.
• Teach sounds to a level of rapid recall to improve the transfer of skills to reading and spelling.
• Put fears of doing it “wrong” aside. Instruction in phonemic awareness is effective with a variety of learners under a wide variety of conditions, including instruction with computer programs.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Skill Area</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Isolation</td>
<td>Isolating individual sounds in a word (van = /v/ is the first sound)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in a word in which two sounds are in isolation. Example: &quot;What is the first sound in the word planet?&quot; What is the last sound in planet? /t/</td>
<td>Play fun and word games isolating individual sounds in words. Examples include: &quot;Ask the child: What is the first sound in pizza? What is the last sound in couch?&quot; For a more difficult game, one player says a word and the next player says a word that begins with the same sound as the last sound. Example: toeit - stop - pig - goat, etc.</td>
<td>Joseph (2002a); Liberman, et al. (1974); Liberman (1987); Gaskins, et al. (1988); Glushko (1979); Goswami (1986); Joseph (2002a); Marsh, et al. (1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Identifying the same sound in multiple words (fit, fat, and fun)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
<td>Play fun and word games where one player says a word and the next player says a word that begins with the same sound as the last sound. Example: toeit - stop - pig - goat, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Categorization</td>
<td>Recognizing a word that has a different sound in a set of words (but, bug, run does not fit because it does not begin with the /b/ sound)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Substitution</td>
<td>Substituting one phoneme for another to make a new word (bug = bun)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Blending</td>
<td>Combining a sequence of phonemes into a word (met = /m/ /e/ /t/)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Addition</td>
<td>Making a new word by adding a phoneme to an existing word (begin with the word spark and add a /l/ to the beginning = spark)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Deletion</td>
<td>Recognizing a word that remains after a phoneme is removed: smile minus /m/ = shine</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Segmentation</td>
<td>Breaking a word into separate phonemes (grab = /g/ /r/ /a/)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Phoneme Identification</td>
<td>Phoneme Categorization</td>
<td>Breaking down into segments by identifying the initial sound(s) or onset and the remaining word part or rime (a-e, am- le, -ing)</td>
<td>Model the segmentation of sounds in words by moving counters (not letters) into a drawn rectangle that has been divided into as many sections as the sounds in the word. Then model the deletion of a sound by removing the counter that represents that sound and replacing it with a counter representing a new sound. Example: Which sound is in the word set? /t/</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Auditory Sequencing</td>
<td>Auditory Sequencing Training</td>
<td>Teacher transmits student to retain up to seven words to build memory. Even though this helps students decode words, it is an auditory exercise. Say three to seven unrelated words to the student. Say them clearly and pause for about a half second between each one. The student then repeats the words in the correct sequence. Start with three words and work up to seven. To reinforce this strategy, play a memory game where one player says a word and the next player says a word that begins with the same sound as the last sound. Example: toeit - stop - pig - goat, etc.</td>
<td>Play fun and word games where one player says a word and the next player says a word that begins with the same sound as the last sound. Example: toeit - stop - pig - goat, etc.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Component: Phonics

**Definition:**
Phonics is the ability to 1) learn the alphabetic system known as letter-sound or grapheme-phoneme correspondence 2) apply this code knowledge during reading by blending the sounds into words (decoding) and 3) apply this code knowledge during writing by spelling words (encoding).

**Overview:**
Phonics is an essential part of the decoding process. Decoding is the primary means of word recognition. If a student cannot make sound-symbol associations (decode) with accuracy and automaticity, then fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension will suffer. Readers decipher words in five ways:

1. by assembling letters into a blend of sounds, referred to as decoding
2. by pronouncing and blending familiar spelling patterns, a more advanced form of decoding
3. by retrieving sight words from memory
4. by analogizing to words already known by sight (adding affixes to known roots or bases)
5. by using context clues to predict words (Ehri, Nunes, Stahl, & Willows, 1997)

All of these methods require alphabetic knowledge whether applied slowly or instantaneously retrieved from memory. Spelling training also benefits from phonics instruction as students learn to transfer the patterns they hear and read to graphophonic symbols.

**Skill Areas within this Component:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consonants</strong></td>
<td>Student is able to match a consonant sound to the representative symbol</td>
<td>Student has difficulty identifying and pronouncing the consonant sounds, blends, and digraphs in words</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to recognize the sound-symbol relationship of the 21 consonants</td>
<td>/d/ for d</td>
<td>b for /d/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/gl/ for gl</td>
<td>g for /gl/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/ch/ for ch</td>
<td>c for /ch/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vowels</strong></td>
<td>Student is able to match a vowel sound to the representative symbol and blend vowels within words</td>
<td>Student has difficulty decoding and blending vowels within words. Student consistently mispronounces vowel sounds.</td>
<td>6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to recognize the sound symbol relationship of the 5, sometimes 6, vowels</td>
<td>matches short vowel sounds in CVC words</td>
<td>says short e for short i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>matches o, oe, for long o vowel sound</td>
<td>says short u for short o</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>matches i, ie for long i vowel sound</td>
<td>sounds out o and u for /ou/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Skill Area | Evidence of Skill | Evidence of Need | Strategies
--- | --- | --- | ---
**Compound Words** | Student is able to distinguish smaller word units within a compound word.  
- mailbox = mail/box  
- glassware = glass/ware | Students cannot distinguish smaller word units within the compound word and pronunciation is inaccurate.  
- mailbox = mailb/ox  
- glassware = glas/sware | 13

**Phonograms/Word Families** | Student is able to automatically identify and apply word patterns in their reading.  
- /at/ is in cat, bat, sat  
- /ish/ is in wish, swish  
- /ight/ is in bright, tight, sight | Student cannot automatically identify the most commonly used patterns of spelling and/or pronunciation.  
- attempts to sound out “ight”, “ought”, “aught” | 14, 15

**Affixes** | Student is able to apply affix knowledge when decoding words.  
- interaction=inter-ac-tion | Student does not pronounce affixes correctly and cannot identify root/base words.  
- interaction = in-ter-act-ion | 16, 17, 18

**Syllabication** | Student is able to break words apart into logical word chunks.  
- pro-tec-tion  
- bloom-ing  
- sec-tion-al | The student who needs work with syllables is already skilled with sound-symbol relationships, but is either trying to decode words sound by sound or is breaking words into non-syllabic chunks, making decoding difficult  
- pr-o-t-ec-tion  
- b-l-o-om-ing  
- s-ect-ion-al | 19, 20

### What the Research Says:
- Phonics instruction must be explicit (a specific set of letter-sound relations) and systematic (taught in a preplanned sequence) (Adams, 1990).
- Poorly developed word recognition skills are the most pervasive and debilitating source or reading challenges (Adams, 1990, Perfetti, 1986).
- Phonics instruction is best taught for two consecutive years (K/1 or 1/2) (NRP, 2000).
- Beyond fifth grade, the average student encounters approximately 10,000 new words each year (Nagy & Andersen, 1984).
- Alphabetic knowledge is essential for literacy acquisition to reach a mature state (Ehri, Nunes, Stahl, & Willows, 2001).
- Teaching students strategies for decoding longer words improves their decoding ability (Shefelbine, 1990).
- Using letters to manipulate phonemes helps children make the transfer to reading and writing (NRP, 2000).
• Assembling letters into blends of sounds requires knowledge of the relationship between phonemes, the basic vocal gestures from which spoken words are constructed, and graphemes, the letter symbols of the sounds in the alphabet (NRP, 2000).
• Systematic use of synthetic phonics (part-to-whole) is important in helping kindergarteners and first graders learn to read (Ehri, Nunes, Stahl, & Willows, 2001).
• We learn to use "chunks" of letters to remember similarly spelled words and add-ons (affixes) to change base word intention or to change word tenses. These patterns form the basis for reading and writing in English.
• Mnemonics in the form of picture and sound cues enable letter and sound learning (Ehri, Deffner, & Wilce, 1984).
• High quality phonics instruction is based on the following 8 characteristics:
  1) Understanding the alphabetic principle
  2) Development of phonological awareness
  3) Obtaining a grounding in letters
  4) Avoiding rule-dominated, boring, worksheet-driven, overuse of a reading program
  5) Applying sufficient practice of word reading in context and in isolation
  6) Applying sufficient graphophonic (writing) applications
  7) Practice in recognition of automatic words (sight words)
  8) Recognition that phonics is only part of a good reading program (Stahl, Duffy-Hester, & Stahl, 1998).

**Best Practices in Instruction:**
• Include phonics, phonemic awareness training, and immersion in appropriate literature and environmental print as essential parts of your reading program.
• Teach phonics as long as you see the need in your students, because no clear research indicates the age or grade at which phonics instruction ceases to be effective.
• Make phonics as fun and entertaining as possible.
• Use real words or pseudowords.
• Provide substantial practice with a variety of words.
• Move instruction from code knowledge in isolation, to the context of words, to authentic text to provide ample practice and demonstrate the connection of phonics to reading.
• Deciding to teach the vowel combinations or the syllables will largely depend on the level of students. Students in intermediate elementary and higher grades may gain more understanding with instruction in syllabication and affixes.
• Realize that basal readers, literature based programs, and sight-word programs generally are not acceptable sources for phonics instruction because they tend not to be systematic. Furthermore, just adding phonics workbooks or activities as supplemental materials to these programs tend to cause confusion for readers because they are not explicit or systematic.
• Teach auditory-visual integration to bridge phonemic awareness, phonics, and spelling. Students blend words phoneme by phoneme as teacher writes on a wipe off board; teacher writes the phoneme and says “sound” to cue students to make the sound; after all
phonemes have been written, teacher says “word” to cue students to read the whole word (/c/ sound, /a/ sound, /t/ sound, word = cat).

- Teach in a whole-part-whole sequence:
  - Diagnose the specific skill that is needed - introduce the skill with rich examples of the particular skill you are teaching
  - Read through the sample aloud and with the student
  - Isolate all of the words that illustrate the skill and write them on a wipe off board
  - Analyze them with the student and teach the skill
  - Add other words with the skill to the board and have the student read them
  - Finally, put the skill back into the whole and give the student another writing sample to read, rich with words with the skill just taught.
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<tr>
<td>Ph-1 Consonants Individual</td>
<td>Consonants</td>
<td>Sounds that are formed by the tongue changing how the air flows out of the mouth. Modeling the look, feel, and sound of consonants helps draw the child's attention to the unique characteristics of consonants.</td>
<td>This usually is a teacher-directed strategy. Model and describe the placement of the tongue in the production of each consonant sound. A mirror can provide the student with visual feedback of the mouth shape.</td>
<td>Play games that match consonant letters to the sounds that they make. Games like Concentration where a letter card is matched with a picture card that starts with the same sound.</td>
<td>Adams (1990); Fielding-Barnsley (1997); Torgesen, et al. (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-2 Consonants Doubled</td>
<td>Consonants</td>
<td>Sounds that are formed by the same consonants together making only one sound.</td>
<td>Model the spelling rule regarding the doubling of consonants f,l, and s. When all three conditions are present the consonant f,l, and s are doubled. The word is one syllable, the vowel makes the short sound and the word ends in f,l, or s.</td>
<td>Word Hunt: Look for words in text that fit the spelling pattern, analysis if the rule stays true, and then use the word in a different sentence. Word Sort: After completing a word hunt, sort the words found into categories.</td>
<td>Joseph (2002b); Liberman, et al. (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-3 Consonants Consonant Blends</td>
<td>Consonants</td>
<td>Two consonants quickly blended together, each saying their typical sound. Can be placed at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a word. Examples: st-, fl-, tr-, sm-, and -mp.</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part-whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>Play games like Concentration, Go Fish and Dominoes which require student to match picture and letter cards. Word Hunt: Look for words in text that fit the spelling pattern, analysis if the rule stays true, and then use the word in a different sentence. Word Sort: After completing a word hunt, sort the words found into categories.</td>
<td>Byrne &amp; Flegkting-Barnsley (1991); Joseph (2002b); Liberman, et al. (1974)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ph-4 Consonants Diagraphs</td>
<td>Consonants</td>
<td>Two consonants together that make a completely different sound. Examples: th, sh, wh, and ph.</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part-whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
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<td>Byrne &amp; Flegkting-Barnsley (1991); Joseph (2002b); Liberman, et al. (1974)</td>
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<td>Ph-5 Consonants Silent Consonants</td>
<td>Consonants</td>
<td>Consonants in words that are silent. Examples: the g in gnat, k in knee, and b in comb. There are many other examples of silent consonants in words with atypical spellings.</td>
<td>Introduce silent consonants within a piece of writing. Identify the consonant in the word that is silent. Look for and analyze other words following the same spelling patterns. Look for silent consonants in words that do not follow any rule. Finally, put the words back into context by using them in a sentence.</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with silent letters by reminding them which letter is silent.</td>
<td>Liberman, et al. (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-6 Vowels Short Vowels (initial and medial)</td>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>/a/ /e/ /i/ /o/ /u/ in initial, medial, and final position of words</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part-whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with short vowels by reminding them of the rule. When only one vowel is present and followed by a consonant in a word or syllable, the vowel makes the sound other than its name. Example: hat, or con-text.</td>
<td>Liberman, et al. (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-7 Vowels Long Vowels - Silent e</td>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>Also called &quot;magic e,&quot; or &quot;sneaky e,&quot; changes the vowel before it into its long sound (mad + e = made; tip + e = ripe)</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part-whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with silent e by reminding them of the rule. When a consonant, vowel, and consonant is followed by e, the e is silent and the vowel says its name. Example: made, kife, hoppe, and cute.</td>
<td>Liberman, et al. (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-8 Vowels Long Vowels - Doubled</td>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>In some cases, when a vowel is doubled, the sound is long (sheep, teeth)</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part-whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with double vowels by reminding them of the rule. When the letter e is doubled in a word, it says its name. Example: street.</td>
<td>Liberman, et al. (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>Skill Area</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ph-9</td>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>Long Vowels - Diagraphs</td>
<td>When two vowels are paired they make a new sound (hook, field) or the first vowel is long and the second is silent (rain, beat)</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with long vowels by reminding them of the rule. When two vowels are paired the first vowel says its name and the other is silent as in the words rain, beat, goat and blue. When two vowels are paired they make a new sound as in the words hook, boot and field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-10</td>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>Long Vowels - &quot;r&quot; Controlled</td>
<td>The vowel makes a different sound because of the intrusion of the r (start, her, shirt, short, hurt)</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with an r-controlled vowel in it by reminding them of the rule. When one vowel is immediately followed by an r, the vowel sound is changed. Examples: start, fur, short, and first.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-11</td>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>Long Vowels - Open</td>
<td>The vowel in the open syllable is long (open, apron, ivy, acorn)</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with an open syllable by reminding them of the rule. When a word has more than one syllable and one of the syllables ends in a vowel, or a one syllable word ends in a vowel that vowel says its name. Examples: o-pen, a-corn, io, and be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-12</td>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>Long Vowels - Diphthongs / Sliders</td>
<td>The mouth changes shape while making the sound (oi – toil, oy – toy; ou- mouth, ow – cow)</td>
<td>The teacher must be able to diagnose accurately the specific skill(s) a student is having difficulty with and then teach that skill in a whole-part whole sequence. To do this, introduce the skill within a piece of writing (something from your content area if you are a secondary teacher). The text should be rich with the particular skill you are teaching. After reading it aloud, isolate the words containing the target skill and write them on a wipe off board. Analyze them with the student and teach the skill. Add other words that require the skill to the board and have the student read them. Finally, put the skill back in the context of the whole text and give the student another piece to read, rich with words containing the skill just taught (you may need to write your own examples).</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them decode words with vowel combinations by reminding them of the sound the combination makes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-13</td>
<td>Compound Words</td>
<td>Compound Words</td>
<td>One word made up of two words that could stand alone example: snowman, mailbox, doghouse, etc.</td>
<td>Help the student analyze the word and identify the smaller words within the larger word. Use the word in context.</td>
<td>Search for compound words in text. Discuss that two words are put together to make one word. Your child can illustrate the word to further demonstrate understanding. Example for the word &quot;doghouse&quot; the drawing would be of a dog and a house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-14</td>
<td>Phonograms / Word Families</td>
<td>Simple (on)</td>
<td>We commonly refer to phonograms/word families as rhyming words.</td>
<td>Begin teaching phonograms with single syllable words. Split them into onset and rime as described here. Find simple short vowel patterns such as at, an, et, etc. Create a list of words with that pattern (bat, sat, hat, cat, rat, mat, etc.). Apply the skill by reading these words embedded in text. As more sophistication is needed, expand into analogsy word recognition (using word parts for recognition in new words).</td>
<td>Play rhyming games. Take turns making rhymes with real and nonsense words. Practice spelling the rhymes noting the repeated spelling pattern. (Note: not all words that rhyme are spelled using the same spelling pattern. They must be spelled the same to be in the same word family).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-15</td>
<td>Phonograms / Word Families</td>
<td>Complex (-ought)</td>
<td>We commonly refer to phonograms/word families as rhyming words.</td>
<td>Begin teaching phonograms with single syllable words. Split them into onset and rime as described here. Find complex word patterns. Create a list of words with that pattern (sought, wought, bought, etc.). Apply the skill by reading these words embedded in text. As more sophistication is needed, expand into analogsy word recognition (using word parts for recognition in new words).</td>
<td>Play rhyming games. Take turns making rhymes with real and nonsense words. Practice spelling the rhymes noting the repeated spelling pattern. (Note: not all words that rhyme are spelled using the same spelling pattern. They must be spelled the same to be in the same word family).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-16</td>
<td>Affixes</td>
<td>Prefix Recognition and Application</td>
<td>Prefixes are a group of letters that appear in the front of a word and affect the meaning of the base word.</td>
<td>Provide students with a list of base words and a set of prefixes. Students combine the word parts to create and present new words. Create matching games, such as matching prefixes to their meaning. Teach only the most common prefixes first (un, re, in, im, ir, il, is, en, em, on, over, mis, sub, pre, inter, de, trans, super, semi, ad, mid, under).</td>
<td>When reading with your child help them decode words with prefixes by identifying the prefix and the base word that is attached to help them understand the meaning of the prefix and the word together in the context of the sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>Skill Area</td>
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<td>Elaboration/Clarification</td>
<td>Teaching Tips</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ph-17</td>
<td>Affixes</td>
<td>Suffix Recognition and Application</td>
<td>A suffix is a letter or group of letters that is added to the end of a base word. A suffix changes the meaning of the root or base word. Students need to understand the meaning of the suffix and how it affects the word it is attached to.</td>
<td>Provide students with a list of base words and a set of suffixes. Students combine the word parts to create and present new words. Create matching games such as matching suffixes to their meaning. Teach only the most common suffixes first (s, es, ed, ing, ly, er, or, ion, tion, allo, lon, like, able, al, ist, y, ness, ly, ment, ic, ous, end, ous, en, e, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous, enous, ous, en, i, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous, enous, ous, en, i, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous, enous, ous, en, i, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous, enous, ous, en, i, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous, enous, ous, en, i, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous, enous, ous, en, i, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous, enous, ous, en, i, ou, ible, able, al, ial, y, ness, ity, ty, ment, ic, ous,</td>
<td>When reading with your child help them decode words with suffixes by identifying the suffix and the base word that it is attached to. Help them understand the meaning of the suffix and the word together in the context of the sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-18</td>
<td>Affixes</td>
<td>Base Words with Affixes</td>
<td>English words are derived primarily from Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek. Recognizing and understanding base words and how affixes modify those words is a key to making meaning when reading.</td>
<td>Help students separate the base word from the affixes. Define the base word. This can be done through direct practice and word games. Then, discuss how the addition of affixes modify the meaning of the word in context. Students can combine word parts pre-affix-base-affix to make new words that they would then use in their writing and speaking or look for when reading.</td>
<td>When reading with your child help them decode words with affixes by identifying the base word and the affix that it is attached to. Help them understand the meaning of the affix and base word separately and together in the context of the sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-19</td>
<td>Syllabication</td>
<td>Visual Cues with a Mirror</td>
<td>Every syllable in a word has only one vowel sound, even if there are several vowel letters. This strategy involves helping students feel, see, and hear syllables by using a mirror to watch their mouth as they say words.</td>
<td>Have the student look in a mirror and count the number of times his mouth opens when saying a word. Each jaw drop is a syllable. Ask the student to identify which part of the word made their mouth open (the vowel sound). Each syllable has one vowel sound. Present the student with various words so they can detect the syllables in them. Also, you can connect this learning to decoding during reading, by having the student segment the words into syllables on paper while using the mirror.</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them read multisyllable words by helping them identify the different syllables. Place your hand under your chin and say the word. Every time your hand goes down is a new syllable. Breaking the word into syllables helps longer words be more manageable to the reader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph-20</td>
<td>Syllabication</td>
<td>Direct Instruction of Six Syllable Types</td>
<td>Students need to understand and recognize the 6 patterns of syllabication (orthographic units). These key concepts should be taught in the following sequence: closed, open, vowel, consonant, silent e, r controlled, consonant e. The concepts should be modeled and practiced and each syllable type should be introduced and then practiced separately.</td>
<td>Activity 1) Select a word with recognizable word parts according to the 6 syllable spelling patterns. Underline or loop your finger under or reveal the first syllable pattern. Help the student pronounce the syllable. Continue syllable by syllable for the rest of the word. Have the student blend the syllables together to pronounce the word. If this activity occurs within the context of reading, ask “Is that a real word?” Does it make sense in the sentence?” Activity 2) Write several words syllable by syllable, leaving enough space between word parts for students to see the syllable divisions. Have the student identify the type of syllable and pronounce it. Then blend the syllables together to form words. Activity 3) Write a series of related syllables (all of the same type). Have the student read syllables and identify the syllable type. Activity 4) Write individual syllables on note cards. Have students arrange syllables to form words. Activity 5) Give the student a list of polysyllabic words. Students should be able to segment the words into syllables and pronounce each syllable. Activity 6) Give the student a list of common syllables of several types. Have they read as many as possible in one minute. Activity 7) Some good sources for words and syllables are the 100 Most Common Non-word Syllables and 322 Most Frequent Syllables in the 5,000 Most Common Words in English.</td>
<td>When reading with your child, help them read multisyllable words by helping them identify the different syllables. Place your hand under your chin and say the word. Every time your hand goes down is a new syllable. Breaking the word into syllables helps longer words be more manageable to the reader.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Component: Fluency

**Definition**
Fluency is reading text meaningfully with appropriate speed, accuracy, and expression.

**Overview**
Fluency is a prerequisite to the primary goal of reading, which is constructing meaning from print. When fluency is in place, reading sounds like interesting conversation. When readers miscue, or make mistakes in reading the print as it is found on the page, it interferes with fluency, and comprehension suffers. Oral reading is the teacher’s window to student fluency.

Oral reading has two purposes: 1) to diagnosis fluency 2) to target instruction with appropriate accuracy, speed, and expression strategies. Because fluency is a well-researched predictor of reading ability (Fuchs, et al., 2001), teachers can glean valuable information about readers’ strengths and weaknesses as they carefully observe oral reading fluency and its characteristics.

**Skill Areas Within this Component**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accuracy</strong></td>
<td>Student makes minimal errors in reading.</td>
<td>Student makes frequent errors in decoding.</td>
<td>1,2,3,4,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to correctly break words into individual parts using phonetic knowledge</td>
<td>• applies phonetic knowledge to unknown words</td>
<td>• says: sat for sad, protest for protect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• decodes words quickly and accurately</td>
<td>• makes multiple attempts at pronunciation says “sat, set, sad”</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>• monitors own reading and self corrects</td>
<td>• does not self correct when meaning is lost: “The cat sad on the chair.”</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Automaticity</strong></td>
<td>Student can automatically apply phonetic knowledge when reading.</td>
<td>Student’s reading is “choppy.”</td>
<td>6,7,8,9,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to quickly recognize words and word parts</td>
<td>• focuses on phrases or chunks of text with eyes</td>
<td>• reads words sound by sound instead of in chunks</td>
<td>10,11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• applies knowledge of blends, affixes, word families, etc.</td>
<td>• reads at a laborious pace with minimal sight word knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• word/phrase recognition appears to be effortless</td>
<td>• may read word by word instead of phrase by phrase: “in-the-tree” for “in the tree”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• reads fluidly with natural breaks in phrases</td>
<td>• reads with hesitations-poor phrasing: “The/man got/off of/the ladder when/the bell/rang.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Evidence of Skill</td>
<td>Evidence of Need</td>
<td>Strategies</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Expression / Prosody</strong></td>
<td>Ability to read print with an understanding of phrasing, intonation, and punctuation</td>
<td>Student is able to read text fluently with expression and prosody.</td>
<td>12,13,14, 15,16,17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Note: prosody is associated with rhythm, meter, and verse and comes into play frequently when reading poetry or lyrical prose.</td>
<td>Student reading is monotone and lacks natural pauses and expression.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• reading sounds like conversation</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• uses punctuation as meaning cues</td>
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<td>• divides text into meaningful chunks while reading</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Student reading is monotone and lacks natural pauses and expression.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• reads through punctuation marks</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• &quot;robot&quot; reading-student reads in a choppy manner:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Jon-a-thon ask-ed the teacher if he could be the leader.&quot;</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• frequent pauses or unnatural pausing:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I went-to the-store&quot;</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**What the Research Says about Fluency:**
- Has a reciprocal relationship with comprehension; each fosters the other (Strecker, Roser & Martinez, 1998).
- Is more directly related to text comprehension than word recognition (Clay, 1985).
- Is the most neglected component of reading improvement.
- An appropriate rate is necessary for, but not sufficient for, comprehension.
- Develops gradually over time with practice.
- Requires consistent, monitored practice on independent or instructional reading level text.
- Direct instruction shows results well beyond fifth grade for struggling readers (NRP, 2000).
- Research supports oral reading practice as an avenue to improve fluency, but there is insufficient support for the practice of silent reading practice as a contributor to the improvement of fluency (NRP, 2000).
- Oral reading is beneficial to reading, but Round Robin reading prohibits, rather than facilitates, the ability to read fluently (Opitz & Rasinski, 1998).
- Modeling and repeated readings are two of the most effective interventions (Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003).
- Improves with support from peers and adults almost as well as with support from teachers (Simmons, Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Hodge, 1995).
- Listening to text read fluently prior to reading improves fluency more than silent practice before oral reading (Rose, 1984).

**Best Practices in Instruction:**
- Provide direct instruction and practice within the content of a text (not word lists).
- Use short passages (50-200 words).
- Use a variety of genre.
- Use only passages at the individual’s independent reading level.
- Increase the level of difficulty of the passages gradually as accuracy and fluency increase.
- Provide approximately fifteen minutes of direct instruction in fluency daily.
• Teach during small, guided reading groups, not during shared reading in large groups.
• Break longer text in large group instruction into smaller sections, assign specific passages to individuals by reading ability, and afford ample practice time before students read aloud in front of the group.
• Assess progress regularly (every two weeks) with timed samples on text that has been mastered for accuracy.
• Provide readers with decoding strategies to remove that barrier to fluency.
• Use authentic reasons to read, such as preparation for presentations, to make practice meaningful.
• Provide students with feedback about their fluency (graph their progress).
• Model fluency through teacher read alouds in expository and narrative text.
• Maximize the amount of practice struggling readers have available to them.
• Allow sufficient time for self-correction by the reader during oral reading.
• Use oral reading as a tool for teaching self-monitoring of reading.
~ Fluency Strategy Example ~

A Suggested Process for Improving Reading Fluency – Accuracy and Speed

Note: The process described here uses the strategy of repeated practice to improve fluency, first with a focus on accuracy followed by a focus on speed.

Step 1: Find the student’s instructional reading level. This is the level of text difficulty where the student reads with 90% accuracy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accuracy Rates</th>
<th>Independent</th>
<th>Instructional</th>
<th>Frustrational</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Recognition</td>
<td>95% +</td>
<td>90% +</td>
<td>&lt; 90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>90% +</td>
<td>75% +</td>
<td>&lt; 75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 2: Have the student practice the text repeatedly until he/she can read it at an independent level (approximately 95% accuracy).

Step 3: On the text that he/she can read with 95% accuracy, have the student read the passage repeatedly until he/she can read the text at the appropriate speed according to the table below:

Suggested reading speeds on independent-level text (adapted from Hasbrouck & Tindal (1992) and Opitz & Rasinski (1998) Notes: these speeds are based on a one-minute timed reading on a practiced passage. Count only words read correctly (self-correction within 3 seconds is not counted as an error)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Words per Minute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>60-80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>80-95</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>90-115</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>100-140</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>105-160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>115-180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>125-190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>135-200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 4: Repeat steps 1-3 with different genre and with text of increasing difficulty.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Skill Area</th>
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<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F-1</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Correct Letter-Sound Recognition</td>
<td>Students who have correct letter-sound recognition are able to read more accurately and thus fluency increases.</td>
<td>Some students lack fluency because they show regular error patterns when reading aloud. These errors are often a lack of attention to the phonics code and often coincide with repeated rereading of words to self-correct or a lack of awareness that mispronunciations have occurred. Based on the type of errors the student produces, please refer to phonics section for specific instructional suggestions.</td>
<td>When your child is reading to improve accuracy and stamina on a word, look at the word to determine which part of the word is difficult part. Help your child with the unknown part. Encourage them to plug that sound into the word, blend the word and reread the entire sentence.</td>
<td>Laberge &amp; Samuels (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-2</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Correct Naming of Letters, Words, Objects</td>
<td>At the very beginning stages of reading, fluency refers to automatic letter name, letter-sound recognition, and the skill of quickly naming words in categories. Repetition enhances automatic recognition.</td>
<td>Speed drills using letters, words, different syllable types, objects.</td>
<td>Name a category (farm animals, food, clothing) and help your child quickly name objects that fit in that category. Start with three words at a time and build to seven. Say the grouping of words, letters, or sounds and have your child repeat them back to you in the same order.</td>
<td>Laberge &amp; Samuels (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-3</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Repeated Reading of Letter Patterns and Words</td>
<td>Examples of word patterns include: cvc (cat), cvcc (coat), cve (cane), irregular and regular high frequency words. Experience with words and consistent practice are necessary to develop word reading skills.</td>
<td>Utilize flash cards and words in connected text. Introduce a word pattern and create words using that pattern (sp: rap, tap, sap, map, cap or eap: mean, steam, bean, dean, ean).</td>
<td>Play rhyming word games that start easy and become harder. Do you and your rhyme? Do you and guess rhyme? Tell me a word that rhymes with …….</td>
<td>Laberge &amp; Samuels (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-4</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Assisted Reading</td>
<td>Assisted readings are used to increase fluency through the accuracy of text. Feedback through repetition in “sticky spots” is an important component of this strategy.</td>
<td>Assisted reading strategies: 1) Paired reading - One student is the lead reader, a more proficient reader. The struggling reader or “assisted reader” receives support and feedback as the struggling reader is reading. 2) Choral reading - Using a big book, basal story, or another primary text, the teacher and students read aloud together. 3) Use recorded text for students to do paired reading.</td>
<td>Practice the same text several times. Break the passage into pieces small enough to build success (sometimes 1 sentence). Use your finger to force their eyes across the page at a faster and faster rate. Always cover words with your finger in phrases, not word-by-word. Check for their understanding of the main idea of the passage.</td>
<td>Koosinen &amp; Blum (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-5</td>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Automatic Recognition of Sound-Symbol Relationships</td>
<td>Students who have automatic letter-sound recognition are able to read more accurately and thus fluency increases.</td>
<td>Practice speed drills with the same sound in various positions in the word. For example, the /g/ in the initial position of “apple” and the medial position of “bag”. Provide controlled lists of words where the sound appears in various positions in all words of the list. The student practices reading the list of words twice.</td>
<td>Use a highlighter or small piece of colored plastic to highlight the sound you child is practicing within a word. Give feedback on the correct pronunciation of the sound. Point out that sound in words as you read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-6</td>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Rapid Naming of Letters, Words, Objects</td>
<td>Repetition enhances the automatic recognition of words, letters, and objects. The focus with this strategy is on speed.</td>
<td>Speed drills using letters, words, different syllable types, objects.</td>
<td>Use a stopwatch or second hand as you play a game to see how fast you can name letters, words, or objects in a given category. For example, words that start with /g/ in gene (ge, gage, gift, gas, gone, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-7</td>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Letter Patterns and High Frequency Words</td>
<td>Experience with words and consistent practice are necessary to develop word reading skills. Average 3rd graders rely primarily on word recognition skills whereas by 5th grade average readers have also incorporated decoding of unusual vocabulary. Fifth graders still challenged with automatically leg developmentally and can be coached in these two areas.</td>
<td>Use flashcards to practice words families that focus on the 41 phonemes.</td>
<td>Play rhyming games. Take turns making rhymes with real and nonsense words. Practice spelling rhymes not the repeated spelling pattern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-8</td>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Repeated Reading of Independent Level Text</td>
<td>Repeated readings are used to increase fluency through the accuracy of text by having the student practice reading a text several times. Feedback focused on accuracy is the important component of this strategy.</td>
<td>Use materials at the student’s independent level. Keep passages relatively short. Make sure the student has demonstrated 95%+ accuracy. The focus here is on accurate reading of words. Paired reading fashion. Students work in pairs as stated above. The reader reads the passage three times and evaluates how well he reads each time. The listener gives feedback and praise when the reader has improved. The readers then switch roles.</td>
<td>Do all steps on a small passage: 1) you read aloud while they follow along with finger 2) you both read aloud together and follow with finger 3) child reads silently alone and asks for help if needed 4) child reads aloud alone - should be accurate and smooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-9</td>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Repeated Readings with Feedback on Independent Level Text</td>
<td>Repeated readings result in faster reading pace with fewer hesitations.</td>
<td>On independent-level text or instructional-level text with support, the student rereads the text multiple times until she can read it quickly.</td>
<td>Choose short selections (about 50-100 words) and have your child reread the passage five times. Time how long it takes to read the passage each time and celebrate when the speed increases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-10</td>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Assisted Reading</td>
<td>This assisted reading technique focuses on developing reading speed with the assistance of the teacher. Teacher and student read aloud together, but the teacher controls the reading pace, gradually increasing text difficulty or reading rate.</td>
<td>The student and teacher read simultaneously and at a fast rate. The student sits in front of the teacher, both holding the book. The teacher turns the pages as needed. Together, you and the child read aloud at a fast pace. Read into the child’s ear as you slide your finger, in phrases, under the words being read. Start with short, easy passages and move to more difficult ones.</td>
<td>Together, you and the child read aloud at a fast pace. Read into the child’s ear as you slide your finger, in phrases, under the words being read. Start with short, easy passages and move to more difficult ones.</td>
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<tr>
<td>F-11</td>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Tape Assisted Reading</td>
<td>This strategy was used with third and fourth graders who were both slow readers and had reading comprehension below grade level.</td>
<td>Students listen to stories on tape with headphones while reading along with the text (either out loud or silently). The tapes are recorded at 100 words per minute (by this time students can read from 80-120 wpm). The students listen to several stories over several weeks.</td>
<td>Provide books on tape or computer for your child to listen as they follow along. After several readings, stop occasionally and have the child locate a specific word within the text they just read.</td>
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<tr>
<td>F-12</td>
<td>Expression/Prosody</td>
<td>Tape Assisted Reading</td>
<td>Books at various levels are recorded. When choosing books, consider the extent of interest in the book, the maximum phrase length that can be assimilated, the maximum reading rate that can be followed, and the amount of material the student can assimilate in one sitting.</td>
<td>Record books at various levels. Make sure the amount of material can be assimilated in one setting. The student listens to the tape three or four times. The teacher then guides the student through the reading focusing on expression whether it is dialogue or punctuation.</td>
<td>Provide books on tape or computer for your child to listen as they follow along. After several readings, stop occasionally and have the child locate a specific word within the text they just read.</td>
<td>Carbo (1978)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-13</td>
<td>Expression/Prosody</td>
<td>Guided Choral Reading</td>
<td>This is a 10-15 minute instructional activity that incorporates several key principles of effective fluency instruction. Each student is handed a copy of a 50-150 word passage. Texts are selected for content, predictability, and rhythm. Rhyming poems and song/lyrics for children work well.</td>
<td>The teacher reads a selection out loud, emphasizing expression, phrasing, and appropriate phrasing. Then he leads a discussion of the text content and the teacher’s oral reading of the text. Particular attention is given to the teacher’s rate, phrasing, expression, and information during reading. The teacher leads the whole class in several choral readings of the text.</td>
<td>Model reading with expression for your child. Poems, newspaper article summaries, famous quotes from the newspaper, picture books with characters, invitations, and educational texts are all good sources. Another suggestion is to have the student take over the bedtime reading for a younger sibling. Practice expression and pacing.</td>
<td>Rasinski, et al. (1994)</td>
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<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
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<td>Teaching Tips</td>
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<td>F-14</td>
<td>Expression/Prosody</td>
<td>Text Segmentation</td>
<td>Text segmentation provides a scaffold for readers by having the teacher organize the text ahead of time to provide practice with appropriate pausing. The visual cues provided by segmentation can take several forms, including: segmenting by line, segmenting by line and indentation, segmenting by slashes, or segmenting by spaces. Segmentation practice is shown to improve the reading performance of struggling readers at all levels, and even helps regular ability readers in high school and college. Divide the text physically by placing each phrase on a line by itself in a column. Indent to make the division clearer. Blank spaces can be added between phrases. The student reads the segmented text silently. Then the text is read aloud and the student rates the quality of the expression using a scale of 1-5. The segmented text can be cut apart and pasted on construction paper in order with periods placed in the correct locations. The text can be audio recorded and used as a read along tape.</td>
<td>Take turns reading a text with your child. Model good expression as you read. Let your child rate your performance. Then switch roles and do the same for your child.</td>
<td>Unlikely to read with your child? Make a tape of his favorite story or tape record his reading lesson for school. Listening and following along in the text makes a great connection with your child and helps with reading fluency. Get relatives who live far away in on the activity, also. Or, you could ask your child to make a tape of a book or short story for a grandparent, sick friend or someone at a nursing home.</td>
<td>Dowhower (1987); Dowhower (1991)</td>
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<tr>
<td>F-15</td>
<td>Expression/Prosody</td>
<td>Auditory Modeling</td>
<td>Auditory modeling can take several forms: assisted reading, paired reading, choral reading, echo reading, shared reading experience, read-along, and tape-assisted or technology-assisted reading. The goal with auditory modeling is for the student to have many repeated opportunities to hear and practice the cadence of fluent language. Often, several of these techniques are combined. The text is taped or performed live by a competent reader. Students replicate the reading, being shown explicitly where to pause, where to change pitch, which words to stress and which segments to elongate. The modeling gives the reader a sense of what reading with expression sounds like. It is important to use selections that are age/level appropriate.</td>
<td>Unable to read with your child? Make a tape of his favorite story or tape record his reading lesson for school. Listening and following along in the text makes a great connection with your child and helps with reading fluency. Get relatives who live far away in on the activity, also. Or, you could ask your child to make a tape of a book or short story for a grandparent, sick friend or someone at a nursing home.</td>
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<td>Chomsky (1976); Dowhower (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-16</td>
<td>Expression/Prosody</td>
<td>Repeated Rereadings</td>
<td>Dowhower (1987) found that second graders who read slowly and paused inappropriately, gained in reading accuracy, rate, and comprehension, and decreased inappropriate pausing after practicing 5 stories repeatedly. The study found that this effect generalized to other, new unpracticed text as well. Have the student reread a passage of text (unassisted except for some help with word recognition) until it is fluid, flowing, and produced at a predetermined reading speed. Passages should be kept short (50-300 words) and at an appropriate reading level (85% accuracy before rereading). The mastery level for the passage should be set at 85-100 WPM. When the student reaches mastery on the first or second reading, the teacher can move to more difficult text. The number of rereadings should be set, not the criterion for mastery. The greatest improvement in fluency tends to occur between the 3rd and 5th rereading. While listening to the rereading, the focus is listening for expression and appropriate pausing. Break passages to be practiced into smaller chunks to build success. The children practice the text alone, only receiving help with the words they can’t decode on their own. They practice the section as many times as they feel they need to be able to read it quickly and smoothly with no mistakes and proper expression. The practice should be done aloud so they can hear themselves read. Finally they read the section aloud to you.</td>
<td>Break passages to be practiced into smaller chunks to build success. The children practice the text alone, only receiving help with the words they can’t decode on their own. They practice the section as many times as they feel they need to be able to read it quickly and smoothly with no mistakes and proper expression. The practice should be done aloud so they can hear themselves read. Finally they read the section aloud to you.</td>
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<td>Dowhower (1987)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-17</td>
<td>Expression/Prosody</td>
<td>Reader’s Theater</td>
<td>Significant gains in rate, retelling, and expressiveness have been achieved with this strategy. This is an interpretive activity where students repeatedly read a story based script. It provides oral rehearsal in preparation for reading performance. Choose scripted material that can be read to an audience. The students practice the material or parts out loud and finally perform the reading. The reading should be emphasized, not costumes or acting.</td>
<td>Read a play or another piece of literature that can be read by different characters. You read for certain characters and the student reads for other characters.</td>
<td>Millen &amp; Rinehart (1996); Keehn (2003)</td>
<td>Millen &amp; Rinehart (1996); Keehn (2003)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Component: Vocabulary

**Definition:**
Vocabulary describes all of the words we know and use to meaningfully communicate concepts and ideas. Receptive vocabulary is recognized and acquired through listening and reading. Expressive vocabulary is produced through speaking and writing. Our receptive vocabulary is typically larger than our expressive vocabulary. Stephen Krashen’s (2003) research shows that our exposure to new words is far more critical in acquiring new vocabulary than our expression of those words.

**Overview:**
Vocabulary is a critical key to effective comprehension. It is important because it gives connection and meaning to print and it expands existing knowledge. Vocabulary words are often categorized in three tiers. Tier 1 includes basic, readily encountered words such as car, school, run, and happy. Tier 2 includes high frequency, more abstract words such as antique, ridiculous, acquire. Tier 3 includes less readily encountered words such as photosynthesis, corolla, and pampas. The words on these 3 tiers will vary greatly from student to student due to their experiences and receptive exposure. When teaching vocabulary, research suggests focusing on Tier 2 because these words are specific to academic language, essential to new learning, and are high frequency in usage.

New vocabulary can be obtained both indirectly and directly. Since most vocabulary is derived indirectly through daily interactions with oral and written communication, children with limited exposures to a broad vocabulary are at a severe disadvantage, even before they enter formal schooling (a 2,500 word vocabulary versus a 5,000 word vocabulary). Without strategic exposure and direct intervention, the vocabulary gap can widen dramatically over time. Classrooms must by necessity be vocabulary rich environments - rich in strategic speaking, listening, reading, and writing of a wide range of vocabulary.

Explicit, or direct, instruction in vocabulary benefits all readers at all ages and is supported by research; but research also shows this to be not as effective as vocabulary acquisition through independent and strategic manipulation of novel words. Vocabulary words that are critical to teach directly include 1) key words important to understanding concepts 2) high frequency words that will be useful to future learning 3) words that are particularly difficult, obtuse, or specific to the text.

New vocabulary falls into four general categories: 1) new meaning for a known word, such as the multiple-meanings for bank 2) a new word for a known concept, such as box to cube 3) a new word for an unknown concept, such as nucleus 4) solidifying the depth and degree of meaning of a known word, such as eat, devour, consume, erode. Frequent and varied repetition
and application across various texts will provide the needed opportunities to turn receptive vocabulary into expressive vocabulary.

### Skill Areas within this Component:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Application</strong></td>
<td>The student is able to:</td>
<td>The student is unable to:</td>
<td>1,2,3,4,5,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to</td>
<td>• use a wide and varied vocabulary fluently</td>
<td>• supply appropriate words in context when speaking and or writing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>appropriately apply</td>
<td>• express thoughts and ideas in a variety of circumstances</td>
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<td>known words in</td>
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<td>written or spoken</td>
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<tr>
<td>formats</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>The student is able to:</td>
<td>The student is unable to:</td>
<td>7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to use</td>
<td>• discern intended meanings of words across a wide variety of content areas</td>
<td>• use the context within an unfamiliar selection to gain meaning of a new</td>
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<tr>
<td>background knowledge</td>
<td>• read unfamiliar subject matter using context clues to understand unknown</td>
<td>vocabulary word relay an understanding of what was just read</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>and context clues to</td>
<td>vocabulary words relay what was just read with confidence</td>
<td>• appears confused during and after reading a selection</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>gain meaning when</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Has a blank look or look of confusion even though the student was on task</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>reading unfamiliar</td>
<td></td>
<td>during reading.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>subject matter</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Word Knowledge</strong></td>
<td>The student is able to:</td>
<td>The student is unable to:</td>
<td>19,20,21,22,23,24,25,26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to recognize</td>
<td>• discern meanings of words by examining their component parts</td>
<td>• break words into meaningful chunks (word families, affixes, compound) to</td>
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<tr>
<td>and apply knowledge</td>
<td><em>preheat, preheated</em></td>
<td>comprehend new vocabulary words</td>
<td></td>
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<td>of word families,</td>
<td><em>interact, interaction</em></td>
<td><em>immigrate, immigration, immigrated</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>affixes, compound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>words, etc</td>
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### What the Research Says:

- Multiple exposures to new words in various contexts facilitate a deep understanding and use of new vocabulary (McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Pople, 1985).
- Student initiated conversations about words heard and read in context strongly support new vocabulary learning (Dickinson & Smith, 1994).
- On average, children can acquire and retain 2-3 new words a day when taught in context and followed with explanations (Biemiller, 2001).
- Providing contextualized sample sentences with new words bolsters understanding (Scott & Nagy, 1997).
• Preteaching of target words in context facilitates acquisition and comprehension. (Brett, Rothlein, & Hurley, 1996).
• Preteaching vocabulary in the content areas increases comprehension (Carney, Anderson, Blackburn, & Blessing, 1984).
• Mixing a definition and contextual approach works better than using either approach exclusively (Kolich, 1991).
• Computer assisted instruction has positive results on vocabulary acquisition (Reinking & Rickman, 1990).
• Factors that affect the acquisition of new vocabulary words are utility, application, and memory load (Bruland, 1974).

**Best Practices in Instruction:**

• Expose students to new vocabulary indirectly by: 1) reading aloud to all ages and pointing out special words found in the text, 2) encouraging students to read extensively on their own, and 3) encourage rich classroom discussions and applications of old and new concepts.
• Include two types of direct instruction in vocabulary: 1) definitions of specific words, and 2) information about word parts (roots, bases, and affixes).
• Teach for quality, not quantity. Retention suffers when the number of new words is too great.
• Choose words that have a meaningful application for the students.
• Teach the applications of practical Latin and Greek affixes to older students to support vocabulary in the content areas.
• Use a variety of instructional activities to promote participation and enthusiasm.
• Provide frequent review applications to facilitate retention through repeated exposure.
• Develop teacher-made assessments that are specific to the new vocabulary in context.
• Preteach unfamiliar vocabulary before asking students to interact with text independently.
• Enable extended use of new words through engagement in a variety of activities utilizing the new words.
• For strategic readers, teach how to attend to text structure clues. This can enable readers to access word meaning from the text structure.
• Encourage “deep” processing through:
  - relating explanations to personal experience
  - constructing metaphors and analogies
  - classifying and relating words
  - connecting words to prior knowledge
  - developing graphic representations of concepts words represent
  - using words in various contexts and contents across the curriculum
  - creating word plays, puzzles, jokes and riddles
  - finding synonyms and antonyms.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V-1</td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Personal Word Bank</td>
<td>This strategy is for the student who keeps no record of learned words or who may keep a notebook but use assigned word learning materials. The student will work in pairs and create a list of topics and the words they will learn.</td>
<td>Model how to use a personal word bank as a reference, and then continue to build and use the list over time.</td>
<td>Buy a “word a day” calendar for the house. Put it on the dining table for everyone to add and see each day. Have family members try to use the word several times in conversation.</td>
<td>Petrichouk (1988)</td>
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<td>The log may include music, rap, rhyme, mnemonic, semiotic, semantic, visual, and symbolic.</td>
<td>Frequently check student logs. Model how to sticky note unfamiliar words while reading, and then later how to add that word to a personal word bank.</td>
<td>Encourage your child to bring home a word bank he uses at school. Add new words to the word bank when new vocabulary comes up during homework time or in conversation.</td>
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<td>Varied and Repeated Applications</td>
<td>Multiple opportunities are created for repeated and varied vocabulary use. Students need to use words many times before it is internalized and the greater variety of settings or situations in which they can apply the word increases the depth of understanding of that word. This strategy is for the student who keeps no record of learned words.</td>
<td>Direct teach specific vocabulary words in context and plan for repeated and varied vocabulary use. Assign different tasks over several weeks, monitor for long-term retention and the need for continued practice.</td>
<td>When speaking with your child, use rich vocabulary; avoid baby talk or catch all words like “stuff” and “junk.” Include your child in adult conversations with different experts who use specific language. Watch science or history programs on television and discuss the topics using new words from the show.</td>
<td>Flewett &amp; Nicholson (1991); Ivey (1999); Jessor &amp; Markman (2001); Jordan &amp; Thomas (2002); Marie (1985); McKenney, et al. (1985); Robbins &amp; Ibry (1994); Stahli (1983)</td>
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<tr>
<td>V-3</td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Flexible Application of Language Variance</td>
<td>Teacher models word use across a variety of subject matter, and uses it in a variety of contexts.</td>
<td>Teachers model and calls attention to standard English usage daily. Teachers reinforce appropriate uses of standard English in writing and conversation. Students read and analyze examples of both standard and non-standard English in literature, on websites, in the newspaper as away of drawing comparisons. Students can create “role plays” and dramas and evaluate the appropriateness of language use.</td>
<td>Noting with your child the differences in standard, non-standard usage brings attention to what is appropriate at different times. Attention to the use of English by characters in movies or television, lyrics of music, or heard conversations can lead to.</td>
<td>Dixon-Kraus (2001); Jessor &amp; Markman (2001); Koriat, et al. (2003); Rosenhouse, Feldelson, Kita, &amp; Goldstein (1997); White, Graves, &amp; Slater (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V-4</td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Vocabulary Transfer in Multiple Contexts</td>
<td>Teacher models words that are used in a variety of subject matter, and uses it in a variety of contexts.</td>
<td>Teach multiple applications of a word across the curriculum to integrate the knowledge across connected themes, and into varied writing and reading tasks. Provide multiple contexts in which the word is required to be used. Assign a variety of reading and writing tasks, both oral and written, to have the student use one word over several types of content materials.</td>
<td>Do crosswords together. Note the multiple meanings of words connected to crossword clues. For younger students, there are some great children’s books that focus on multiple meanings of words. Your school or local library should be able to help you find these books.</td>
<td>Harmon (1999); Ivey (1999); Jordan &amp; Thomas (2002); Koriat, et al. (2003); Marzano (1985); Rosenhouse, Meister, &amp; Chapman (1996)</td>
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<td>Risk Taking with Vocabulary</td>
<td>The teacher provides novel, safe, fun activities to experiment with new vocabulary for the student who habitually uses safe, generic word choice. The student will work in pairs and create a list of topics and the words they will learn.</td>
<td>Model use of new words used in new ways. Take risks with your class and show them how to use vocabulary in contexts that are different from the ones they have used before.</td>
<td>Ask your child to read an article from the newspaper when you are preparing dinner. Discuss the vocabulary that is unfamiliar and the ideas connected to the vocabulary.</td>
<td>Dixon-Kraus (2001); Eley (1995); Flewett &amp; Nicholson (1991); Shore &amp; Durus (1990); Stahl (1983)</td>
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<tr>
<td>V-6</td>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Varied Visual Complexity</td>
<td>When deciding on vocabulary lists to study, vary the length and complexity of the chosen words. Word length, in and of itself, is not the challenge in recall, but the similarity of remembering several long words from an assigned list is the key to recall. Long words are recalled as easily as short words if they are learned from a list that alternates short and long words.</td>
<td>Pre-selected words for study and include an equal proportion of short words to the long words critical to learn. Assign different tasks over several weeks, monitor for long-term retention and the need for continued practice.</td>
<td>Play word games that include different types of challenges. Mix up easy and hard together. It’s easier for the mind to remember things because of the change in complexity calls unconscious attention to many things.</td>
<td>Baleeza (1986); Hulme, et al. (2004); Thompson &amp; Barnett (1985)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Students learn the meanings of select morphemic elements. This knowledge helps them to infer the meanings of new words immediately following instruction. The effects of this type of instruction depends on time and the instructional strategies used.</td>
<td>Select sets of prefixes families to teach one by one. Teach only one prefix family at a time, with multiple example of how the prefix changes meaning.</td>
<td>This typically a teacher directed activity which parents could support by choice of words and drawing attention to prefixes and suffixes. Example: prepard, preview, prepare. Discuss with the teacher how you can support this strategy at home.</td>
<td>Baumann, et al. (2002); Mor &amp; Nagy (1999); Shu &amp; Anderson (1997)</td>
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<td>#</td>
<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
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<td>V9</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Linguistic Knowledge Map</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
<td>Biemiller &amp; Slonim (2001); Nagy, et al. (1989); Nagy, Diakidoy, &amp; Anderson (1993); Stahl &amp; Erickson (1986); Tyler &amp; Nagy (1985); White, Power, &amp; White (1989); Wysocki &amp; Jenkins (1987)</td>
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<td>V8</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Semantic Feature Analysis</td>
<td>This strategy is useful for the student who may successfully memorize new words, but then have trouble applying them in context. Students practice identifying and applying key vocabulary associated with academic content.</td>
<td>Bean, et al. (1986); Bos &amp; Anders (1990); Karbon (1982); Koriat, et al. (2003); Pittelman &amp; Johnson (1985); Rosenhouse, Feitelson, Kita, &amp; Goldstein (1997); Smith (2002)</td>
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<td>V7</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Semantic Maps</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
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<td>V6</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Linking Words to Prior Knowledge</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
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<td>V5</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Consistent Depth Check</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
<td>Biemiller &amp; Slonim (2001); Nagy, et al. (1989); Nagy, Diakidoy, &amp; Anderson (1993); Stahl &amp; Erickson (1986); Tyler &amp; Nagy (1985); White, Power, &amp; White (1989); Wysocki &amp; Jenkins (1987)</td>
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<td>V4</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Vocabulary Preview</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
<td>Biemiller &amp; Slonim (2001); Nagy, et al. (1989); Nagy, Diakidoy, &amp; Anderson (1993); Stahl &amp; Erickson (1986); Tyler &amp; Nagy (1985); White, Power, &amp; White (1989); Wysocki &amp; Jenkins (1987)</td>
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<td>V3</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
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<td>V2</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Guided Clause</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
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<td>V1</td>
<td><strong>Meaning</strong></td>
<td>Linking Words to Prior Knowledge</td>
<td>This strategy targets key vocabulary within an overarching conceptual framework, and maps it out in a visual and spatial format. Students practice looking at the word pieces that make up a word: roots and affixes (prefixes, suffixes). Students learn to identify words of similar roots within text and across texts.</td>
<td>Biemiller &amp; Slonim (2001); Nagy, et al. (1989); Nagy, Diakidoy, &amp; Anderson (1993); Stahl &amp; Erickson (1986); Tyler &amp; Nagy (1985); White, Power, &amp; White (1989); Wysocki &amp; Jenkins (1987)</td>
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</table>

**References**

Bean, et al. (1986); Bos & Anders (1990); Karbon (1982); Koriat, et al. (2003); Pittelman & Johnson (1985); Rosenhouse, Feitelson, Kita, & Goldstein (1997); Smith (2002)

When your child has a list of words or concepts to memorize or study as homework, consider having her represent the words visually. Encourage children to use when taking notes for homework, test prep, and the like. The teacher can model the strategy by using it at school.

Provide direct instruction of high frequency roots one at a time, plus their affixes. Incorporate supporting pictoral representations of high frequency roots for each lesson. This type of graphic knowledge map communicates across cultural barriers and so is very effective in diverse classrooms.

Select a big idea. Decide on the relationships of the key vocabulary to this idea. Map out the various branching out of concepts and the vocabulary in terms of the relationships or connections of the key vocabulary. This is a very effective strategy to include in your everyday activities with your child. For example, when going on an errand, you can discuss new vocabulary in relation to the errand activity. Of course, you also can discuss new vocabulary before the child reads a book, magazine, or newspaper at home.

Teacher taught strategy for organizing key words linked to concepts. Encourage children to use when taking notes for homework, test prep, and the like. The teacher can model the strategy by using it at school.

Successful readers skim titles, text format, pictures, charts, word banks, subheadings, and make reasonable predictions, based on their prior knowledge or associations, they are more likely to have success when encountering unfamiliar vocabulary. When reviewing these concepts, give cues coordinated to the visual/spatial arrangement of the Linguistic Knowledge Map.

Model prereading activities designed to activate prior knowledge such as: think alouds, guided discussion, instructing students to do think alouds, and so forth. This is a very effective strategy to include in your everyday activities with your child. When discussing new ideas and concepts, you and your child can construct a map together.

Provide direct instruction of high frequency roots one at a time, plus their affixes. Incorporate supporting pictoral representations of high frequency roots for each lesson. This type of graphic knowledge map communicates across cultural barriers and so is very effective in diverse classrooms.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V-15</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Depth of Meaning, and Multiple Meanings of Words</td>
<td>The goal with this strategy is to help the student understand multiple meanings of words. For example, the word “bear” -- meaning bear (the animal), bear arms (carry), bear a child (give birth), bear responsibility (be accountable), bear in mind (hold a thought), could not bear (could endure or suffer), and so on.</td>
<td>Set up numerous contexts for application of the many meanings of the words to the context. Students practice applying multiple meanings of the words in rich context. For example, one-context may be with a read-aloud. Teacher stops during read-alouds to discuss and anchor words usage/meaning to the context and student practices the new meaning in oral or written work after the text is finished.</td>
<td>Puns are an example of how important context is to meaning. Jokes that include puns allow your child to have fun with words that have multiple meanings.</td>
<td>Elley (1989); Jenkins, Matlock, &amp; Scobum (1985); Jenkins, Stein, &amp; Wyrick (1984)</td>
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<td>V-16</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Concept Maps</td>
<td>Concept maps are designed to help students who use limited vocabulary by discussing “big” ideas and cannot articulate their own ideas and connect their thinking to the larger ideas due to limited vocabulary. Students develop higher level thinking skills as they learn vocabulary, which they will use as tools to express abstract thoughts and concepts. Practicing thinking during discussion generates a need for richer vocabulary. This is a cyclical big game of thought to new vocabulary to new thought.</td>
<td>Pre-select a big idea to teach and identify key concept words, prompt discussions, model or “read” the words into discussion, call attention to the connections of the words to the big ideas, work past the small concrete details. Structures practice with concept words embedded in big idea elaboration through writing and discussion.</td>
<td>New projects like cooking, knitting or working on a car engine all require specialized vocabulary for the tools and new processes to be learned. In cooking, for example, there are many ways which need new vocabulary, to prepare meal: braise, broil, bake, saute, deep fry, stew, poach, etc.</td>
<td>Dixon-Kraus (2001); Elley (1989); Koriat, et al. (2003); Morrow, et al. (1997); Stahl (1983)</td>
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<tr>
<td>V-17</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Practice with Text that has Clear Structure</td>
<td>Students acquire vocabulary on their own through wide reading experiences. When reading content-area expository text, incidental acquisition of word meaning occurs best when key concepts are elaborated and shown in relation to larger systems. Complete explanations of key concepts are especially critical to non-expert middle-grade students. Students of all abilities benefit from text revisions that elaborate the concepts. Also, the organization of text structure can be a factor in how many new word meanings they can access. Text features occur at the macrostructure and microstructure level. Text macrostructure can be well-organized with titles, obvious topic sentences, subheadings, and chunks of information. Microstructure helps the reader with transitions, signal words and phrases (e.g. first, second, additionally). A dear text structure sets up a favorable condition for students to glean word meanings from new vocabulary as they read their content textbooks.</td>
<td>Choose text that is well organized with explicit titles, topic sentences, and which uses obvious transitions, signal words and phrases. Additionally, select text that elaborates key concepts for the reader. This type of text provides additional support for the student for making meaning from unfamiliar vocabulary.</td>
<td>When your child does not have much background knowledge on a topic (such as in social studies or science), it can help when the text they read is very well organized. If your child expresses interest in learning more about a particular topic or if they need to work on a project in an area about which the student does not know a lot, look for books and other sources that include clear headings and are written in clear language. The student is more likely to be able to make sense of unfamiliar words when the rest of the text is well-organized and clear.</td>
<td>Citation pending</td>
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<tr>
<td>V-18</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Rich Print Environment</td>
<td>Providing a rich print environment on the walls of the entire school, on the shelves of the entire school, in the homes of the children is only part of setting the stage. Print experiences must include multiple audiences to read and write to, and must include a community of modeled reading and writing that surrounds the child. Opportunity to experience literacy with many involved adults is another part of setting the stage. Worthy’s research shows that individual attention, interaction and a strong demonstration of caring accountability on the part of a reading tutor helped students &quot;turn the comer.”</td>
<td>Have students read reciprocally with parent volunteers or senior citizens. Have students write reciprocally with community members, the local media, a pen-pal classroom from another state or across town. Include written work all over the classroom. Create abundant opportunities to encounter a new book on an old favorite. Make text central to the child’s visual experience. Leave no space out when setting the stage. Leave no young reader or writer with a limited audience.</td>
<td>Children need many opportunities to see print materials and to talk about what they have read. Cereal boxes, toy packages, newspapers, phone books, catalogues are all good reading. Have books around the house. A rich print environment is only useful if you make a point to talk about words and ideas they represent.</td>
<td>Duke (2000); Kos (1991); Koskinen, et al. (2000); Morrow &amp; Weinstein (1986); Worthy, Patterson, Salas, Patterson, &amp; Turner (2000)</td>
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<tr>
<td>V-19</td>
<td>Word Knowledge</td>
<td>Dictionary, Glossary, Word Banks, and other Resources</td>
<td>Students need specific words to gain entry into technical and content specific material. This variety of technical and or content specific vocabulary is rare in conversation and reading, too infrequent for some students to derive word meaning from such limited exposure. Therefore students need to use resources to understand the word (dictionaries, glossaries, pre-selected word banks, previously used graphic organizers, etc.). Note: Research by Scott &amp; Nagy (1997) demonstrates frequent misusing by dictionary definitions. Students often take a sentence fragment and accept that as the definition and tend to ignore the structure of a definition and/or a complete definition. This failure to extract the correct information is not due to ambiguity, but to the neversness of words. If the vocabulary is unknown, it is likely to remain unknown after dictionary use. This was true of both high and low readers.</td>
<td>Model frequent resource usage, particularly the dictionary and glossaries. Demonstrate finding the word and then how to match the appropriate definition to the context. Students can employ this strategy before, during, and after reading and/or writing. Students need practice using resources to make it a low effort task. If too unfamiliar, the process of using references is very distracting from the main task of word understanding within a literate context.</td>
<td>Build and maintain a home resource library that includes dictionaries (adult and student-friendly). Wordbooks or encyclopedias, special interest resources such as overviews of artists, foreign languages and classics of literature.</td>
<td>Katz (1976); Nagy &amp; Anderson (1984); Nagy &amp; Herman (1984); Scott &amp; Nagy (1997); Shore &amp; Durso (1990)</td>
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<td>V-20</td>
<td>Word Knowledge</td>
<td>Frequent Discussion with More Competent Peers and Adults</td>
<td>Students with limited conversational and reading vocabulary need many opportunities to talk with and listen to people using rich vocabulary across topics and in many contexts. Successful readers gain a large proportion of their vocabulary from rich spoken and print environments. Providing these textual and conversational opportunities is extremely important for helping vocabulary limited students catch up to their peer. They need exposure just above their competence level so frustration is not an issue.</td>
<td>Provide a rich “assemblage” of genres and levels of print materials, as well as diverse and detailed conversation and auditory materials. Model the learning process of hearing new vocabulary and testing it that new vocabulary. Promote and reinforce vocabulary acquisition through frequent, diverse, rich conversation and discussion.</td>
<td>Read aloud to a book to a child and discuss challenging vocabulary as the book progresses. With older children, read the same books as they are reading. Ask them their impressions of the book.</td>
<td>Beck, Perfetti, &amp; McKeown (1982); Cho &amp; Kishner (1994); Jassal &amp; Markman (2001); Nagy &amp; Anderson (1984); Nagy &amp; Herman (1984); Nagy, Anderson, &amp; Herman (1986); Rosenshine, Fafalios, Kita &amp; Goldstein (1997); Stahl &amp; Fairbanks (1986)</td>
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</table>
V-21 Word Knowledge | Word Play and Improvisation | Playful activities that are open-ended and positive, use art, music, physical activity, and/or games are good at lowering the affective filter to language acquisition. The surprise and delight of spontaneous playful activities use memory with the strong connection of emotion, as well as the lowered affect filter.

Teaching Tips

Engage students in word games frequently and often. Some examples are puzzles, art, drama, music, puns, etymology, poetry, proverbs, creative writing, computer-assisted word games, word searches, etc.

Tips and Ideas for Parents

Hold family game nights: invite your children to play scramble, word crosswords, play Pictionary.

References

Dixon-Kraus (2001); Nagy & Anderson (1984); Ruddell & Shearer (2002); Stahl (1983)

V-22 Word Knowledge | Memory Devices | Students enhance retention of unfamiliar words through keywords, mnemonics, visualization, and associations to assist rapid, long-term retention of new words. This is cognitively demanding and 504 or sped students may find the keyword method difficult to learn. It requires rehearsal to make it an easy method of word learning. Mnemonic strategy use works well in pairs and assessment supports this, individually or paired.

Teaching Tips

Model memory devices such as: mnemonics, keyword method, and visualization word associations. Provide students with multiple examples and assistance as they learn to create their own mnemonics. Provide frequent opportunities for students to create their own memory aids for new vocabulary as they master the technique.

Tips and Ideas for Parents

Play memory games with cards. Play games that encourage associations and connections like Charades or Pictionary.

References

Conduas, Marshall, & Miller (1986); Hsung & Levin (2002); Jones & Hall (1982); Jones, Levin, Levin & Beitzel (2002); Mastropieri & Scruggs, & Fak (1990); McCormick & Levin (1984); Powell (1980).

V-23 Word Knowledge | Mapping Synonyms, Antonyms, and Analogies | Students learn more about a word and make more mental connections when they examine substitutions and comparisons with synonyms and antonyms to clarify and elaborate meaning. Students can create analogies, similes and metaphors to create a fuller understanding of new words. Word learning first forms through associations and as students learn symbolic usage, abstract word meanings become easier to understand and use.

Teaching Tips

Model creating semantic maps using dictionaries, thesauri, and technology to generate synonyms, antonyms, and analogies. After sufficient practice students can use these strategies independently for word learning and for generating context clues.

Tips and Ideas for Parents

Provide and practice using the dictionary and thesaurus. When working on writing assignments at home, you can use these tools to help make the writing more interesting and descriptive by replacing general words with more specific ones.

References

Bos & Anderson (1990); Chen, Yanowitz, & Dechler (1995); Hayes & Henk (1986); Katz (1978); Konat, et al. (2000); Regier, et al. (2001); Shore & Duric (1990); Stahl (1983); Stahl & Fairbanks (1986)

V-24 Word Knowledge | Multi-Sensory Learning | Students will practice new words through manipulating, acting out, singing, drawing, listening, speaking, chanting, rhyming and other means to engage the senses. This includes the sound of the word, the visual shape of the word, and the actions of contextualized meaning. Word learning first forms through associations and as students learn symbolic usage, abstract word meanings become easier to understand and use.

Teaching Tips

For primary this is a directed approach during a “read to” time or “read with” time. Highlight the word as an important word while read story; use phonemic awareness to segment the sounds; students practice the sounds; use phonics to visually segment the sounds of the word; students can then spell the word; tell the meaning for this context; and then students rehearse the meaning in more than one modality; e.g. acting out the word and singing a rhyme. Continue with the narrative after the embedded word experience.

Tips and Ideas for Parents

Encourage your child to read along with you from a familiar story. Allow time to stop and act or draw parts of the story.

References

Gupta (1996); Juel, et al. (2003); Regier, et al. (2001)

V-25 Word Knowledge | Word Play through Songs, Raps, Ditties, Skits, or Movement | Brain research highlights the multiple pathways and additional regions of the brain that are involved with music, song, drama, dance, physical action, etc. Individually or in groups, have students create sound and movement to rehearse and practice definitions of vocabulary. Emphasize accurate representations of meaning, combined with the use of sound and movement.

Teaching Tips

Recognize diverse learner’s needs for non-linguistic instruction, representation, and rehearsal. Utilize the modalities of music, drama, and dance to learn target vocabulary. Model non-linguistic representations for students initially. Later, have students create their own sounds, dramas, and movement. Emphasize accurate application of word meaning embedded in sound and movement. The creativity of the performance may vary greatly and this is acceptable.

Tips and Ideas for Parents

Sometimes students are given assignments that allow them to present their understanding of a topic in a variety of ways. For example, a student may be able to present a book report as a skit or a song. When working on reports and projects, encourage your child to choose the best way to express what they know. Help him choose precise and accurate words for the presentation or project.

References

Dixon-Kraus (2001); Stahl (1983)

V-26 Word Knowledge | Emotional Hooks | Emotional memory is recorded in non-linguistic parts of the brain and associated memories are encoded with great strength. Emotions trigger responses before cognitive thought. Coding vocabulary with emotional values or overtones, can make the targeted vocabulary permanent and automatic.

Teaching Tips

Have students recall and share memories and anecdotes of emotionally charged situations like “anticipation” and “elevation,” or students can physically express/demonstrate these words through movement. Model how to draw cartoons, create jokes, write poetry, sad stories, spooky stories, etc. that highlight the meaning and include the target word. Practice this strategy multiple times with active guidance to maintain a focus on the central meaning of the vocabulary word.

Tips and Ideas for Parents

Play charades at a gathering of friends or that includes adults and children. Include words that are associated with emotions (e.g., anticipation, elation).

References

Dixon-Kraus (2001); Stahl (1983)
Component: Comprehension

**Definition:**
Comprehension is "intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader" (Durkin, 1993). "Therefore, comprehension is the reason for reading" (NRP, 2000). Comprehension integrates all five components of reading. The foundation of comprehension is the access to text provided by the other four components.

**Overview:**
Proficient readers make engaged, active, and purposeful connections and decisions as they read any given text. They attend to both words and meaning as they read. Skilled readers gain meaning at the word, sentence, and complete text levels through contextual analysis. Efficient readers continually exercise metacognition and employ effective strategies through metacognition - they actively think about their thinking. Skilled readers have a bank of effective strategies they utilize and are flexible in coordinating and shifting among those strategies in order to fully comprehend a given text for a specific task. They can organize and integrate new information into their existing schema. Struggling readers may not naturally have access to these thinking tools, but they can be taught explicitly what to attend to and how to monitor and guide their thinking. Through active engagement, practice with strategy use, and close monitoring, these students can evolve into independent and efficient readers. This process involves repeated, varied, and explicit teacher explanation, cognitive modeling, and student practice.

**Skill Areas within this Component:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>The student: brings personal experiences to the reading process</td>
<td>The student: does not make personal connections to text (e.g., text is about grandparents and student does not apply his relationship with his grandparents to what is read)</td>
<td>1,2,3,4,</td>
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<td>accesses prior knowledge of the subject during the reading process</td>
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<td>possesses a rich vocabulary of subject matter and easily applies it to the text</td>
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<td>9,10,11,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>can distinguish between what has been previously learned, with the current text, and the prior knowledge that was brought to the reading</td>
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<td>12,13,14,</td>
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<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Evidence of Skill</td>
<td>Evidence of Need</td>
<td>Strategies</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Knowledge of Text Structure</strong></td>
<td>The student:</td>
<td>The student:</td>
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<td>• readily locates information in text by skimming and scanning</td>
<td>• does not skim, scan, or revisit the text for specific information (e.g., cannot locate three facts about the planet Earth)</td>
<td>15,16,17</td>
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<td>• answers questions about text on many levels of comprehension, (e.g., literal, inferential, evaluative)</td>
<td>• does not distinguish between different text types and usages (e.g., narrative vs. expository)</td>
<td>18,19,20,21,22,23,24</td>
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<td>• uses text elements to gain information, (e.g., indexes, table of contents, glossary, appendices)</td>
<td>• does not locate information from an index, table of contents, glossary, appendices</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• uses text elements to gain information from maps, charts, graphs, captions, bolded text, etc.</td>
<td>• does not locate information from maps, charts graphs, captions, bolded text, etc.</td>
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<td>• reads a variety of text formats, such as job applications, lab reports, spreadsheets, websites, etc.</td>
<td>• cannot read a variety of text formats, such as job applications, lab reports, spreadsheets, websites, etc.</td>
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<td>• is unaware of transitions, idea hierarchies, and/or correlations</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive Monitoring-Metacognition</strong></td>
<td>The student:</td>
<td>The student:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• reads selections with constant interaction with the text, asking questions along the way to increase comprehension (e.g., “After the baby turtles hatch, how do they get to the ocean?”)</td>
<td>• does not check own comprehension by asking questions. May read through entire text with out questioning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• shows outward signs of interaction with text (facial expressions such as smiles, bewilderment, frowns, etc.)</td>
<td>• may not show outward signs of interacting with text (e.g., confusion, amusement, sadness, intensive study while reading).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• revisits portions of text when meaning is lost</td>
<td>• does not reread and or self-correct. (e.g., “That didn’t make sense.” I said, “The tire went flat.”) It actually says, “The tire went flat.”)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• visualizes while reading, which brings a depth of understanding to text</td>
<td>• does not make personal connections to text (e.g., “I was on a bike ride once and my tire went flat too! I had to walk it home.”)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• skips ahead or goes back in the text</td>
<td>• does not visualize what is happening in text while reading.</td>
<td>25,26,27,28,29,30,31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Evidence of Skill</td>
<td>Evidence of Need</td>
<td>Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Retelling/Recalling</strong></td>
<td>Ability to remember important details and main events in text</td>
<td></td>
<td>32,33,34 35,36,37,38,39,40,41,42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The student:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• recalls and verbalize what has been read</td>
<td>• does not remember what has been read</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• provides details such as places and events from a text</td>
<td>• does not recall text even when prompted with specific literal questions such as:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• makes connections between significant details and possible outcomes in the reading selection</td>
<td>• Which president was in office during the Civil War?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• responds to specific text with the appropriate tone and or humor in the retelling</td>
<td>• may not remember names, places, and events even though they get the big picture and make inferences</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• does not give extensive details with an understanding of context or connect significant details to the meaning or outcome of the reading</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• does not recognize humor or tone in the retelling (e.g., does not laugh, show excitement, etc. when telling the storyline)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literal Comprehension</strong></td>
<td>Ability to remember important details from a text</td>
<td></td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The student:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• provides information that is “right there” in the text without adding personal experiences</td>
<td>• does not recall information that is “right there” in the text such as: main character’s name and where he lived, the definition of a meteorologist, the names of the planets</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Summarizing</strong></td>
<td>Ability to discern and communicate key points from a text</td>
<td></td>
<td>44,45,46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The student:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• identifies and differentiates between the main idea and details in a selection</td>
<td>• cannot differentiate between main ideas and details</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• analyzes a selection when reading to gain deeper meaning</td>
<td>• does not analyze the text for deep understanding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• discerns key information in a selection when retelling</td>
<td>• fails to identify key information when giving a retell of the selection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• discerns pertinent information in a selection from inconsequential details</td>
<td>• does not list or outline key ideas in a topic</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• cannot recall information and or the recall is scant with gaps of knowledge indicating a lack of understanding</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>• fails to differentiate key information from irrelevant details</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Skill Area

#### Inferential Comprehension

**Ability to see past what is given in a text to predict and draw conclusions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The student:</td>
<td>The student:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communicates beyond the obvious literal information</td>
<td>is unable to offer information beyond the literal,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>and brings inferential thought processes to the text</td>
<td>such as who, what, where, and when</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>predicts and draws conclusions (e.g., Prediction:</td>
<td>does not identify other passages or background</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I think the passage will be about the pioneers.”</td>
<td>knowledge to support an inference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion: “The pioneers will have a rough winter</td>
<td>does not predict or draw conclusions (e.g., does</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>because their crops were ruined.”)</td>
<td>not use information about pioneers to infer and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locates passages that can support an inference.</td>
<td>draw conclusions about their life during the winter.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Evaluative Comprehension

**Ability to sift through both literal and inferential information and evaluate the validity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evidence of Skill</th>
<th>Evidence of Need</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The student:</td>
<td>The student:</td>
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<tr>
<td>judges or evaluates the accuracy, reliability, and</td>
<td>fails to notice inconsistencies within a passage</td>
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<tr>
<td>consistency of a text</td>
<td>does not distinguish between improbable facts and the</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>spots weak arguments</td>
<td>truth</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>challenges the authority of the text</td>
<td>does not distinguish between arguments and emotional</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>appeal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>is unable to compare texts with one another and</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>evaluate the arguments in each</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### What the Research Says:

- Comprehension often involves more than thirty cognitive processes (Block & Pressley, 2002).
- Reading comprehension requires the application of many complex skills applied successfully and simultaneously (Durkin, 1993).
- Students must be able to understand and make sense of content by assimilating vocabulary, concepts, and information with their prior experiences (Pressley, 2002).
- Comprehension strategies should be taught directly (Durkin, 1981).
- Most effective instruction in strategy recognition and use is done by the teacher, not from the presentation within the reading basal.
- Strategies are often practiced and tested in basal reading series, but few are taught directly (and they need to be) (Pressley, 1998).
- Even when strategies are not taught perfectly, there is improvement in comprehension on the part of the reader (Bramlett, 1994).
- Students must monitor their ongoing understanding before, during, and after reading (Pressley, Harris, & Marks, 1992).
• Students who do not use cognitive processes automatically by third grade, even if their decoding skills are adequate, may never catch up (Block, 2000).
• Students benefit from instruction and repeated practice over time in the use of a repertoire of strategies (Duke & Pearson, 2002).
• Good comprehenders actively engage with text and flexibly apply appropriate strategies at the point where their understanding requires them to adjust their technique (Durkin, 1979).
• A strong, rich, and varied vocabulary is the key component of strong comprehension across a variety of texts (Biemiller, 2001).

**Best Practices in Instruction:**

• Model comprehension strategies through explicit and frequent think alouds.
• Weave comprehension strategy instruction into everyday teaching in the classroom.
• Use a wide variety of text genres and levels for instruction and for independent practice.
• Connect reading and writing activities.
• When the student gets stuck, encourage him/her to reread, to pay attention to the code, to jump around in the text sequence, to identify key words and concepts, to pay attention to text structure, and/or to create and use visual clues.
• Expect and encourage students to articulate how they make their decisions about understanding what they read.
• Use book clubs or literature circles within the classroom setting to activate social learning strategies.
• Separate narrative reading strategies from expository techniques.
• Set a purpose for reading to encourage engagement, schema activation, focus, and recall.
• Teach students to create mental images that capture key concepts, foster connections, and improve retention.
• Clarify concepts and difficult portions for the students to avoid misconceptions.
• Encourage higher levels of thinking and problem solving through analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and application of judgments.
• Use strategic questioning techniques. Specifically, have student generate questions about the text before, during, and after reading to increase engagement, metacognition, and comprehension.
• Scaffold instruction of strategies that target inferences. This is the most difficult type of comprehension for struggling readers and will require explicit modeling, usage, practice, and application of the thinking involved in making inferences.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C-1</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Make Predictions Using Background Knowledge</td>
<td>Students use their own knowledge and thinking to make predictions about stories. This strategy helps students to understand the topic at first, but can be structured to allow independent practice of predictions. Research shows that topic knowledge and interest lead to higher comprehension. Students respond using their own background knowledge. This strategy helps students to connect their own knowledge and engage in the text by making predictions, their interest and ability to make connections are increased. Caution: Incorrect background knowledge may override processing new information in the text, particularly when comprehension breaks down. Students must be able to determine whether they have correctly understood the information securely understood before processing the text.</td>
<td>Introduce a story or passage by giving the key ideas and then ask a question based on students' previous learning and experiences. Have students respond using their own background knowledge. This strategy generates questions and provides a way to connect the students' background knowledge and ideas by asking questions or making connections to the text. It may also happen in the story. Model how to help students find their own ideas in an activity by thinking aloud. Use model questions and ideas to draw on background knowledge (e.g., &quot;How is this topic like my life and experiences?&quot; &quot;What difference did last year's rain influence?&quot; &quot;What would happen if we planted more trees?&quot;).</td>
<td>Do activities with your student that build their background knowledge. Becoming a good predictor requires regular discussions and interactions with others related to those experiences. Based on the discussion we had in class yesterday about volcanoes, I predict that our homework will focus on why and how Earth's plate moves. I bet there are certain places on Earth where volcanoes happen more often than other places. I wonder where those places are?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-2</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Preview the Text</td>
<td>This strategy is effective with complex narratives or new content, and it is particularly useful when engaging students. The strategy provides them with a framework or context to help them understand the text. Engaging students in discussion, they are actively engaged prior to reading.</td>
<td>Preview the narrative with several questions. Present a synopsis of the plot, characters, and setting. Focus on key ideas, plot, and point of view. Briefly discuss the theme in small groups or as a whole class prior to reading. Ask students to make connections to the text, including difficult and unfamiliar vocabulary.</td>
<td>Scare the text with your student before reading. Pay attention to pictures, headings, tables, and other information. Point out words that are important and that may cause the student to stumble. Ask your child questions that will help him/her make connections between the text and what he/she already knows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-3</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Text to Self</td>
<td>Assesing prior or background knowledge gives a student a framework on which to &quot;hang&quot; new knowledge. The most basic connection is linking texts to their own experiences (self). Students need additional practice in the skill of selecting and comparing since they often choose similar, condense or focus on different parts of a text. Experience is often a &quot;reality&quot; that readers read more and varied facts. Notes: &quot;Text&quot; refers to visual, drama, video, audio, or other textual sources. Teach culturally relevant aspects of a given text explicitly. Expand student comprehension through exposure to relevant cultural backgrounds and perspectives. Teach students to connect literature with their personal experiences. Engage secondary students in discussions around cultural perspectives and authentic, controversial issues.</td>
<td>Introduce a nonfiction reading by using fiction picture books to help students make a personal connection to their own experiences. Assist students in connecting to a character and/or situation. They are generally able to do this more easily than a factual model. The focus to personal experience is established through the intermediary step and makes the nonfiction text approachable. Students use new articles, current events, movies, and/or internet connections to add to personalized text. Include cultural perspectives and authentic, controversial issues in the discussion.</td>
<td>Refer to and make connections to books, movies and stories that you have shared (e.g., At a large family gathering: &quot;This meal reminds me of 'Cheaper By the Dozen'.&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-4</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Text to Text (InterpretTexture)</td>
<td>In addition to prior personal experiences, readers bring prior textual experience from texts they have read in the past. These experiences help readers find their own &quot;inner texts.&quot; As they interpret knowledge of past texts with new texts, they rephrase their own mental models in anticipation of future readings. These inner texts are often in &quot;revised&quot; or readers read more and varied facts. Notes: &quot;Text&quot; refers to visual, drama, video, audio, or other textual sources. Introduce a story or passage by giving the key ideas and then ask a question based on students' previous learning and experiences. Students should use their own knowledge and thinking to make predictions in stories. This strategy helps students to understand the topic at first, but can be structured to allow independent practice of predictions. Research shows that topic knowledge and interest lead to higher comprehension. Students respond using their own background knowledge. This strategy helps students to connect their own knowledge and engage in the text by making predictions, their interest and ability to make connections are increased. Caution: Incorrect background knowledge may override processing new information in the text, particularly when comprehension breaks down. Time must be spent to ensure the students have correctly understood the information securely understood before processing the text.</td>
<td>Promote connections across texts by providing multiple texts around a topic for students to experience. They are generally able to do this more easily than a factual model. The hook to personal experience is established through the intermediary step and makes the nonfiction text approachable. Secondary: Use new articles, current events, movies, and/or internet connections to add to personalized text. Include cultural perspectives and authentic, controversial issues in the discussion.</td>
<td>Watch different movie versions of a classic (Charles Dickens' A Christmas Carol; old and new versions of A Midsummer Nights Dream). Compare the movies to each other and the original book. Discuss which you liked best.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-5</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Text to World</td>
<td>Students have cultural background knowledge, differences in knowledge, or lack of knowledge, facilitate or hinder referencing cultural perspectives. Students need explicit connections to develop their cultural background knowledge and to make connections to the text. They need help forming their own &quot;inner texts.&quot; As they interlink knowledge of past texts with new texts, they rephrase their own mental models in anticipation of future readings. These inner texts are often in &quot;revised&quot; or readers read more and varied facts. Notes: &quot;Text&quot; refers to visual, drama, video, audio, or other textual sources. Text to Text (Intertextuality)</td>
<td>Text to World (Intertextuality)</td>
<td>Students have cultural background knowledge, differences in knowledge, or lack of knowledge, facilitate or hinder referencing cultural perspectives. Students need explicit connections to develop their cultural background knowledge and to make connections to the text. They need help forming their own &quot;inner texts.&quot; As they interlink knowledge of past texts with new texts, they rephrase their own mental models in anticipation of future readings. These inner texts are often in &quot;revised&quot; or readers read more and varied facts. Notes: &quot;Text&quot; refers to visual, drama, video, audio, or other textual sources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-6</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Text Feature Previewing</td>
<td>Students who understand and use knowledge of text structure and text elements in a non-fiction content area textbook. They are prepared by student surveys, learning logs and text assessment by the teacher. Teacher gives directed instruction on how to identify the different text elements in a content area textbook: chapter titles, section headings, subheadings, main points, pictures and their captions, charts, and tables. Before reading a section, students are asked to predict and generalize what the text will be about.</td>
<td>Teacher gives directed instruction on how to identify the different text elements in a content area textbook: chapter titles, section headings, subheadings, main points, pictures and their captions, charts, and tables. Before reading a section, students are asked to predict and generalize what the text will be about.</td>
<td>Look at a box for a cake mix or pizza and search for directions on how to cook or for nutritional information with your child. Talk out loud about where to find the information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-7</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Visual / Pictoral Organizer</td>
<td>Providing students with text that begins with visual images or contextual organizers helps to make predictions. This strategy activates schema through asking and answering questions and highlights of difficult vocabulary prior to reading the text. By engaging students in discussion, they are actively engaged prior to reading.</td>
<td>Provide visual organizers or front-enders. Ask questions that relate to the text.</td>
<td>Read the text aloud and construct a visual overview of the text. Discuss the text aloud and construct a visual overview of the text. Discuss the text aloud and construct a visual overview of the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-8</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Prequestioning</td>
<td>Students are given a one-sentence summary of the passage topic. Then they formulate questions that come to mind and might relate to the text. Prequestioning leads to deeper and more active involvement in the reading.</td>
<td>Set a minimum number of questions that students might pose. Students should be given guidance about what kind of questions they might think of.</td>
<td>Before seeing a movie or reading a book, ask questions about what will happen.</td>
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<tr>
<td>#</td>
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<td>C-9</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Script Activation</td>
<td>Script activator induces the appropriate schema which facilitates comprehension and recall. A script activator is a short concise set of words or images that capture the concept or storyline of a text. ELLs greatly benefit from this strategy.</td>
<td>Give students an advance organizer to focus their thinking. It could be in the form of a script or a short statement; it could be a title. It could be several pictures that represent the beginning, middle and end.</td>
<td>Script activation is similar to making a plan at home. Focus ahead on a goal in sports, such as team cooperation or personal skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-10</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Setting a Purpose</td>
<td>Students need to have a purpose for their reading, which is critical to the success of the task. The purpose is to help students shift from memorization to higher-order thinking.</td>
<td>Set a clear reading objective. Think about Bloom's taxonomy and at what level you want the students to process the text.</td>
<td>Setting different purposes before you ask will change the outcome. For example, when you go to the store, the purpose is to get in and out as quickly as possible; or to buy specific items for a birthday party. Talk about your purpose for reading and how it relates to your own personal goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-11</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Story Content Introduction</td>
<td>Present and teach content that will build and activate student knowledge about topics in upcoming text. This strategy works well with difficult to access texts, but also can help students gain new knowledge in an engaging way.</td>
<td>Prepare topics and materials ahead of time. Write a script that briefly captures the content and highlights of the targeted text.</td>
<td>This strategy has broad applications for both narrative and expository texts, and linear or non-linear structures. It is teacher dependent in that the teacher must select the key information that is important for the students to understand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-12</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Story Impressions</td>
<td>This strategy builds on previous strategies and applies them to a more advanced level. It is teacher directed and can be adapted to fit the needs of the students.</td>
<td>Select the key phrases that represent the critical information of the text. Keep it simple and short, and list them one page double or triple spaced for linear text. Distribute them appropriately for non-linear text.</td>
<td>This is a teacher-directed strategy. Before reading a text, the teacher gives students a list of important phrases and highlights from the text. The teacher then uses this strategy to introduce new ideas to the students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-13</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Strategic Story Content Preview</td>
<td>This strategy keeps the readers as active participants and engages their procedural and conditional knowledge in the meaning making process. It encourages students to use their prior knowledge as a filter to interpret what they are reading and to integrate new and old knowledge. This strategy allows students to self regulate how they activate prior knowledge when reading independently.</td>
<td>Prepare sample story maps of known stories. Identify the main idea, character, the motivation, the problem, and the resolution to the problem. Review these elements and their connections with the students. Ask the students if the story could be told for the same purpose without any of these key components. Discus why that is so.</td>
<td>This is a strategy to get all students engaged in processing the information and concepts of the text. It can be complex. Students can be given a practice of modeling and &quot;volume control&quot; discussed ahead of time. It allows students to express thinking in the classroom that may be embarrassing to say or fear was off topic or wrong. Its allows a high % of student talk time to teacher talk time. It gives teacher discretionary control of the direction of discussion and to present an authoritative stance if desired.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-14</td>
<td>Background Knowledge / Schema Activation</td>
<td>Experience Test Relationship</td>
<td>This is a strategy to get all students engaged in processing the information and concepts of the text. It can be complex. Students can be given a practice of modeling and &quot;volume control&quot; discussed ahead of time. It allows students to express thinking in the classroom that may be embarrassing to say or fear was off topic or wrong. Its allows a high % of student talk time to teacher talk time. It gives teacher discretionary control of the direction of discussion and to present an authoritative stance if desired.</td>
<td>Read a text, in class or as assigned. Have all students respond to a prompt or question. Have students verify their thinking out loud, simultaneously if they so choose. Have them make predictions while they read. Use the readings to help them develop a coherent text.</td>
<td>This strategy allows students to express their thinking in a &quot;safe environment&quot; before having to talk in a more public way. For example, at the dinner table, everyone talks for 1 minute all at once about how their day went. Then, each person can take turns at a time. If everyone gives everyone a chance to practice what they might say. This can also lead to a lot of laughing!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
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<td>C-15</td>
<td>Knowledge of Text</td>
<td>Non-Linear Text</td>
<td>High knowledge readers have greater facility in processing non-linear text. Students with a limited knowledge base have less access to the concepts that would create mental connections between items presented in a non-linear fashion. Providing students with the needed knowledge prior to viewing the text facilitates the ability to make the right connections. Predictability also influences readers ability to comprehend. Repeated exposure to similar non-linear representations facilitates the understanding of what types of connections are represented. Selecting materials that have a linear flow to the encoded information as well as having students generate their own non-linear tests help students to master the components and principles of this presentation format of information. Note: One large map, or one comprehensive graphic, is easier to process “pictorially” and therefore easier to recall than several smaller maps or graphics. Enhancing relevance to text segments helps compensate for lack of coherence.</td>
<td>Select non-linear text with information in chunks for your first lessons on reading different visual presentation of text. Demonstrate how to visually track what is on the page. Explicitly state what your priorities are as you look at this non-linear text. Walk students step by step through how you question what is on the page. Orient the students to any titles, coding, symbols, etc. that contain specialized information. Help students to pay attention to the details on the map/diagram/chart. Practice noticing and decoding salient features such as color, size, shape, bolded items, borders, boundaries, etc. as well as the relationships between the items on the map. Have them peer review each other's text against the set of criteria.</td>
<td>Maps contain much information which is presented through charts, legends, symbols, numbers and pictures. On road trips, let your child be the map expert. Ask her assistance in calculating distances, finding exits, identifying towns, rivers, national parks, and historic places.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-16</td>
<td>Knowledge of Text</td>
<td>Schema-General Questions</td>
<td>Students need help navigating through unfamiliar narrative forms. They are taught story grammar elements and then practice with familiar or easy stories first. They need to rehearse identifying and naming story elements until they are familiar with them. Then they can identify the elements in other stories without difficulty. It is critical for the students to generate these story specific questions not the teacher. It is in generating ideas that students find engagement and greater gains in comprehension. Note: Poor readers struggle with “story grammar” as an organizing tool much more than good readers, and they process text differently than good readers or early readers. Focusing on “theme comprehension” in combination with a structured lesson and discussion has shown results with LD students.</td>
<td>Teach traditional plot elements or schema of the short story: plan, goal, action, obstacles, outcomes. Then pose schema-general questions about plot elements, e.g., Who are the important characters? What challenges (conflicts) do they face? What is important about where and when the story takes place (setting)? How does the main character resolve the problem? Apply this questioning strategy to a specific text. Guide student practice of question generating. Instruct students to stop and generate new questions throughout the story, perhaps every other paragraph or every page. Examples from Singer &amp; Donlan (1982): Schema general: Who is the leading character? Story specific: Is this story going to be more about the officer or the barber? Schema general: What is the leading character trying to accomplish in the story? Story specific: Will the barber kill the officer with the razor?</td>
<td>When watching a complicated story with your child, discuss the character's and what motivates them, what problems do they face and how are the problems resolved?</td>
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<td>C-17</td>
<td>Knowledge of Text</td>
<td>Generating Questions - Forms</td>
<td>The use of authentic materials and authentic tasks in literacy instruction has proven highly effective. Real-life materials and tasks make the instruction more meaningful, practical, and authentic. Using authentic literacy competence with authentic materials and tasks is motivating for students, and embedding skill instruction and strategy coaching into lessons with these materials/tasks has been very effective. Questioning strengthens recall, but attention should be paid to what topic and/or information is targeted by the questions.</td>
<td>Using an authentic form (e.g., lease, job application, taxes), model how to locate the main idea in each section, and ask focusing questions, such as, “What do the words ‘required’ and ‘understood’ mean?” To scaffold students attention to include the larger picture of the purpose of the form coordinated with the specificity of each item. Demonstrate how questions about the main idea of a section lead to identification of supporting details asked by each individual blank to be completed. Scaffold the process by first having students write down their “self-questions” on paper. This allows teachers to evaluate whether students have mastered the skill of locating the main ideas and posing a question about it, and to see if they can look at the specific questions and focus in on the correct detail. Students working in pairs or small groups strategize collaboratively.</td>
<td>Let your child read and fill out his application for a sports camp. Help your teenager apply to colleges, sign up for classes, register to vote and bank online. Discuss the form as you complete it together (e.g., Why do you think they want to know this? Which experience should I choose to describe here and why?).</td>
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<td>C-18</td>
<td>Knowledge of Text</td>
<td>Generating Questions - Academic Text</td>
<td>Teaching students to create questions related to their readings helps them to focus on the text, gives them a way to check and monitor their own understanding of the text and allows for interaction with the text. When students generate questions they become responsible for finding the answers. When students begin to question texts and think about the ideas within them, they begin to construct their own knowledge. Questioning strengthens recall, but attention should be paid to what topic and/or information is targeted by the questions. Teacher and student text priorities often differ. Using questions to cue recall of text supports inferential thinking through more focused attention.</td>
<td>Teacher models by thinking aloud how to generate questions by looking at section headings in a nonfiction text. Teacher models how to make a question out of headings by asking “who, what, where, when, why, and how.” As students take responsibility for creating their own questions, they are also answering their own questions after reading the text. They self-monitor by reviewing the information and correcting themselves. The ReQuest method is also modeled through a “think aloud.” Both teacher and students read a passage. Students initially ask questions of the teacher, who models good reading strategies as she reviews the section for an answer. As the modeling progresses, teacher models “better” questions that involve higher level thinking skills. As students become better questioners, they may do Request in small groups or independently.</td>
<td>Before seeing a movie or reading a book, ask questions and predict what will happen. Afterwards, talk about the answers and how they differ.</td>
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<td>C-19</td>
<td>Knowledge of Text</td>
<td>Transitions 1</td>
<td>Especially when reading in an area where the student has less background knowledge, use signal words or phrases (e.g., “A second reason is...”) that point to logical and temporal relations within the text. These do not add new content but identify significant information or express how it is related – either explicitly or implicitly.</td>
<td>Choose textbooks and other reading materials that are “considerate” of the reader in that they provide connections between concepts through transitions, and well-organized flow of information. Material should be age-appropriate. Scaffold students who are attempting to read difficult text by pointing out signal words that indicate relationships. Model and have students take notes of one main idea and one supporting detail when reading difficult text, using the transitions as an aid.</td>
<td>Work through a craft project or cooking recipe with your child. Draw attention to the signal words that connect and organize the steps (e.g. before, while, after, when, during).</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
## Knowledge of Text Structure

### Transitions 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C-20</th>
<th>Transitions 2</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transition can indicate a Series, Time Order, Cause/Effect, Comparison/Contrast, a Definition, Combinations of Patterns. When students make non-coherent transitions, they often express confusion and then try to get back to where they had been previously. Understanding the transition words and making transitions stand out in the text helps to locate the ideas and their relationship and/or connection.</td>
<td>Select a predictable text with a specific type of transitions and with clear signals of the transitions. Provide a list of transition vocabulary and talk about what those words do when they connect text. Read through some of the text and model highlighting transition words. Tell students that transitions stand out in the text to help readers locate the ideas and their connection to one another. Tell students that marking words such as first, next, or finally, not only locates important ideas, but shows how they relate to each other. Tell students that transitions take the reader from one idea to the next. Examine the relationships among the different parts or parts of the passage after locating the transition. Are they contrasting? Are they complementary? Consider the points the author makes, the conclusions drawn, and how and why those points are made or those conclusions drawn. Provide opportunities for student pairs or groups to practice finding transition words and seeing the connection of ideas.</td>
<td>If the student needs help with linear sequencing, practice telling how to do something with using the words... first, second, next, after that... finally. Read directions on how to make something together and include words that let your child know it's time to move to the next step. As the student masters these skills, try different sequencing words that cue a comparison or contrast (e.g., Comparison: similarly, like, in the same way as. Contrast: however, in contrast, unlike). Baumann (1985); Darch, Karmine, &amp; Kameenui (1986); Folz (1996); Williams &amp; Ryan (1996)</td>
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</table>

### Advanced Organizer on Text Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C-21</th>
<th>Advanced Organizer on Text Structure</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>The way a text is structured follows different organizational patterns for different purposes. For example, a compare/contrast text is organized from a sequence text. Examples of text structures include narrative text (which has its own story grammar) and expository texts including sequences, descriptive, enumerative, compare/contrast, persuasive and problem/solution/effect. Students familiar with the text structure who read well-organized text remember significantly more with more coherence. The semantic base of the Advanced Organizer is critical, and it more useful if it prompts paraphrasing rather than the merely listing text. Careful reading by the student is important for retention.</td>
<td>Explicitly instruct students in how the text is structured. Provide students with a two to three page description of the way a text is organized prior to reading. Selected text that provides clear and coherent presentation of the material. E.g., Technical text for the operation and use of a light meter in photography can be converted into 1/2 page of critical information. Provide a summary sentence. Provide a drawing with key features noted and a chart that coordinates reading, think, and camera settings. Include a step by step set of succinct directions.</td>
<td>The teacher may be able to supply you with several examples of text structures. A brief description or graphic of each structure can help you at home when you are previewing a text with your child. Reminding your child of the structure ahead of time can make the text easier to understand. Bronga &amp; Mayer (1985); Dinnel &amp; Glover (1985); Lorch &amp; Lorch (1985); Meyer &amp; Freedle (1984); Risko &amp; Alvarez (1996); Williams, et. al. (2002)</td>
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### Presentation of Text Features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C-22</th>
<th>Presentation of Text Features</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Physical presentation of text includes visual textual cues such as headings and subheadings, signal words (transitions), location of main idea sentences, and spacing between &quot;chunk&quot; or idea units within sentences. Writers who recognize text cues that signal the importance of a sentence will attend to reading that sentence more carefully and have greater free recall of the information. Students who pay close attention to headings and topic structure had larger working memory capacity and more accurate summaries.</td>
<td>Instruction in the physical conventions of text is modeled then scaffolded. Teacher shows students how to apply strategy using headings, subheadings, and paragraph topics by thinking out loud. In a guided practice phase, peers and teachers share think aloud and summarize with each other.</td>
<td>Many do-it-yourself projects include following information that is presented in an easily read format. Help your child read a dress pattern, airplane model direction, skateboard kit or recipe. Pay attention to how the information is sequenced.</td>
<td>Hjona, Reakinen, &amp; Lorch (2002); Lorch &amp; Chen (1985); Lorch &amp; Lorch (1985); Surber (2001)</td>
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### Guided Discussion of Expository Text Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C-23</th>
<th>Guided Discussion of Expository Text Structure</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Students need experience with all genres of text and they need guided &quot;tours&quot; of the differences in the specific features of a given genre. Students need explicit instruction in all forms of text as they may be used to deliver academic content at a different stage of schooling. Literacy in all genres can be developed early, and research shows that young children have a wonderful awareness of different purposes, organization, and audience with different &quot;audience&quot; aims. Classroom discussion during reading a text aloud can highlight and clarify many features of genre in an open dialogue that invites questions and comments. A literary stance on scientific material is quite different than an expository, or scientific stance, and students need exposure to both perspectives of scientific concepts. Read alouds significantly contribute to vocabulary gains and recall.</td>
<td>Select several genres of text and have them work on the central science concept. Read them aloud on one or over several days. Discuss the text as you are reading it, paying attention to what makes this text distinct in its presentation, organization, and &quot;flavor&quot; of the information. Compare and contrast these features as you read more texts. Discuss what kind of thinking goes with reading different texts. Discuss that each genre has value and each has limitations in its treatment of a topic. Heighten student awareness through prompting their observations as to what is captured in the text and how it is organized. Heighten student awareness through prompting their observations as to what might not be in this treatment. Include narrative, poetry, drama, expository (without added narrative treatment), biography, graphics, visual arts, historical texts for at least one topic.</td>
<td>Call attention to how information can be presented in different types of formats. For example: some information is in the form of cartoons, some as advertisements, bulleted lists, articles, websites. Talk about connection between purpose, audience and the presentation.</td>
<td>Brabham &amp; Lynch-Brown (2002); Donovan &amp; Smolkin (2001); Donovan &amp; Smolkin (2002); Kelter, Kaus, &amp; Claus (2004); Kucan &amp; Beavis (2003); Mackey (2003); Minner &amp; Meyer (2002); Penno, Wilkinson &amp; Moore (2002); Rosenhouse, Feletot, Kita, &amp; Glickstein (1997); Wade, Buton, &amp; Kelly (1999)</td>
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</tbody>
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### Paragraph Structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C-24</th>
<th>Paragraph Structures</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Students need explicit instruction in what makes a good paragraph. Younger students often understand the mechanical aspects of indentation and punctuation, but lacks the concept that expository texts have paragraphs of sentences about the same topic with a superordinate sentence as the leading idea. Younger students have greater difficulty in identifying what gives cohesion and what is the main idea in a paragraph. Practice identifying these elements and explaining their reasoning will help students to grasp these important expository text organizers.</td>
<td>Introduce expository text at the paragraph level. Have students identify which idea is the main idea, the biggest concept, the umbrella that covers all of the other ideas. Ask them where it occurs in the paragraph. Ask them if all of the other sentences match, or fit, the main idea. Ask them to explain how they know. Guide students with reading questions to clarify their thinking when they get the wrong superordinate or wrong relatedness within a topic. Practice with paragraphs that may not be in standard form. Have students create paragraphs for other students to examine for these structural elements. Instruct students to explain the results of these examinations.</td>
<td>When your child tells you a story with a lot of details, ask &quot;How could you say the important parts of that in just a few words?&quot; Garner, et. al. (1996)</td>
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### Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C-25</th>
<th>Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Students in this study were low achieving, intermediate grade readers. The study showed that explicit teaching of mental imagery improved comprehension monitoring and helped them remember what they read. The researchers suggest that a useful follow up study would address strategies for fixing comprehension errors.</td>
<td>Give students to make &quot;make pictures&quot; in their minds as they read. Teach this skill directly and then scaffold until students master the skill. As students read text ask them to compare the image in their heads to the words they read to look for any inconsistencies.</td>
<td>Keep art supplies handy for your children to draw pictures of their reading.</td>
<td>Gambrill &amp; Bates (1986); Guthrie, et. al. (1996); Hawig &amp; Karp (2002); Rummel, Levin, &amp; Woodward (2002)</td>
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<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Elaboration/Clarification</td>
<td>Teaching Tips</td>
<td>Tips and Ideas for Parents</td>
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<td>C-26</td>
<td>Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition</td>
<td>Delayed Key Words</td>
<td>Students who self-monitor their studying can improve their comprehension. Note: Words selected as key terms guide the students attention. Words central thematically help elicit recall of central themes. Words noncentral to the text aided in recall of details not central to the theme. Students can reliably predict their comprehension based on ease of processing. When students are struggling, break the text assigned into smaller chunks when applying Delayed Key Words.</td>
<td>1) Student reads assigned passage. 2) After reading, the student creates a list of 5 key words. 3) Give students a pretext on material. 4) Tell students how they performed overall and allow them to reread the text as they choose. 5) Restet students on the material.</td>
<td>This primarily a teacher directed activity. Look for key words in newspaper headlines, road signs, titles, and advertising.</td>
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<td>C-27</td>
<td>Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition</td>
<td>Modeling Through Think Alouds</td>
<td>Students who self-monitor their own comprehension increases their understanding of text. This strategy also can be applied to help students identify the type of discourse they are reading and the thinking that goes along with each discourse type (e.g., comparison, problem/solution, causation, or a collection of descriptions). Processing text aloud aids in vocabulary acquisition. Students trained with general metacognitive strategies perform higher than those given task specific metacognitive strategies.</td>
<td>1) Read a passage aloud to students, pausing occasionally to model your thought process. Talk through what you are thinking and doing. Explain the strategies you are using and why you are using them. 2) Model all of the following strategies to assist students: a) self-questioning, b) QAR, c) predicting, d) inferring, e) retelling, f) rereading, g) reading on.</td>
<td>Think alouds are a great way to let your child &quot;jump into your brain&quot; and see how you think. When working on a project, talk about your thinking as you solve a problem. When reading aloud, you can pause in the middle and talk about what you are thinking as you read.</td>
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<tr>
<td>C-28</td>
<td>Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition</td>
<td>QAR (Question Answer Relationships)</td>
<td>This technique is applicable at many levels. The QAR helps students identify where they found answers in their text: right there, think and search, or on my own. The study showed that younger students will need explicit training/modeling of how to use this technique. The technique was especially helpful for elementary students and for low to average ability students at the elementary and middle levels. Questioning strengthens recall, but attention should be paid to what topic and/or information is targeted by the questions. Teacher and student text priorities often differ.</td>
<td>Teach students the three types of QARs: 1) right there - the answer is explicit in the text, 2) think and search - the answer is implicit. Student must read more than one place to figure out the answer, 3) on my own - Student needs to use their own knowledge to answer the question. After teaching these types of QARs, practice with texts, giving students questions and having them determine which type each question illustrates. Then have student identify different types of questions and answers. Finally, have students generate their own questions of each type.</td>
<td>Ask your child questions and then ask them to explain how they got their answer.</td>
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<td>C-29</td>
<td>Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition</td>
<td>Click and Clunk</td>
<td>Click and Clunk is a quick check of students' comprehension usually performed during shared reading. Students are able to tell the teacher where clarification is needed. The study was done with upper elementary students. Keller, Kaup, &amp; Claus (2004) showed that the reader's mental representation of a text is critically sensitive to depicting the unfolding description of the text. Running comprehension that falters for more than a moment while reading has a strong effect on overall comprehension. Cautionary note: Schommer &amp; Surber (1988) showed that students can have an &quot;illusion of knowing&quot; as they read. This manifests itself in feeling and looking like comprehension but is with distorted meaning or miscomprehension. Students who &quot;dicked&quot; accurately and smoothly had a generally correct understanding but still missed 26% of the larger concepts when summarizing. Those with the illusion of knowing&quot; had only a partial understanding with misinfomed connections. Those who knew were accurate in their self-assessment. Including quick comprehension statements from the &quot;dickers&quot; when checking for click and clunks might address the false sense of comprehension.</td>
<td>At key points in a text, the teacher stops and students either signal click with their thumbs up or clunk with their thumbs down. Click signals comprehension and clunk signals a lapse in understanding. This allows the teacher to quickly assess if students are understanding and can move on, but more importantly, it encourages students to constantly ask themselves if they are understanding the text. Check for coherence / comprehension after unfamiliar and challenging vocabulary. Include requesting quick comprehension statements from the &quot;dickers&quot; when checking for click and clunks to address students with a false sense of comprehension. Have students state things in their own words.</td>
<td>When you are reading to your child, ask them periodically to explain what just happened.</td>
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<td>C-30</td>
<td>Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition</td>
<td>Question Generation During Reading</td>
<td>Students who generate their own questions while reading are engaging in several metacognitive processes. They are setting a purpose for reading, identifying important concepts in the text and the hierarchy of the concepts, and thinking of possible answers to their own questions. Students who are taught more elaborate story grammar or schema for more challenging texts are able to comprehend and recall those texts with greater accuracy. Expository text becomes the most important text structure for learning after the primary grades. In content textbooks, students will encounter density of information and challenging vocabulary. It is recommended therefore that expository text be used to train students in these self-monitoring strategies. Questioning strengthens recall, but attention should be paid to what topic and/or information is targeted by the questions. Teacher and student text priorities often differ.</td>
<td>Using expository text, model how to locate the main idea in a passage and ask a question concerning the main idea. Demonstrate how questions about main ideas lead to identification of supporting details. Scaffold the process by first having students write down their &quot;self-questions&quot; on paper. This allows teachers to evaluate whether students have mastered the skill of locating the main idea and posing a question about it. Using narrative text, teach students the basic story grammar or schema for a challenging text, such as a short story (a plan, a goal, action, obstacles, outcomes – success or failure). Teach students general questions from the framework of that schema, such as: &quot;Who is the main character? What is he or she trying to accomplish?&quot; Then teach the students how to create specific questions based on their story from the general questions, such as &quot;Will the boy win the game?&quot; Note: this strategy worked best by focusing on one element at a time (i.e., goal, obstacles, outcomes). Repeated sessions with different elements and different stories showed improvement after the third session.</td>
<td>Stop during reading and ask questions about characters and what is happening.</td>
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<td>#</td>
<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Elaboration/Clarification</td>
<td>Teaching Tips</td>
<td>Tips and Ideas for Parents</td>
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<td>C-31</td>
<td>Cognitive Monitoring / Metacognition</td>
<td>Mini Breaks</td>
<td>Positive emotional moments aid cognitive flexibility, while simultaneously deterring from perseverance. This 'strategy' is a great 'bad habit' breaker as a positive pit of emotion changes student's affect, allows them to think in a new way while helping them (2003) continue thinking in the old way. This is not a strategy to employ when you want a student to persist in the same way on the same task. It can be a good strategy for the student who frequently gets stuck and uses negative self-talks.</td>
<td>Find quick, positive interruptions when students need a boost to understand. Over time, create a system for a student to self-prescribe a &quot;positive quickie&quot; when they get stuck. Follow up the quick positive interruption with the difficult to learn concept or the hard to remember theory. Remember the formula... stick in a rut, break for a positive emotional boost, look to the novel idea.</td>
<td>When your child is struggling to get homework done and is frustrated, interrupt the study with a moment or two of something your child likes to do. You want to distract the child from their emotional frustration. Then return to the work with a fresh perspective. When returning to the work, you may want the child to explain their thinking so far and where they are stuck. You may be able to help them get beyond their stuck place through the mini-break and explanation.</td>
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<td>C-32</td>
<td>Retelling / Recalling</td>
<td>Survey, Question, Read, Recap, Review (SQ3R)</td>
<td>This strategy was used to help secondary students to grasp content area textual information. SQ3R has been more effective in a group setting than with individuals. This may be due to the complicated nature of the task, the role of the strategy, and the student's ability to follow all.</td>
<td>Note that to teach this strategy effectively, first model SQ3R before reading students into guided practice. Then release students gradually into independent practice. Survey: Scan the text for general understanding before reading it. Look specifically for bold-faced headings, pictures, graphs, captions, and any bold vocabulary. Question: Formulate questions using the text's bold headings and preview any questions that may appear at the end of the text. Read/Read the text to find answers to the questions the student found or generated before reading. Recap: Paraphrase main ideas and supporting details and check them against the passage. Rev/Recall the main points before reading subheadings. Recall as much supporting information as possible. Then read the entire passage without any specific directions (just read).</td>
<td>Before embarking on a pet project with your child, ask him to skim the text for unit ideas or topics you might need. Ask questions before cooking, such as how much time it will take or if there are any pre-cooking steps or set-up requirements. Look for the answers before cooking.</td>
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<td>C-33</td>
<td>Retelling / Recalling</td>
<td>Assigned Perspectives</td>
<td>The student is assigned a perspective (a point of view) either before, during, or after reading, providing greater proficiency in retelling and recalling.</td>
<td>Assign a point of view or role to the student to focus and contextualize the information they glean from the text. For example, the student may be reading a story where the setting is a house. One perspective might be that of a person who is house-hunting. Another might be that of a burglar. After reading, ask student to write all that they remember from that perspective.</td>
<td>On vacations or in your own city, take the family to museums and historical exhibits that immerse the viewer in another time or culture. Exhibits about ancient Egypt, American Indians, pioneers, whales or historic renovated houses display another perspective through artifacts, photos, architecture, journals, records and art. Ask questions of the student that challenges him/her to think from the viewpoint of a different person.</td>
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<td>C-34</td>
<td>Retelling / Recalling</td>
<td>Imagery Through Drama</td>
<td>Drama-based reading instruction uses imagery, elaboration, and story elements as more novel pathways in the brain which facilitate greater retention and recall. It positively reinforces student reading comprehension, factual recall and inferential reasoning. Young children naturally use play to act out and make sense of their world, including texts. Older children need opportunity to utilize this powerful tool of comprehension and higher level thinking.</td>
<td>Read the story independently. Then read the same story aloud with assigned perspective role. Enroll in summer performing arts programs. Buy tickets to a live theater show or watch one on television. Discuss how the actors use imagery to communicate.</td>
<td>Encourage your child to participate in after school drama productions. Enroll in summer performing arts programs. Buy tickets to a live theater show or watch one on television. Discuss how the actors use imagery to communicate.</td>
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<td>C-35</td>
<td>Retelling / Recalling</td>
<td>Graphic Organizers</td>
<td>Graphic organizers can be used to review and explore concepts in many content areas and with many levels of students.</td>
<td>This strategy can be adapted easily to match the needs of different types of learners and different types of text. Give explicit instruction on the relationships represented by the graphic using the following steps: 1) Read and discuss the graphic organizer with whole group. 2) Rehearse with group how to use an unabbreviated graphic organizer in which to write student's own labels. 3) Allow students to use graphic organizer independently with a delayed check. E.g. Expository text in a social studies class was matched to a graphic organizer with a hierarchical structure. Follow these steps: 1) Use a separate graphic organizer for each section of the chapter. 2) Write the main ideas inside large geometric shapes and write supporting ideas in smaller figures of the same shape that are visually tied to the larger shape and systematically arranged. The type of shape then changes with each paragraph. 3) The teacher should model this technique at least 5 times before expecting students to be able to use the skill independently. 4) Keep graphic organizers limited to 10 sections or fewer and each shape contain single words, phrases, or simple sentences only.</td>
<td>You can help your child make sense of what they read by constructing graphic organizers with them. A graphic organizer is a drawing or graphic to help organize information. Some types of graphic organizers include webs, Venn diagrams, and categorical lists. You can create a graphic organizer before reading to organize background knowledge, during reading to keep track of information on-going, or after reading to make sense of was read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-36</td>
<td>Retelling / Recalling</td>
<td>Tape Assisted Reading</td>
<td>Students who are slow readers and have below grade level reading comprehension can benefit from a &quot;read and listen.&quot; It is to be used in addition to regular classroom instruction. It improves both listening and reading comprehension; as well as allowing a child to keep pace with the other students in chapter book reading assignments. Multiple exposures to the same text increases retention of key information and terms, particularly with technical, academic text.</td>
<td>Set up a listening station for tape facilitated listening with headphones. Have the students listen while also reading along in the text (out loud, or silently). Repeat each listening assignment for better retention, and then have the students record their own assignments. Then allow all students to fully participate in class discussions and assignments. Adjust tape speed to appropriate rate for student.</td>
<td>Read the same book at home that is being read in the classroom to bolster motivation and comprehension. Listen to the book on an audiotape to reinforce struggling readers or those for whom English is a second language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
C-37 Retelling / Recalling

Mnemonic Imagery

This strategy was used with eighth graders with poor and good comprehension. They read on-grade level text about people and their accomplishments and were taught by example how to create mnemonics. The results showed improved recall. When used with a variety of learning disabled students, this strategy had an advantage over traditional instruction for recall with the added feature of less inaccurate misinformation included with the correct information (Viet, Scruggs, & Mastropieri, 1986). Using mnemonics in tandem with PAL (peer assisted learning) works well.

The first step involved having students changing an unfamiliar name to something familiar (to create a first image - e.g., Taylor to Taylor Jr.). Next, students were shown an illustrated example how to form interactions between the keyword (name) and secondary information. Students were then shown to incorporate their invention into the house with plants. Third, students were given a new passage and followed the same procedure except that they created their own image before seeing the illustrated example. Finally, in testing conditions, the students were prompted to use the strategy.

Mnemonic imagery is using a catchy phrase to remember something important. For example, the first letter in each word of "Every good boy deserves fudge" corresponds to the letters on the bars of the musical scale "EGDFS". "Never eat soggy wheat" can help you remember directions "North East South West". The mental image of someone eating soggy wheat reminds the student of what they need to recall. It can be a fun activity to see if you can create funny or memorable mnemonics to remember important concepts when your student is trying to memorize information for school (especially in classes such a social studies and science).

References
Heas & Levin (2002); Jones, Levin, Levin, & Beitzel (2000); McCormick & Levin (1984); Peters & Levin (1986); Rummel, Levin, & Woodward (2002); Viet, Scruggs, & Mastropieri (1986)

C-38 Retelling / Recalling

Hierarchical Summaries

This strategy is used to summarize unfamiliar content area text. Hierarchical summaries were found to enhance recall and had a positive effect on expository writing. Generate a skeleton outline by writing a Roman numeral for each major section in the reading selection. Then write a capital letter for every subsection. Finally, leave five or six lines between capital letters where the important supporting details may be listed. Having the text available when writing summaries is shown to be more beneficial for later recall than working without the original text (Glover, Bruning, & Plake, 1982). Caution: Students must be able to master this format/strategy in order to improve recall. Focus instruction on improved summarization skills (Taylor & Beach, 1982).

Hierarchical summary format includes:
- Headings and subheadings as Roman numerals
- Under every heading, the student lists 2-3 supporting details from the text
- Group the Roman numerals that are related by writing key ideas in the margin
- Generate a title of the summary based on key ideas

A hierarchical summary is an outline of information. Help your child to clarify what the main point of an article is after reading a complicated story in a newspaper or a magazine. Together, identify the most important ideas and the supporting information associated with each idea.

References
Glover, Bruning, & Plake (1982); Taylor & Beach (1984)

C-39 Retelling / Recalling

Content, Problem, Solution, Effect

Students retain "networks of information" better than isolated facts. Specifically, in teaching social studies, students were better able to see the relationship between events, facts and concepts using a method called "content-problem-solution-effect." This is a teacher-directed activity. The program includes prior instruction of concepts relating to the readings and provides instruction on problem-solution-effect analysis and note-taking procedures. The teacher then leads class discussion to analyze "chunks" of information, and models how to record notes that identify a problem, solution, and effect. (Winkel & Buronuk, 1990). In addition, developing a routine helps students see the sequence of events (Ravitch & Finn, 1987). Finally, since vocabulary instruction is integral to reading comprehension, students defined key vocabulary in the text in their notes (McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Perfetti, 1983).

Preteach general concepts related to the content to be studied (e.g., for a social studies unit on the Civil War, teach basic economic principles). Preteach note-taking skills. Preteach how to analyze problem-solution-effect by modeling. Use isolated passages with explicitly stated problems. Ask these four essential questions: 1) What was the problem? 2) Why was it a problem? 3) What was the solution? 4) What was the effect? Using textbook, guide students through a "chunk" of text. Discuss with class the four essential questions. Then take structured notes on content, problem, solution, analysis. Scaffold note-taking, then allow independent practice. Create a timeline to accompany each chapter, to show the sequence of events. Identify, record and define key vocabulary in the text. Record the word and its meaning in notes. After completing notes for the entire chapter, review.

This strategy is usually teacher-directed. If it has been selected as a strategy to use at home, you may want to consult the teacher for assistance. The strategy involved structured note-taking related to four questions: 1) What was the problem? 2) Why was it a problem? 3) What was the solution? 4) What was the effect? These questions are helpful when making sense of stories, biographies, and history text in particular. As a parent, you can ask your child these questions as a way to check how well he/she is making sense of what is being read.

References
Kindler & Bursuck (1990); McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Perfetti (1983); Meyer & Freedle (1984); Ravitch & Finn (1987)

C-40 Retelling / Recalling

Story Content Instruction

Present and teach content that will build and activate student knowledge about topics in upcoming text(s). This strategy works well with difficult, hard to access texts, but can lose student engagement with accessible texts. This is a teacher-dependent strategy that works well with dedicated knowledge, the facts in the story. Transfer to independent student usage is limited, due to the very nature of having to learn about a topic prior to reading about it. A key to success with this method is to have a group or class discussion to actively engage students in the topic. The preview selection by the teacher limits student input and so that must be balanced with a method that includes student thinking prior to reading the target text.

Prepare student content instruction topics and materials ahead of time. Write a script that briefly previews the content material of the targeted text. Focus the script on the most important and/or most potentially challenging to the student. Provide students with a copy of the script. Show them to read and also discuss the material. Engaging students actively at this step is critical to the best results from this preview activity. Students will now have a conceptual framework for incorporating, prioritizing, and organizing the new information encountered in the target text(s).

Re-enact stories you have read through puppet plays or skits.

Dole, Brown, & Thissen (1996)

C-41 Retelling / Recalling

Strategic Story Content Preview

This strategy keeps the readers as active participants and engages their procedural and conditional knowledge in the meaning-making process. It encourages students to use their prior knowledge as a filter to interpret what they are reading and to integrate new and old knowledge. This strategy allows students to self-regulate how/when/why to activate prior knowledge when reading independently. Procedural knowledge gives the student a sense of control and independence. Conditional knowledge helps the student to understand why the strategy is helpful and how to use it flexibly. By making predictions as they go along, they continually need to check facts, evaluate whether things make sense, and revise their thinking when necessary.

Prepare sample story maps of known stories: identifying the main idea, central characters, the complication or problem, and the resolution to the problem. Review these details with the students. Ask the students if they can explain the entire story. Teach students to construct a story map as they read a new narrative. Have them make predictions while they read as they try to discern the main idea, central characters, the complication or problem, and the resolution to the problem. Guide their information processing with those key questions. "What's going on?" "Who?" "Problem?" and "How did it turn out?" When they are reading, cue them to stop once a page, or so to keep them making predictions about those key story components. Discuss what they thought the answers were at different stages of the narrative as they read along.

While reading, stop periodically and predict what will happen next. Ask children how their predictions changed and how the story differs from their predictions. There are no "wrong" predictions.

Dole, Brown, & Thissen (1996)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C-42</td>
<td>Retelling/Recalling</td>
<td>Story Impressions</td>
<td>This strategy has broad applications for both narrative and expository texts, and linear or non-linear structures. It is teacher-dependent in that the teacher must select the key phrases from the text beforehand, but since it involves student generation of a conceptual framework and a running text, it is successful in engaging students in constructing knowledge and schema. Students have significantly higher recall with this strategy than with a preview through a written synopsis. Students have more developed schema from evaluating the pieces of information and organizing and developing them into a coherent text.</td>
<td>Select the key phrases that represent the critical information of this text. Keep it simple and short, and list them on one page double or triple spaced for linear text. Distribute them appropriately for non-linear text. Tell students to write a story or explanation of their own, or to complete the diagram, map, chart, or illustration. Students are generating ideas and schema as they complete this task and this is one of the strengths of this method. Next, instruct students to read the visual text. As they do this, have them compare their version of the assigned one. By comparing and contrasting, they are using higher level thinking and they are manipulating the key information and connections. This helps recall, inferential thinking and concept development.</td>
<td>Preview a book by looking at chapter headings and illustrations before you read the story. Make up a story before reading the book and then compare with the actual plot.</td>
<td>Dewitz, Carr, &amp; Patberg (1987); Hwang &amp; Levin (2002); McKenna (1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-43</td>
<td>Literal Comprehension</td>
<td>Collaborative Strategic Rereading</td>
<td>Clarification strategies and those focused on the main idea work well in collaborative mixed small groups and/or whole classrooms. Working together reinforces students’ reflective and critical reading skills, and allows students to construct and think in more complex ways. This strategy enhances vocabulary through reading passages aloud.</td>
<td>Assign students to small groups of mixed ability. Have students record their thoughts as they read; have students use these notes to determine the main idea in a collaborative group. Focus on groups getting the gist of a passage by reviewing their working together to identify the most important ideas in a paragraph or section. Provide generic cues or prompts for students to filter out information such as “What’s up?&quot; &quot;Who?&quot; &quot;What problem?&quot; &quot;How’d it end?&quot; Check out the same book your child is reading for English Class. Discuss the book at mealtime or while driving to weekly appointments. Focus on identification of the most important ideas in the text.</td>
<td>Assign students in pairs of mixed ability. Have them look over the text, and then have the stronger reader read the assigned text aloud first. Then have the struggling reader read the text aloud. Instruct them to work collaboratively to ask and answer questions about the passage. E.g. “What was happening?” “The dog was on the roof because it chased the cat up there.” Next, have students write a summary sentence or two using the answers to questions. Have students assist each other whether they write the summary separately or together. Review the answers, and the students can revise their work together. Use this strategy a paragraph at a time, and build up to longer passages as students are able.</td>
<td>Ares &amp; Peery (2003); Hacker &amp; Tenent (2002); Kos (1991); Kucan &amp; Beck (2003); Penno, Wilkinson, &amp; Moore (2002); Rex (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-44</td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>Collaborative Summaries</td>
<td>With this strategy, pair a strong reader with a struggling reader. Have the pair review the text together, with the stronger reader modeling reading first for the other student, and then the struggling student rereads the text with support. Together, they determine the important content as they summarize and/or respond to questions. Working together reinforces students’ reflective and critical reading skills, and allows students to construct and think in more complex ways.</td>
<td>Assign students in pairs of mixed ability. Have them look over the text, and then have the stronger reader read the assigned text aloud first. Then have the struggling reader read the text aloud. Instruct them to work collaboratively to ask and answer questions about the passage. E.g. “What was happening?” “The dog was on the roof because it chased the cat up there.” Next, have students write a summary sentence or two using the answers to questions. Have students assist each other whether they write the summary separately or together. Review the answers, and the students can revise their work together. Use this strategy a paragraph at a time, and build up to longer passages as students are able.</td>
<td>Parent and child ask after a television show or movie, “What was that about?”</td>
<td>Ares &amp; Peery (2003); Hacker &amp; Tenent (2002); Kos (1991); Kucan &amp; Beck (2003); Mastropieri, et al. (2003); Rex (2001)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C-45</td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>Collaborative Paragraph Shrinking</td>
<td>This strategy pairs readers of different ability, high to middle, low to middle. This can be used in a reading class or content area class, as the key concepts need to be identified. The students develop comprehension by “shrinking paragraphs” or by stating the key concepts in ten words or less. Working together reinforces students’ reflective and critical reading skills, and allows students to contract and think in more complex ways. This strategy is a Peer Assisted Learning Strategy and is adapted from Wide Peer Tutoring Both of which are found to be very effective with learning disabled students.</td>
<td>Assign students to mixed ability pairs: high to middle, low to middle. Explain “paragraph shrinking” as summing up the key concepts of each paragraph in ten words or less. Model how to “shrink” one easy paragraph and one challenging paragraph. Have each student read aloud for 5 minutes with the stronger reader modeling reading the paragraph first. Then have the other student reread the same paragraph. Have the students continue “shrinking” for the whole passage.</td>
<td>Tell the whole story of a movie or show in 10 words or less.</td>
<td>Ares &amp; Peery (2003); Fuchs, Fuchs, &amp; Kazdin (1999); Fuchs, et al. (2001); Hacker &amp; Tenent (2002); Kos (1991); Kucan &amp; Beck (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-46</td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>Direct Instruction of Written Summary Skills</td>
<td>Used with high school students, results showed that students wrote better summaries and this effect generalized to other summarizing activities. Teaching summary skill reinforces retention of main ideas but has been shown to have no effect on retention of details. Explicitly stated main ideas were identified by students but implicitly stated main ideas were hard to discern. Students need direct instruction in how to sort through information to determine which idea is more of an umbrella to the other ideas, and also how to put the pieces together to come up with a larger idea that is not directly stated.</td>
<td>Give students a copy of the rule sheet and samples of good summaries. Teacher models how to use the rules. Start with simple passages and move to more difficult ones. Provide students with feedback on their use of the strategies. Four rules for writing a summary: 1) Collapse (i.e., 2) Use topic sentences, 3) Get rid of unnecessary detail. 4) Collapse paragraphs. This is an in-class activity. Parents could let a child create lists for: groceries, chores, places to go, party activities, gifts for a friend.</td>
<td>This strategy pairs readers of different ability, high to middle, low to middle. Explain “paragraph shrinking” as summing up the key concepts of each paragraph in ten words or less. Model how to “shrink” one easy paragraph and one challenging paragraph. Have each student read aloud for 5 minutes with the stronger reader modeling reading the paragraph first. Then have the other student reread the same paragraph. Have the students continue “shrinking” for the whole passage.</td>
<td>Here &amp; Bohanardt (1984); Rinhauf, Stern, &amp; Brickson (1986)</td>
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<td>C-47</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Directed Reading Thinking Activity (DRTA)</td>
<td>DRTA stands for Directed Reading Thinking Activity. Students were taught to use the predict and verify strategy for reading and responding to stories and to improve comprehension monitoring. Van den Broek’s (2001) research shows that inferential thinking is developmental and care should be exercised with young readers to practice rather than perform.</td>
<td>Make initial prediction from title and pictures. Read 1/3 to 1/2 of the text and evaluate predictions (true/false/party true/false/ party false/not mentioned at all). Make additional predictions and repeat the cycle as needed. Model the thinking behind verifying whether a prediction was supported by evidence from the text. Include what led you to the prediction and then how you evaluated it. Your prediction was true, partially true, or not at all. Practice thinking through these steps with students. Have students work in groups and share their thinking to make group decisions while verifying.</td>
<td>Reading an advertisement, look at the picture or slogan, guess what it’s about, then check.</td>
<td>Baumann, Sefert-Kessell, &amp; Jones (1992); Rader &amp; Bozsky (2002); van den Broek, et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-48</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>CLOZE</td>
<td>This study was conducted with upper elementary students of all ability levels. Although CLOZE itself is not used to make inferences, it encourages students to manipulate the key information and connections. This helps recall, inferential thinking and concept development.</td>
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<td>This strategy pairs readers of different ability, high to middle, low to middle. Explain “paragraph shrinking” as summing up the key concepts of each paragraph in ten words or less. Model how to “shrink” one easy paragraph and one challenging paragraph. Have each student read aloud for 5 minutes with the stronger reader modeling reading the paragraph first. Then have the other student reread the same paragraph. Have the students continue “shrinking” for the whole passage.</td>
<td>Ares &amp; Peery (2003); Fuchs, Fuchs, &amp; Kazdin (1999); Fuchs, et al. (2001); Hacker &amp; Tenent (2002); Kos (1991); Kucan &amp; Beck (2003)</td>
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Legend:
- #: Reference number.
- Skill Area: Type of comprehension skill being taught.
- Strategy: Name of the strategy being taught.
- Elaboration/Clarification: Explanation of the strategy.
- Teaching Tips: Tips for implementing the strategy in the classroom.
- Tips and Ideas for Parents: Ideas for parents to use at home.
- References: Sources for the strategy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Elaboration/Clarification</th>
<th>Teaching Tips</th>
<th>Tips and Ideas for Parents</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C-49</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Structured Pre-writing / Post-writing</td>
<td>This study was conducted with high school social studies students but can be applied easily at all levels. Using this strategy over a 3-day period, not only helped students with inferential reasoning, but improved the quality of their ideas and their writing. Typically, readers draw inferences from both valid and faulty premises. It may be that deliberate reasoning skills occur separately from comprehension of text. Care should be taken in guiding students to examine the conditions and associations set up in the text and testing their inferences with strong textual evidence.</td>
<td>Before reading about a specific topic, the teacher has the class brainstorm what they already know about the topic. Then, students write about what they already know as a result of the brainstorm. After reading about the topic, students write again, but this time, they incorporate their new knowledge acquired during the reading of the text. Have students provide evidence for all of their conclusions, predictions, guesses, and/or inferences. Discuss with the class what kind of evidence strongly supports an inference and what evidence may mislead or misguide. Model reasoning Have students categorize their inferential writing into &quot;strongly supported&quot; and &quot;weak connections.&quot;</td>
<td>Before visiting a new place for vacation, find out about where you are going and things to do. After the vacation, talk about whether it was what you expected it would be.</td>
<td>Kopp, Martin, &amp; Martin (1987); Rader &amp; Stout (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-50</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Guided Practice with Inferential Questions</td>
<td>This strategy extends over several days of time, culminating in inferential questioning. The study was conducted with early elementary students as part of their regular reading instruction. It led to improved comprehension. The development of the cognitive processing needed for inferential connections is age related and research suggests that strong prompts should be used with younger children failing to moderate prompting in secondary. Questioning strengthens recall, but attention should be paid to what topic and/or information is targeted by the questions. Teacher and student text priorities often differ.</td>
<td>To explain to the students that they will learn some new words and then discuss some ideas that they will encounter later in the text. &quot;What does it really mean?&quot;</td>
<td>While reading or viewing materials, ask what the message of the author might be. &quot;What does it really mean?&quot;</td>
<td>Cox &amp; Matz (1982); Harnen (1981); Reynolds &amp; Anderson (1982); Watson (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-51</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Visualization / Imagery</td>
<td>In this technique, the teacher provides explicit instruction in visualization/imagery and provides feedback as they draw inferences from their mental pictures. Readers form mental images of things stated in the affirmative and/or constructed in the text, but rarely visualize that stated in the negative or that which has been destroyed. Guiding students to form representations of the things &quot;not there&quot; or the things &quot;lost&quot; assists them in remembering these details.</td>
<td>Explicit instruction is provided to help students make mental images of each text passage. Students make verbal and visual representations of the mental images. The teacher provides corrective feedback as it relates to inferential reasoning.</td>
<td>Ask your child what something looks like. Practice making mental pictures about things heard or read.</td>
<td>Guthrie, et al. (1996); Kaup &amp; Zwaan (2003); Rummel, Levin, &amp; Woodward (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-52</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Use of Multiple Texts</td>
<td>Good readers connect and relate ideas to their previous reading experiences. Using this reading environment allows students to make their own connections between ideas. Students often take on text as authoritative without questioning its reliability or foundation. Students who read two texts are less likely to accept a perspective carte blanche and research shows that they will learn and retain more content knowledge.</td>
<td>Teacher must decide on these four decision-making questions for reading across texts: 1) What types of materials can be used? 2) What types of materials are most effective? (linguistic to nonlinguistic). 3) What types of arrangements are most effective? (systematic, complementary, synoptic, disruptive, reordering). 4) Is it possible to engage in both reading strategies? (close-ended to open-ended). How can outcomes be represented? (one medium to several media).</td>
<td>Visit the library and check out a selection of books on a topic of interest to your child. Include picture book, different authors, and variety of points of view, styles, etc.</td>
<td>Buell, Alexander, &amp; Sipert (2001); Hartman &amp; Harman (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-53</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Dialogue Journal</td>
<td>The advantages of dialogue journals include evaluative processing, multiple viewpoints of social issues and normative expectations. Interpersonal dialogue between the student and a parent, grandparent, or other adult can spark rich social commentary with both parties having authority to speak. Many events are seen through different eyes and good discussions can occur in the safety of the journal's parameters. Conversations occur slowly, over time, at one's own pace, with respect.</td>
<td>Assign student pairs, when possible, between separate classes or different grades. Set up a weekly schedule to read a chapter of the assigned text, and then write in the dialogue journal for that week. Write to a prompt or just reflect on the chapter, possibly to a battery of guiding questions provided at the outset. Exchange journals with a partner each week. Respond to partner's journal, and then write the new chapter entry. Repeat weekly until the end of the novel. Discuss in small groups or as a whole class after several chapters to foster a larger dialogue with multiple perspectives. Possible exchange partners can be with HS &amp; college class, RH and parent volunteers, elementary and senior citizens, peer tutors and other/junger buddies within a school or can also work well.</td>
<td>Have a journal handy on a trip or at home in which you write back and forth with observations.</td>
<td>Bean &amp; Rignoni (2001); Guccione, et al. (1996); Keller, Kaup &amp; Claus (2004); Kos (1991); Kucan &amp; Beck (2003); Mackey (2003); Rex (2001); Rosenhouse, Feitelson, Kilis, &amp; Goldstein (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-54</td>
<td>Inferential Comprehension</td>
<td>Expository Inferencing</td>
<td>Paraphrasing and interpreting information from the text are prerequisite skills for inferencing. Research suggests that all inferencing tasks require the same underlying attributes of paraphrasing and integration of knowledge. Older children were found to be more proficient than younger children, but the question remains how much can skill practice accelerate this cognitive growth. Inviting students to express ideas in their own words and to think about how things might have been different can provide the opportunity for skill development.</td>
<td>Pre-read an expository text and prepare a list of questions not explicitly answered within the text. Read the text to the class and pause after information to guide their skills of integrating knowledge. Cue the students to paraphrase with something like: &quot;I'm going to ask you some questions, and because I know that you are very clever, I want you to answer these questions without repeating the exact words of the text. Can you do that?&quot; Proceed to ask questions like: &quot;What do you think the important idea in this sentence is?&quot; &quot;What do you think the main idea of this paragraph is?&quot; &quot;What would have happened if Columbus had landed in Greenland?&quot; &quot;What would have been the result of Pasteur working with potato mold instead of bread mold?&quot; Practice this type of questioning after key pieces of information have been presented in the text.</td>
<td>Practice &quot;What if&quot; questions. (e.g., &quot;What if you lived in another time than now?&quot;)</td>
<td>Dewey &amp; Macready (1985)</td>
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<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>Skill Area</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Elaboration/Clarification</td>
<td>Teaching Tips</td>
<td>Tips and Ideas for Parents</td>
<td>References</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-56</td>
<td>Inferential</td>
<td>Generating</td>
<td>Use this strategy with expository passages that are not explicit in their main ideas or with confusing narrative structures, such as from multiple viewpoints or stream of consciousness. By teaching students how to generate their own questions prior to reading as well as during and after, students perform better in both inferential and literal texts. This helps student metacognition, engagement, and higher order thinking. When students begin to question texts and think about the ideas within them, they begin to construct their own knowledge. Questioning strengthens recall, but attention should be paid to what topic and/or information is targeted by the questions. Teacher and student text priorities often differ.</td>
<td>Use this strategy with expository passages that are not explicit in their main ideas, or with confusing narrative structures, such as from multiple viewpoints or stream of consciousness. By teaching students how to generate their own questions prior to reading as well as during and after, students perform better in both inferential and literal texts. This helps student metacognition, engagement, and higher order thinking. When students begin to question texts and think about the ideas within them, they begin to construct their own knowledge.</td>
<td>Make your own questions as you read with your child. What more do you want to know? What does it remind you of?</td>
<td>Chinn, Anderson &amp; Waggoner (2001); Scharer, Lehman &amp; Peters (2001); Stevens (2002); Wade, Buxton, &amp; Kelly (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-56</td>
<td>Predictable</td>
<td>Tests</td>
<td>Using predictable texts where students are not challenged by confusing narrative structures to focus their attention on inferential reasoning. Contextual information is used for word recognition. At a more sophisticated level, using predictable structures of discourse achieves a similar purpose of freeing the readers attention to the task of comprehending and relating it from figuring out how the text is put together.</td>
<td>Select predictable texts when choosing to use another “drawing inferences from the text strategy.” Select books that appear similar in process so students can feel a mastery of reading. Practice with predictable texts to allow students to work using memory on learning content and becoming proficient with a strategy, rather than using that brain power on deciphering text and using inefficient but undemanding strategies.</td>
<td>Ask “what comes next?” when you are doing something you always do...</td>
<td>Buehl, et al. (2001); Lenski (1998); Many, Fyfe, Lewis, &amp; Mitchell (1996); Meyer &amp; Freedle (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-57</td>
<td>Inferential</td>
<td>Reading Aloud to One’s Self</td>
<td>Struggling readers have better comprehension when they have the chance to read aloud and not silently. Reading individually in a quiet voice facilitates comprehension. Readers who read this way are able to do well with interpreting comprehension pertaining to main ideas, cause/effect relations, and use of implied meanings. For literal comprehension, these readers must be cued to pay attention to the details. Perhaps this is easier on a second reading after a general structure of the textual information has been constructed.</td>
<td>Assign struggling readers a name for their very quiet reading aloud voice. Cue them to read difficult text in this quiet voice. Cue them to read first for the main idea and cause-effect relationships. Allow them to read a second time for details. Assign average readers to a silent group. Assign strong readers to either group, aloud and/or silent.</td>
<td>Have your child read to a favorite stuffed animal, the family pet, to a neighbor or relative, even a baby brother.</td>
<td>Chinn, Anderson &amp; Waggoner (2001); Stevens (2002)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C-58</td>
<td>Inferential</td>
<td>Questioning the Author</td>
<td>This develops student comprehension strategies as students and teachers try to work out what the author intended to say. Topic: control can be student directed or teacher directed. This method would be good with a non-linear narrative, dense expository text, or texts with elaborate, connoted, or unforecasted presentation. Challenging vocabulary can be good to include in the questioning.</td>
<td>Select a text that is confusing or unclear for students. Prepare a series of questions to question the text. Interrupted by pauses to ponder aloud...”...what did the author want you to say here?” “I think... I wonder...” He could have said...” Ask students what they think the author was trying to say. Cue them to state things in their own words and not to merely quote the text. Read subsequent passages, allowing students to assume more and more of both the questioning and the supposing. Work in cooperative groups to engage more student thinking, questioning and speaking time.</td>
<td>Practice asking questions together, whether you are in the grocery store, doing laundry, or at the park.</td>
<td>Chinn, Anderson &amp; Waggoner (2001); Stevens (2002)</td>
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<td>C-59</td>
<td>Evaluative</td>
<td>Multiple Texts</td>
<td>Students’ engagement and interest in reading increases when teachers use multiple texts (rather than a solitary text) to teach content area subjects. Studies point to greater recall of the subject when multiple texts are used. Critical thinking and writing skills also improve. By reading multiple texts, students are able to view knowledge as something constructed from a variety of sources and viewpoints. The use of multiple texts is effective in primary grades and should continue on through upper grades.</td>
<td>Incorporate internet searches, newspaper and magazine articles, adopt a historical document as writing model. Give students a problem to solve with a writing task and allow them to research with multiple sources. Assign students a writing task that mirrors that reading i.e. if students are reading descriptive passages, they write a descriptive paper; if they are reading opinions they then write an opinion.</td>
<td>Encourage interests of your child through internet searches, picture books, different authors, points of view, styles, etc.</td>
<td>Stahl, et al. (1996); Walker &amp; Bean (2003)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C-60</td>
<td>Evaluative</td>
<td>Text to Text Connections</td>
<td>When students begin to compare and to question texts, and to think about the ideas within them, they begin to construct their own knowledge. Helping students make connections across the curriculum aids students in constructing meaning and increasing learning. By using more than one text, students internalize more conceptual information and are less persuaded by the “authority” of one text’s presentation of material. A comparison of similar material presented through different types of discourse can help illuminate the features of internal discourse structures. Understanding the structures of discourse allows the focus of attention to stay on the content material.</td>
<td>Questioning across curricular areas: some examples of questions that encourage intertextual links are 1. when reading this text, what other print texts come to mind? 2) what non-print texts come to mind? 3) why did you remember those texts when reading the current text? 4) how is the information from this text like other information you know? 5) how does the theme (or characters, plot, conflict, etc.) in this text similar to others you have read, seen, or heard? 6) what other texts follow a similar text organization to this one? 7) what other texts are similar in the problem, solution, setting?</td>
<td>Talk about how one story is similar or different to another story. Make connections between the same story told in different ways (short story to a comic strip retelling).</td>
<td>Chinn, Anderson &amp; Waggoner (2001); Lenarski (1998); Many, Fye, Lewis, &amp; Mitchell (1996); Meyer &amp; Freedle (1984)</td>
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<td>C-61</td>
<td>Evaluative</td>
<td>Collaborative Reasoning</td>
<td>This activity is suited for 4th graders and older. It engages stubborn readers in a higher thinking task. Ask your child, “Why do you think he did that?” First and then talk about whatever your child says. Ask your child what they would do differently about something you see or hear about. Ask your child, “Why do you think he did that?” and then talk about whatever your child says.</td>
<td>Assign students to collaborative groups. Have each group of students adopt a “critical stance” or a position on an issue ... in the presentation requirements. Allow students to change their minds when confronted with conflicting evidence.</td>
<td>Make your own questions as you read with your child. What more do you want to know? What does it remind you of?</td>
<td>Chinn, Anderson &amp; Waggoner (2001); Scherer, Lehrman &amp; Peters (2001); Stevens (2002); Wade, Buxton, &amp; Kelly (1999)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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- Ares & Peerley (2001)
- Casey & McBride (1986)
- Wixon (1984)
References


Linderholm, T., & van den Broek, P. (2002). The effects of reading purpose and working memory capacity on the processing of expository text. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*, 778-784.


Powell, G. (1980, Dec.). A meta-analysis of the effects of “imposed” and “induced” imagery upon word recall. Paper presented at the National Reading Conference, CA.


Additional Suggested Readings


Wilder, A. A., & Williams, J. P. (2001). Students with severe learning disabilities can learn higher order comprehension skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93*, 268-278.


Appendix A

Special Circumstances

Vision
When a student has a vision problem, there must first be a medical diagnosis as to the extent and type of the problem. When that is in place, the delivery of reading instruction could include: longer time for reading passages, larger print, glasses for the student, Braille instruction, or delivery through books on tape. Computer technology is full of new processes such as having the computer read to the student, magnification of print, and programs that take dictation from the student. Consulting with the Vision Specialist in your district in always the first step. They have a multitude of ideas and strategies.

Teachers should look for students that want or need to sit close to the board, squinting, holding the book closer that the recommended distance, writing letters or numbers backwards and writing with their nose on the paper as conditions that prompt the teacher to call the parent or consult with the school nurse to recommend a vision exam.

Hearing
Hearing-impaired students learn fewer words per year than a hearing child does. Hearing impairment impacts language acquisition, which in turn affects reading. The more language a child brings to the reading process the greater the reading success.

What to look for in a hearing impaired student:
- student exhibits a lack of understanding of directions and they cannot filter out background noise
- student may leave off sounds in words such as: s, f, th,
- student may have frequent ear infections
- student is easily distracted, inattentive and compensate hearing loss using visual clues from what others are doing.

ELL
Students who are not native English speakers can have a variety of difficulties acquiring English based on when the student begins to learn English and whether the student already has a command of their native language aurally and with or without first language literacy. There is a strong transfer of skills from first language phonemics and from first language literacy.

All healthy babies have the capacity to hear phonemes from any language. When children are very young their brains are continually reinforcing their neural mapping of sounds they hear in the environment and associating meaning to groups of sounds. When sounds are not heard in the environment neurological pruning occurs, because there is no meaning attachable to linguistic sounds not present in the first language and therefore no need to recognize or distinguish those
sounds (Genesee, 2000). All sounds present in a first language are readily heard in a second or third language, but if the sound is not present in the first language, increased, focused exposure and practice of new sounds within a meaningful context are necessary for the recognition and production of any new phonemes. English vowel sounds present particular problems because the English language has between 19-21 distinct vowel sounds, whereas other languages commonly have fewer. Spanish has only five, for example. A solid aural base of a minimum of two to three thousand words (ideally 5000 words for first literacy learners) should be established prior to explicit phonics instruction. Concepts of print may be taught simultaneous to building this aural base, but research says that it is counter productive to start formal literacy instruction prior to strong phonemic awareness in the language of instruction (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000, Krashen, 2003).

Older students with a solid foundation in literacy in their first language will not need as large of a vocabulary base prior to instruction through literacy, but again, they still need to develop phonemic awareness for English prior to encountering instructional text. Vocabulary is directly influenced by the amount of prior meaningful oral and written experience by the ELL student. Lack of vocabulary is a major stumbling block for English Language Learners (Birch, 2002). Bilingual readers rely on vocabulary for making meaning while reading far more than their monolingual peers (McLaughlin, et al., 2000). Conversations with others, particularly adults, helps children develop word meaning and syntax. Listening to others read aloud and then participating in discussions provides ELLs with opportunities to explore and expand word knowledge in a rich, contextualized, and social way. It is key to remember that language is social by its very nature and that for those students learning English, providing social interaction within the classroom lessons is critical to success in the skills that support literacy (Ramirez, 2000, Krashen, 2003).

Independent reading has a strong correlation to vocabulary size and acquisition (Adler, 2001, Krashen, 2003). The volume of reading impacts vocabulary development, and the efficiency of gaining new words per total words read increases significantly with reading a series (Krashen, 2003). The advantages of reading a series are the constancy of the authors style and syntax, as well as thematic treatment and general plot structures. Freeing the reader from deciphering new literary structures with each new book allows a reader to focus more deeply on meaning and more flexibly on vocabulary. Fluency, vocabulary and comprehension all benefit from repeated readings within a series. One more concern with English language learners is their understanding of cultural nuances and idiomatic expression. These are things understood automatically by native English speakers, but require explicit explanations for those with home languages and cultures different from the mainstream.

**Dyslexia**

Dyslexia is a condition that is diagnosed by a physician. Dyslexic students have difficulty with decoding words because of weak phonological processing skills. Dyslexia is not simply the reversal of letters and sounds that is a natural part of the process of learning to read. These difficulties are unexpected compared to age, other cognitive abilities, and academic abilities of the student. Dyslexia affects the students ability to read, write and spell to different degrees.
Dyslexic students need more help than most students in putting their ideas, feelings, and information into words.

Dyslexic students also struggle with sorting, recognizing, and sequencing. Individuals with dyslexia need explicit training in developing skills related to rhyming, segmenting, and blending as well as direct teaching of phonics-based word attack strategies. This teaching needs to be presented in a multisensory way that involves the visual, auditory, touch, and movement modalities. Other modifications that may be helpful but should not substitute remediation include: providing small group or individual tutoring, providing extended time in testing situations, administering exams orally, and allowing credit for hands-on activities and projects. These students may have an IEP, 504 plan, or ILP.

Gifted
Gifted and talented (GT) students are identified by Renzulli’s (1996) three-ring model, which includes above average ability, task commitment, and creativity. The purpose of identification is to match students with appropriate services to meet their individual needs. Once identified, GT students’ needs may be met within the regular classroom in two basic ways: enrichment or acceleration. Thresholds vary from school to school for admitting GT students.

Enrichment typically involves activities for expanded depth and breadth of learning. Some examples include independent projects, stations, learning centers and other opportunities that allow for higher level thinking skills to be utilized. Acceleration allows the student to cover the same content in less time or it exposes the student to new content at an earlier stage than peers.

When enrichment and acceleration complement one another, the greatest benefits are realized for the student. Enrichment and acceleration allow GT students not only the opportunity access higher level thinking skills but also to develop their interests thereby maintaining their motivation. Given the wide spectrum of abilities within the regular education classroom, GT students often are the most neglected group of students.

Keep in mind that all Gifted and Talented students are not gifted readers. One area of need for GT students is in expression or prosody skills within the area of fluency. Gifted readers are typically hyperlexic, which means they approach the text from the bottom up. They focus mostly on accuracy at the expense of comprehension.

Comprehension: Hyperlexic readers usually possess advanced comprehension skills, especially:
- anticipation of meaning based on visual clues
- use of prior knowledge and experience
- awareness of cognitive processing of text

Gifted readers tend to rely on six strategies significantly more often than the average reader. They are:
1. rereading
2. inferring
3. analyzing text structure
4. watching or predicting
5. evaluating
6. relating what is read to content area knowledge

Some gifted readers are underachieving due to a lack of motivation. They may experience a sense of frustration that the material either is not challenging enough or that it is too highly pitched, persuasive, or emotional. To motivate GT students, tasks and instruction should allow for intuitive expression, analogies, discrepancies, tolerance for ambiguity, creative thinking and visualization.

Some metacognitive training may be needed in order to help GT students access high-level texts. Instruction should be aimed at the top levels of thinking in Bloom’s Taxonomy. For example, a group book talk might emphasize questions at the synthesis and analysis level rather than knowledge and application.

Good literature is a must for the gifted reader as they access their metacognitive skills. Since they might not choose such literature on their own, it is the teacher or adult who must offer guidance and direction in the selection of quality text.

**Non-Engaged**

Students who lack motivation to succeed in school need to experience success in school in order to re-capture the motivation that they are lacking. Often the reason for being non-engaged is that they lack the skills in reading to succeed. Looking at the interests of the student could be a springboard for instruction. Using items from popular culture such as music, books on skateboarding, magazines, movies, TV shows, Internet, video games, audio recordings, comic books or cartoons, as a means for instruction could be the key to achievement. Movies can be summarized; main ideas can be found in cartoons and comic books. Finding vocabulary in music, looking up the meanings on the Internet are all things that might be the needed means. Once students find something that they want to read, they will accomplish other tasks.

**Older students**

Older students who struggle with reading typically develop compensatory and avoidance strategies to hide their reading needs. Older students who are struggling with reading often act out in class, give excuses for not doing their work or drop out of school. Often they respond to one-on-one instruction in phonics or phonemic awareness so they can decode words. Multi-syllabic word instruction is another method to use with these students. Some students may require intense, specialized intervention (Salinger, 2003). Vocabulary development is so important to these students and there should be links to their content area studies. Students must also learn idioms, phrases and colloquial expressions in addition to learning single words (Salinger, 2003). Students that struggling in reading also need direct instruction in using the strategies that will help them read harder textbooks.
Speech/Language

Language is a consistent, rule-regulated, coded system with which one can convey and exchange thoughts, ideas, and feelings regarding people, situations, and events in the world. Students with speech/language difficulties may require specific interventions that fall under two categories: articulation or delayed development of, or use of, language. Articulation refers to phonology, or the study and description of the sounds of language. Articulation is the child’s ability to 1) discriminate between the different sounds in a language, and 2) produce those sounds accurately.

Speech sounds develop over time. Research has suggested that in 75% of children, consonant sounds are acquired over a three to four year span. Certain sounds, like the “s” and “r” families, may not develop until age 7 years 6 months.

Delays in articulation can impact communication and learning. Delays become evident when the children: demonstrate poor phonemic awareness skills, have difficulty being understood by peers and adults, fail to communicate because of poor intelligibility, or are unable to be understood by the listener when speaking. Errors in written language may occur when children write with the same errors they produce in their speech.

Language has a significant impact on learning. Students with language disorders have difficulty handling the narrative tasks of the classroom environment. Strong narrative skills underlie success in the academic skills of reading comprehension, summarizing, written narratives, and oral presentation.

The relationship between vocabulary knowledge and academic achievement is well established. Research indicates a significant gap between high and low achievers. Low achievers lag behind in their knowledge and use of vocabulary by approximately 4,500 to 5,400 words (Nagy & Herman, 1984). These students may appear to have all of the answers verbally and participate in class, but have great difficulty with written assignments.

If you have students who write and spell with the same errors that are evident in their oral communication, or demonstrate a delay in vocabulary or chronic difficulties with new vocabulary, seek the advice of your speech pathologist.
Appendix B

Helping Children with Reading

PHONEMIC AWARENESS

Phonemic awareness is the ability to hear, produce, and manipulate the sounds of language. When children are able to segment words (break them apart sound by sound) and put them back together (blending) by hearing and saying them, they will become more successful readers. Providing opportunities to learn, practice and refine phonemic awareness skills are critical to a child’s reading progression.

The following are phonemic awareness activities that will help strengthen this foundational part of reading for your child.

- Help your child recognize large chunks of language as in compound words. Say a compound word out loud to your child and ask that he/she tell you the two words that make up that compound word. Example: sunflower = sun/flower, butterfly = but/ter/fly
- Starting with simple 2 and 3 syllable words, model out loud how you would break a word apart by syllable. Take turns breaking words apart into syllables. Examples: pro-tect, en-ter, in-ter-est If needed have them clap out the number of syllables in words and names.
- Play rhyming games with your child. In the car say a word and ask your child to supply a word that would rhyme. (cat, sat, bat, hat, slat, flat or back, tack, stack) Have fun chanting a string of words that rhyme.
- Say a word to your child and have them break the word apart (segment) into individual sounds Example: you say “black” and your child says, /b/ /l/ /a/ /ck/ or /bl/ /ack/
- Ask your child to blend sounds together when you break them apart. Examples: /g/ /e/ /t/ = get /f/ /r/ /o/ /g/ = frog
- To strengthen your child’s auditory sequencing have your child repeat a string of unrelated words Examples: cat, snow
  bread, tire, house, parachute
  television, pencil, car, watermelon, school

The goal is to help your child hold more words in auditory memory so that when they segment words while reading they will be able to hold the “chunks” of the words long enough in auditory memory to blend the “chunks” back together into the word.
Helping Children with Reading

PHONICS

Phonics is the component of reading in which children connect sounds to symbols and put sounds together into syllables and words. Students need repetitive and consistent practice with phonics to achieve success. Try the following activities if your child is struggling in the component of phonics.

**ABC ACTIVITIES**
- Put together alphabet puzzles together. Discuss the letters and the associated sounds.
- Read a variety of alphabet books to your child.
- Make an A-Z book with your child by cutting pictures out of magazines that start with different letters of the alphabet.
- Play "I Spy" with your child while driving in the car. "I spy something that begins with "d."
  Take turns guessing.
- Purchase magnetic alphabet letters to use on your refrigerator. Work with your child on letter recognition and sound knowledge. Begin putting the letters together to make simple words.

**WORD GAMES**
- Write words on index cards and have your child match the word up with the corresponding picture.
- Say an initial sound and have your child match the sound to a picture that starts with that initial sound. Example: Say /b/ and have your child find matching picture for that initial letter sound.
- Say a word and have your child match a spoken word with the written word.
- Make word card sets (2 cards of each word). Have your child find the words that match.
- Play bingo and memory games that emphasize letter recognition (uppercase as well as lowercase) letter sounds, words, etc.
- Cut apart words: Kids enjoy having letter cards to move and manipulate. As you have your child rhyme words, write them on note cards. Cut the words apart by compound words, syllables, sounds, or prefix/suffix and see if they can put them back together.

**WRITING**
- Have your child write everyday. Writing and reading help each other. To improve in reading your child needs to write and to be a better writer your child needs to read. When a child writes he/she sounds out the words during the writing process resulting in improved phonic skills.
- Have your child:
  - draw pictures and then write a few sentences about the picture
  - write letters to relatives and friends
  - make lists and notes
  - draw maps and label the items on the map
  - keep a travel journal while on family vacations
HELPING CHILDREN WITH READING

FLUENCY

Fluency is the ability to read a text accurately, quickly, and with expression. A fluent reader has few if any decoding issues and can recognize words quickly, allowing attention to be placed on the comprehension of the text. When working on different components of fluency, you will want to be sure and choose books that are in the child's independent reading level (fairly easy for the child). If the book is too difficult, you will be unable to focus on fluency because the child's attention will need to be more on decoding the text. Readers who are fluent are able to focus their attention on meaning rather than on decoding.

ACCURACY

- Help your child develop rapid word recognition that is effortless. Put commonly used words such as color words, number words, object names, on index cards and rapidly flash them to your child.
- Older children can work on subject specific vocabulary words such as: dates and places in history, scientific and mathematical formulas, etc.
- Pattern books! There are many wonderful pattern books with a lot of repetition that tell stories, contain song lyrics or poetry, or contain repeated text that are highly motivating to read over and over again. Have your child read those types of books over and over again to achieve a smooth sound to their reading.

SPEED

- Repeated readings of familiar and favorite texts aid in the development of fluency. Have your child reread short books or passages 3-5 times. Time your child during the first reading and last reading and celebrate growth. (Note: Do not emphasize speed without accuracy.)
- Have your child practice reading a book to a younger sibling with the purpose of rereading.
- Read along with your child to help them with pacing of their reading.

EXPRESSION and PROSODY

- Model fluent reading from a variety of sources: books, magazines, poetry, newspapers and advertisements. Students benefit from hearing the phrasing and rhythm from different types of text. Children often want their parents to reread the same books over and over again because they love the sound and predictability of language.
- With your child read books with a lot of dialogue. Take turns being different characters, changing your voice appropriately for each character.
- Tape record your child reading and play it back for them. After practicing a selection several times, play it back to them showing them their improvement. This is very motivating.
- Read together every day with a focus on expression and rhythm. Texts that work especially well include rhyming, predictable print books, poems and song lyrics. Well-written mystery stories use language to manipulate the reader's pacing as a method for building suspense.
- Repetition, repetition, repetition! When working on fluency, students should practice with books that are fairly easy for them to read accurately. For younger readers, following along with song lyrics or taped stories can help students become more fluent. Students may need to reread stories several times before they can read them accurately with speed and expression.
HELPING CHILDREN WITH READING

VOCABULARY

Vocabulary refers to the words we must know to communicate effectively. In general, vocabulary can be described as oral vocabulary or reading vocabulary. Oral vocabulary refers to words that we use in speaking or recognize in listening. Reading vocabulary refers to words we recognize or use in print. (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001)

These activities can help your child increase vocabulary skills.

APPLICATION

• Engage your child in daily conversation using a rich challenging vocabulary. Define and talk about new words that are introduced. Give examples of how to use new words in multiple contexts.
• Model and teach your child to use context (surrounding words, sentence structure, pictures) to figure out word meanings.

WORD KNOWLEDGE

• Provide an environment with vocabulary resources for your child to utilize such as: dictionaries, thesauruses, and word origin books.
• Subscribe to a free dictionary website such as www.dictionary.com. They will email you a "word of the day." Discuss the word of the day with your child and how to incorporate that word into daily conversations with others. Challenge your child to use that word throughout their day. At the end of the week add that week's words to your own "word of the day" dictionary.
• Discuss affixes (prefixes & suffixes) when reading with your child. Encourage them to extend past the given word and give examples of other words with those affixes and root bases. "What other words do you know that start with inter?" "Can you name any other words that contain sub?"

BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

• Continue to read aloud to your child, even when they are proficient in reading. Choose a book above your child's reading level that contains a rich vocabulary.
• Discuss words they already know and put new words into multiple contexts for vocabulary extensions.
• Read from a variety of text such as fiction, poetry, plays, science fiction, and non-fiction including directions, newspapers, websites, etc.
• Expose your child to experiences they will be expected to understand when they read. Examples: zoos, museums, nature walks, exhibits, fairs.
HELPING CHILDREN WITH READING

COMPREHENSION

Webster defines comprehension as "to look at carefully so as to understand the meaning of something written or printed: to read a book." If readers just simply read words, without understanding what they are reading, they are not reading. The reason for reading is comprehension – making meaning from print. Good readers are purposeful and active in their reading and monitor their comprehension. Comprehension is the integration of all 5 components.

The following are suggestions for how you can assist your child in comprehending what they read.

BEFORE READING
• Help your child activate background knowledge. Ask questions such as: "What do you know about the rainforest?" "Have you ever seen that animal before?"
• Set a purpose for reading: Ask your child, "Why would someone want to read this book?" "What will you learn about?" or “What will be enjoyable about reading this book?"
• Make predictions about the text and what might be read. “When do you think this story is taking place? Past or Present?”
• Take a picture walk through the book and let your child become acquainted with the text structure (illustrations, table of contents, chapter headings, captions, graphs, maps, indexes, glossaries, etc.).
• Discuss vocabulary words that your child may not know. If possible, personalize the definitions to your child’s life to provide a stronger link of understanding. Give several definitions to build a broad knowledge base for those words. “Remember when Grandma visited? You saw her prosthetic teeth.”

DURING READING
• Pause periodically while reading and ask your child the five "W" questions: Who, When, Where, What, Why.
• Ask questions which require your child to go beyond the obvious or literal information. "How do you think that character felt?" "How could you use the information you just read?"
• Model aloud to your child the skill of thinking and self-monitoring while reading, also known as metacognition. Example: "I never thought about that." "Wait, that didn't make sense." Model going back and rereading when meaning is lost.
• Help your child make connections between what he is reading and what he already knows.

AFTER READING
• Ask your child to retell what was just read. Look for details, events, and main ideas to be a part of the retell. Listen for beginning, middle, and end and a sense of story in fiction. Listen for facts, insights, and conclusions.
• Have your child summarize what she has just read.
• Ask both literal and inferential questions. Have her show you where her answer is supported in the text.
Appendix C

HELPING SECONDARY STUDENTS WITH READING

Many thanks to the teachers from the Colorado Secondary Literacy Network for several of the ideas described in this section (September 2004).

Why focus on Reading with Secondary Students?
Results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (Reading Today, 1999) show that:
- “Fourth, eighth and twelfth graders who reported reading the most pages daily—11 or more—for school and homework had the highest average NAEP scores. In other words, students who read more, have higher achievement.
- At all grade levels, students who reported talking about their reading activities with family or friends once or twice a week, or at least monthly had higher average reading scores than students who reported doing so rarely or never.
- Student who reported watching three or fewer hours of television each day had higher average reading scores than student who reported watching more television.

Tips for Motivation

1. Encourage your student to read. One way to encourage more reading is to buy your child a magazine subscription of their choice
2. Discuss newspaper articles that both parents and children read. The sports section is reading, too!
3. Tie some privileges to the reluctant reading, i.e.: read ½ hour daily= extra car time, later curfew, etc.
4. Model your own reading habits.
5. Encourage the fact that reading may include comics and graphic novels.
6. As you model reading, model also the value of information and pleasure you receive from reading.
7. Ask your children what they did during the day. Ask specific questions, “How was Algebra?” or “What did you write in English?” Help your child organize her thoughts orally. Then the chances of transfer to reading and writing are more likely to occur.
8. Read to them! Even it is the same book over and over. Even 11th graders love to be read to. Include children’s books
10. Start a mother/daughter book club with some of her friends.

11. Have your student read to his/her younger siblings.

12. Join Pikes Peak Library summer teen read programs.

13. Make sure he has a good lamp to read by his bed.

14. Let them read the comics, Mad magazine, and Snowboarding— whatever their interest is in.

15. Keep books in key locations—car, bathroom, kitchen, den near the TV and computer.

16. Make sure your teen has transportation to the library and bookstores.

17. Turn off television one evening per week and spend the time reading.

18. Enter a magazine-sponsored essay contest.

19. Read a magazine advice column. Discuss with friends and then write your own advice column.

20. Collect a clipping file on your favorite entertainer.

21. If you feel a book or other item is inappropriate, take the opportunity to discuss it. Express your concerns in a non-judgmental way and remember that what is forbidden may become more attractive.

22. Remember that reading is not the same thing as doing. Many young people seek factual information from libraries. A factual book, unlike hearsay from friends, can ease their fears or even keep them safe for harm.

Tips for Comprehension

1. Do activities with your adolescent that help to build their background knowledge. Look for ways to tie literacy to these events.

2. Use the driver’s manual to teach technical reading.

3. Find out what books your students will be reading in English during that year. Get them on tape from the library, rent them from Cracker Barrel, or purchase them from a bookstore. When you are on a car trip, listen to the book with your student and discuss it with them. Later on when they have to write a paper about the book, you will be able to have a working knowledge of the book and can offer suggestions.

4. When your child is reading a book for English Class, check out the book and read it too. Discuss the book on the way to school, at breakfast, dinner or after school.

5. After reading a book, watch the movie as a family and compare and contrast the movie and the book.

6. Watch different version (Romeo and Juliet) of the movie and discuss the differences. Choose which you liked better.
**Tips for Vocabulary**

1. Have your student work analogies and crossword puzzles.
2. Play board games such as Scrabble and Trivial Pursuit.
3. Have a word-a-day calendar visible and discuss the word.
4. Ask them to look a word up in the dictionary that they think you don’t know. Try to guess the meaning. It is OK if you don’t know the meaning, your teen would love to be smarter. Then it is your turn to stump them.
5. Try to find words on menus that are from another language and figure out together what the word means—even if you have to order something that you don’t know what it is.

**Tips for Fluency**

1. Have them read to a younger sibling.
2. Have them take books with them to read when they are babysitting.
3. Ask them to read you an article from the newspaper when you are preparing dinner.
4. Ask them to tape a book for a grandparent, sick aunt or someone at a nursing home.
5. Sing in the car. This puts strings of words together fluently.
6. Encourage your teen to volunteer somewhere. They may have to read to someone or might just feel better about themselves when they are done.

**Sources:**


