Teaching Reading in the 21st Century

Seventh Edition

Motivating All Learners

Peter Dewitz • Michael F. Graves • Bonnie B. Graves

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century

Motivating All Learners

Seventh Edition

Peter Dewitz
Educational Consultant and Researcher

Michael F. Graves
University of Minnesota

Bonnie B. Graves
Children's Author

Pearson

Content Development: Linda Bishop
Content Production: Shruti Joshi
Product Management: Brooke Nethers
Product Marketing: Krista Clark
Rights and Permissions: Ritika Akhil

Please contact www.AskPearsonSupport.com with any queries on this content.

Pearson puts care into the creation of our products. Our learning materials undergo content reviews to minimize bias and ensure the content is inclusive, accurate, and relevant. Please use this link to report instances of bias and inaccuracies: https://www.pearson.com/report-bias.html

You can learn more about Pearson's commitment to accessibility at https://www.pearson.com/us/accessibility.html

Cover Image by: © JGI/Jamie Grill/Tetra images/Getty Images

Copyright © 2027, 2020, 2016 by Pearson Education, Inc. or its affiliates, 221 River Street, Hoboken, NJ 07030. All Rights Reserved. Manufactured in the United States of America. This publication is protected by copyright, and permission should be obtained from the publisher prior to any prohibited reproduction, storage in a retrieval system, or transmission in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise. For information regarding permissions, request forms, and the appropriate contacts within the Pearson Education Global Rights and Permissions department, please visit https://www.pearson.com/global-permission-granting.html.

Acknowledgments of third-party content appear on the appropriate page within the text.

PEARSON, Revel, MyLab, and Pearson+ are exclusive trademarks owned by Pearson Education, Inc. or its affiliates in the U.S. and/or other countries.

Unless otherwise indicated herein, any third-party trademarks, logos, or icons that may appear in this work are the property of their respective owners, and any references to third-party trademarks, logos, icons, or other trade dress are for demonstrative or descriptive purposes only. Such references are not intended to imply any sponsorship, endorsement, authorization, or promotion of Pearson's products by the owners of such marks, or any relationship between the owner and Pearson Education, Inc., or its affiliates, authors, licensees, or distributors.

Library of Congress Control Number: 2026948257

$PrintCode

Pearson

ISBN 10: 0-13-545645-2
ISBN 13: 978-0-13-545645-3

Dedication

This text is dedicated to my wife, Pam Dewitz, who provided continual support and encouragement and dealt with undeserved neglect as this new edition was being written.

We continue to dedicate this text to Michael Graves' sister, Susan Jones, who in her 35 years of teaching led well over a thousand second-graders toward the high level of literacy they needed to succeed in the 21st century.

Preface

Welcome to the seventh edition of *Teaching Reading in the 21st Century*. In this edition, we reaffirm the values that set our text apart. We believe motivation underlies everything we do in school. Technology and efficiency can take us only so far in fostering a new generation of students who read avidly for enjoyment, knowledge, and enlightenment. Motivation leads children to read widely and deeply, and with that, their fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension grow. Every chapter of this book focuses on developing students who *will* read and, therefore, *can* read. We believe this is especially vital in the digital age that dominates our lives.

When the sixth edition of this book was published in 2020, we were assessing the impact of the Common Core State Standards on curriculum, instruction, and assessment. These new standards pressed schools and educational publishers to create rigorous reading curricula that built knowledge and required an equal focus on fiction and nonfiction. Educators were urged to raise the rigor of the texts that children read. Instructionally, the Common Core advocated close reading, a style in which short texts were read deeply to uncover meaning and students wrote about the ideas in the texts. Assessments followed suit: students took complex tests at the end of the year and were rigorously screened and monitored throughout the year, making teaching and learning more precise and efficient.

As educators were digesting the impact of the Common Core State Standards, a new movement, the Science of Reading, began to significantly influence reading instruction. The Science of Reading is not a method of teaching reading but a phrase that represents 50 years of reading research that form the foundation, walls, roof, and interior of our textbook. For some, the Science of Reading is about teaching children to recognize words; it is about phonics instruction. For us, the Science of Reading is about phonics as well as the development of fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, and motivation. For us, the Science of Reading is about fitting all this instruction into classrooms when your school district allocates 90 minutes a day for reading instruction and when students have different needs.

While these educational trends shape what and how we teach, the digital world is playing an increasingly prominent role in our classrooms and homes, as our lives move from paper to screens. In the previous edition, we presented new research on teaching students to read, write, revise, and take tests online. The Internet makes new demands on our students. They must know how to search for information, evaluate its truthfulness, and synthesize what they read. Not an easy task for an adult, let alone an elementary or middle school student. In this edition of the book, we consider how artificial intelligence (AI) will affect your life as well as that of your students. We want to help teachers and their students use these new technologies effectively and carefully.

NEW TO THIS EDITION

This new edition of *Teaching Reading in the 21st Century* is a significant update of the previous edition. We listened to the reviewers, considered how the research was evolving, and anticipated the needs of classroom teachers who are new to the profession. Since our text was already well aligned with the Science of Reading, we wanted to incorporate recent research findings into our discussion and highlight instructional routines that are supported by research. Each of our chapters has been updated to consider new ideas, and a few stand out.

- **Crisis and reform.** We live in an era where politicians, policy experts, and journalists see literacy in crisis. In the first chapter, we carefully review how well children read and declare that literacy is not in crisis. At the same time, we identify some pressing problems, and the balance of the book provides solutions. Some children have trouble with basic word recognition, and many need help with comprehension. The solutions include better phonics instruction, curricula that build knowledge, teaching a select set of strategies well, and comprehensive vocabulary development programs. Educators, parents, and legislators need to consider that literacy problems require changes in the classroom and in how children spend their time outside of school.
- **Explicit instruction and implicit learning.** The Science of Reading has stressed the importance of explicit instruction in word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Yet reading is also a self-teaching process. Through wide reading, students learn phonics patterns, build fluency and vocabulary, and develop the knowledge that enables comprehension. Throughout the book, we emphasize why students should read widely, share techniques for increasing reading volume in your classroom, and provide many lists of children's books to entice your students.
- **Building knowledge and reading comprehension.** Many educators and policy experts argue that building knowledge is the key to reading comprehension. Knowledge enables comprehension, but it is only part of the equation. In our text, we share how to create a curriculum that builds knowledge. Second, we share instructional techniques that help students apply what they know throughout the reading process. Finally, we strike a proper balance among all elements that support comprehension—vocabulary, background knowledge, inferential thinking, comprehension strategies, and discussion.
- **Digital text, the Internet, and AI.** Reading informational text continued to move from the pages of trade and reference books to the Internet. Throughout the book, we have provided information and research on how to help elementary and middle school students learn to use Internet resources effectively and critically. We have provided strategies for finding trustworthy, useful, and readable websites, learning from those sites and critically evaluating what is learned. AI is the newest technology to influence reading instruction. We don't believe AI can directly help children and young adolescents learn to read and write, but it can assist teachers in doing so. Throughout the book, we explore ways AI can be used to design reading lessons and develop instructional materials.
- **Commercial core reading programs.** Since the previous edition of our text, commercially developed core reading programs have become more prominent and, in many states and school districts, they are mandatory. Therefore, we have provided an overview of these programs, and in most chapters, we have provided guidelines for using them effectively. These programs are tools that require your knowledge and judgment to use them well.

KEY CONTENT UPDATES BY CHAPTER

- **Chapter 1: Reading and Learning to Read.** How well do students in the United States read? Better than in most countries, but not as well as we would like. Because some see the literacy glass as half empty, we begin with a survey of the many efforts to reform reading instruction, including the current focus on the Science of Reading. Like the Science of Reading advocates, we stress explicit instruction in word recognition but acknowledge that reading involves more than pronouncing words. We remain committed to the belief that if teachers understand the reading process, they will provide the best instruction for their students.
- **Chapter 2: Reading Instruction.** Reading is a constructive act, and through explicit instruction and careful guidance, all students can learn to read. Most children need explicit instruction in word recognition, vocabulary, comprehension, and writing. Equally important, every student needs ample opportunities to read and write. In the rewrite to this chapter, we stressed implicit learning, what readers learn about words, language, and the world as they read and write.
- **Chapter 3: Motivation, Engagement, and Emotional Support.** The increasing impact of digital devices on children in the United States makes a focus on motivation vital. The data are clear; our children are reading less. We have added to this chapter ideas on how to create and foster in children a love of reading and learning. We have also added consideration of social and emotional learning, a key component of motivation and of students' lives that is often neglected.
- **Chapter 4: Organizing Instruction So All Will Succeed.** The chapter will help you organize your classroom's space and time. We believe, and the evidence suggests, that many learning problems can be handled in the general education classroom before the students need to go down the hall for extra help. You need space to meet with small groups of children and the time to do so. We added information on interventions for English learners and students with learning problems.
- **Chapter 5: Classroom Assessment.** Since the last edition of our text, publishers have created more assessment tools to measure students' progress. We review these tools, assess their usefulness, and provide guidance on using them in your classroom. We still believe that classroom teachers, through formative assessment can assess their students' needs through their written work and oral responses, We doubt that high-stakes tests have improved teaching and learning, but we believe you need to prepare your students for them. The best preparation is strong reading instruction.
- **Chapter 6: Choosing Texts for Reading Instruction.** Texts matter, and you will need a variety of texts to teach children to read. Students in the primary grades need texts that support decoding, word recognition, and comprehension. Students in the upper grades need sets of texts that build background knowledge, vocabulary, and comprehension. Because we believe engaging texts are vital, we have updated our children's literature recommendations to include new, exciting books while retaining the classic titles that still grab young readers.
- **Chapter 7: Emergent Literacy.** Emergent readers have not changed much over the years, but the curriculum standards for children have risen. We expect

more of young learners than we did 20 years ago. In this chapter, we continue to stress that an equal focus on words and language is essential for young children. We have placed more emphasis on vocabulary as a driving force and on how it influences other components of the process.

- **Chapter 8: Word Recognition.** We anticipated the Science of Reading movement, which advocates explicit, systematic instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics. With new research findings, we place phonemic awareness instruction within the process of teaching children to recognize words, rather than as a stand-alone skill that extends beyond the first stages of learning to read. We stress that every student needs a different dose of phonics instruction. We have updated this chapter to include more information on linking word identification and vocabulary.
- **Chapter 9: Fluency and Independent Reading.** Fluency bridges word recognition and reading comprehension. Some students will need explicit instruction to develop their reading fluency, while others will not. All students benefit from reading widely. The volume of reading matters because reading more exposes students to more words. If your school closely follows a core reading program, we provide instructional techniques to improve fluency instruction.
- **Chapter 10: Vocabulary Development.** We continued our focus on a four-pronged approach to developing students' vocabulary and provided new material on selecting words for instruction and activities for teaching word learning strategies. We recognize newer research that suggest it is more efficient for children to learn words from reading than it is for teachers to teach all that children need. Yet it is still important to teach individual words, to help students develop powerful strategies for learning words on their own and to make words intriguing and exciting.
- **Chapter 11: Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text.** In this chapter, we introduce the components of reading comprehension—vocabulary, background knowledge, inferential thinking, and comprehension strategies—and discuss how these components are integrated across various curricular structures. We focus on how teaching narrative, in an era that emphasizes knowledge and informational texts, is vital for developing a love of reading and for understanding the values that make us human.
- **Chapter 12: Comprehending Informational Text.** New to this chapter is research on how to create a curriculum that builds knowledge where each text provides the concepts to comprehend the next text. Additionally, much informational reading has shifted from books and periodicals to the Internet. The knowledge, strategies, and motivation students need to read online for information, an often untrustworthy medium, differ from those required for print. Teachers must equip students to search the Web, critically evaluate websites, learn new information, and integrate information from multiple websites.
- **Chapter 13: Writing and Reading.** Writing improves reading comprehension, and in this chapter, we describe short and long form writing tasks that improve students' comprehension. Writing pushes students to think critically about what they read and to integrate new ideas. In this chapter, we have added some new ideas on the integration of reading and writing. We have also described how teaching writing can improve students' reading comprehension.

- **Chapter 14: Reading Instruction for English Learners.** The number of English learners in schools is rising, and it is increasingly important for teachers to understand which instructional approaches work best and how to adapt instruction to meet of students whose first language is not English. We have chosen to call the students English learners rather than the newer term "multilingual learners" because "English learners" refers specifically to students learning English as a second language. This is the group the chapter is concerned with.

SPECIAL FEATURES

This text has a number of features designed to make understanding our sometimes-complex ideas easier. We have included different features for the print and the digital versions of the text.

In the print and digital versions:

- We start each chapter with a set of **Learning Objectives** that list our purpose in writing each chapter. Each major section of the chapter addresses one of the learning objectives.
- Within each chapter, we have provided **In the Classroom** examples of teaching students to recognize words, build fluency, learn vocabulary, and construct meaning. These examples are designed to illustrate the interactions between teachers and students.
- *NEW!* We have added a feature called **Teaching Tools**. These tools are word lists, websites, or the prompts you need to get ChatGPT to generate a word list, test questions, or graphic organizers.
- *NEW!* In Chapters 7 through 14, we have added **Instructional Routines**. These procedures for teaching words, building fluency, and comprehension *come directly from research studies*. One or more studies have tested the efficacy of these approaches. In the Assessment chapter, we call these features **Assessment Routines**. Also, research-based, these features provide you concrete guidance for diagnosing where your students are in reading—their progress and their challenges—and monitor their ongoing progress to ensure they are developing the skills and strategies they need to become motivated, strong readers.
- *NEW!* There is a website that supports our text: https://www.teachingreading21stcentury.com In our website you will find additional activities, our thoughts on new instructional approaches, and commentary on emerging literacy issues.
- The **Reading Corner** in each chapter offers an updated list of children's books that can be used for specific curriculum goals. Some lists are focused on a genre, some on topics, and some reflect a range of text complexity.
- Within each chapter, we provide **Reflect and Apply** questions and activities that we hope will help you think through the ideas and issues within each section of the chapter.
- We also provide useful **Appendices** for this book. Which include lesson plans, assessment measures, and other documents for your classroom instruction. You can download these directly from the eTextbook or copy them from the print edition.

PEARSON ETEXTBOOK

The Pearson eTextbook is a simple-to-use, mobile-optimized, personalized reading experience. It allows you to easily highlight, take notes, and review key vocabulary all in one place—even when offline. Seamlessly integrated videos and other rich media will engage you and give you access to the help you need when you need it. To gain access or to sign in to your Pearson eTextbook, visit https://www.pearson.com/pearson-etext. Also included are:

Video Examples Videos can extend your knowledge and illustrate the use of various assessments and instructional strategies. Throughout each chapter, you will find videos of classroom instruction, opinions of other experts and several of the author, Peter Dewitz, who is shown teaching comprehension strategies to third- and fifth-grade students.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.5

Instruction in phonemic awareness needs to be explicit, with the teacher directly explaining and modeling a language concept. How does the teacher make phonemic awareness explicit?

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.5

Concentrate on the teachers in this video and notice how pairing students supports their language development. How might students who work in pairs encourage and support their oral language skills?

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 11.3

In this video, the author (Peter) introduces the process of making inferences to a group of fifth-graders. What do students already understand about inferential thinking, and what is new to them?

SUPPORT FOR INSTRUCTORS

LMS-Compatible Assessment Bank

With this new edition, all assessment types—quizzes, application exercises, and chapter tests—are included in LMS-compatible banks for the following learning management systems: Blackboard, Canvas, D2L, and Moodle. These packaged files allow maximum flexibility to instructors when it comes to importing, assigning, and grading. Assessment types include:

Chapter Quizzes An understanding of the chapter learning objectives are measured with *Learning Objective Quizzes* available for instructors to assign through their Learning Management System. Learning objectives serve as an organizational framework for each chapter and identify what you will learn and be able to accomplish when teaching. Higher-order, multiple-choice questions in each quiz will evaluate your understanding of chapter content, direct the expectations for your

learning, and inform the applications of your new knowledge. When used in the LMS environment, these multiple-choice questions are automatically graded and include feedback on the correct answer and on each distractor to help guide your learning.

Application Exercises Each chapter provides opportunities to apply what you have learned through *Application Exercises*. These exercises are usually in short-answer format and are often based on Pearson Textbook Video Examples that depict student activity and responses and include student work and student assessment samples. These exercises give you an opportunity to analyze and propose what to do so that you are better prepared when you step into your own classrooms. When the exercises are used in the LMS environment, a model response written by experts is provided after you submit the exercise. This feedback helps monitor your learning and can assist your instructor in grading.

Test Bank In addition to other LMS assessment options, a chapter-by-chapter test bank includes test items in the following formats: true/false, multiple choice, and short answer/essay.

Instructor's Manual

The Instructor's Manual is provided as a Word document and includes resources to assist professors in planning their course.

PowerPoint® Slides

PowerPoint® slides are provided for each chapter and highlight key concepts and summarize the content of the text to make it more meaningful for students. Oftentimes, these slides also include questions and problems designed to stimulate discussion and to encourage students to elaborate and deepen their understanding of chapter topics.

Note: All instructor resources—LMS-compatible assessment bank, instructor's manual, and PowerPoint slides—are available for download at www.pearsonhighered.com. Use one of the following methods:

- From the main page, use the search function to look up the lead author. Select the desired search result, then access the "Resources" tab to view and download all available resources.
- From the main page, use the search function to look up the ISBN (provided above) of the specific instructor resource you would like to download. When the product page loads, access the "Downloadable Resources" tab.

Acknowledgments

Clearly, *Teaching Reading in the 21st Century* continues to change and evolve. With each new edition, we have built on the combined expertise of many colleagues throughout the country who are dedicated to literacy education. To you, we extend a special thank you for your valuable feedback and assistance.

- Our editors, Brooke Nethers and Linda Bishop, who assisted us throughout the revision process; our content producer, Shurti Joshi, and production manager, Usharani Arumugam.
- The many people who granted us permission to cite their work and reproduce their materials in this text.
- The reviewers: Carol L. Butterfield, Central Washington University; Deborah A. Farrer, California University of Pennsylvania; Marie A. Fero, Eastern Illinois University; Kitty Y. Hazler, Morehead State University; Susan Hendricks, University of Nevada, Las Vegas; Kimberlee Sharp, Morehead State University; Maureen Siera, St. Martin's University; Linda Skroback-Heisler, University of Nevada, Las Vegas; and Christina D. Walton, Morehead State University.
- The reviewers of previous editions, who have been so helpful in shaping this text: Pamela Myette, Bridgewater State University; Jenna Cline, Iowa State University; Laura Keisler, CSU Fullerton; and Miranda Fitzgerald, University of North Carolina at Charlotte.
- The teachers, researchers, and students whose names you will see mentioned on nearly every page of this text, especially Michael Crusco, Sarah Collinge, Bethany Robinson, Jonni Wolskee, Babs Mowry, Alison Montano, Cheri Cooke, Lauren Liang, and Cheryl Peterson, who wrote outstanding lesson plans; Presley Williams and Cole Williams who lent us their thoughtful school work; Raymond Philippot, who assisted us with many of the other chapters; as well as Mark Aulls, Ann Beecher, Barbara Brunetti, Jerry Brunetti, David Carberry, Michael Crusco, Jim Hoffman, Susan Jones, Stephen Koziol, Anita Meinbach, Judy Peacock, Lynn Richards, Randall Ryder, Wayne Slater, Margo Sorenson, Kelly Spies, and Diann Stone. All lent their time and very special talents to this project.
- Our colleagues at the University of Minnesota and Stanford University, with special thanks to Lee Galda, Barbara Taylor, and Susan Watts, whose scholarship and dedication to the profession are without equal.
- Our students and teachers from kindergarten through graduate school, who over the years have inspired our thinking and contributed significantly to the ideas you will read about in this text.
- Our friends and family, especially my wife Pamela Dewitz, who listened, encouraged, and sustained me throughout this lengthy revision, and especially our accomplished, supportive children, Julie, Erin (Michael and Bonnie Graves), Rachel, David, and Erica, Presley and Cole (Peter and Pamela Dewitz).

Mike and I acknowledge our years of collaboration on this book and several other research papers. This book is better because of each other and because of Bonnie's vast knowledge of children's literature.

About the Authors

In writing and revising this book, each of us brought to the task their experiences and expertise, and we would like to briefly introduce ourselves.

Peter Dewitz

is an educational consultant and researcher who spends most of his time working with teachers and children in public schools. Peter has taught at the University of Toledo, the University of Virginia, and Mary Baldwin University and worked as a visiting researcher at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. He taught in the upper elementary grades and his major research interests are educational materials—specifically the efficacy of core reading and supplemental programs, the development and instruction of reading comprehension, and the uses and abuses of assessments in our schools.

Michael F. Graves

is a professor emeritus of literacy education at the University of Minnesota and a member of the Reading Hall of Fame. Mike taught in the upper grades, and his research and writing focus on vocabulary learning and instruction and comprehension instruction. His current major interest continues to be in vocabulary instruction along with increasing attention to motivation and instruction for English learners.

Bonnie B. Graves

is a full-time education writer and the author of 15 books for children. Bonnie taught in third and fourth grades, and her major interest is making literature enticing and accessible to beginning- and middle-grade learners. In addition to writing, Bonnie currently spends time working with children, teachers, and other educators on children's writing.

Brief Contents

Preface iv
Acknowledgments xi
About the Authors xii

Chapter 1 Reading and Learning to Read 1
Chapter 2 Reading Instruction 39
Chapter 3 Motivation, Engagement, and Emotional Support 72
Chapter 4 Organizing Instruction So All Will Succeed 105
Chapter 5 Classroom Assessment 134
Chapter 6 Choosing Texts for Reading Instruction 177
Chapter 7 Emergent Literacy 217
Chapter 8 Word Recognition 262
Chapter 9 Fluency and Independent Reading 308
Chapter 10 Vocabulary Development 343
Chapter 11 Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text 377
Chapter 12 Comprehending Informational Text 422
Chapter 13 Writing and Reading 469
Chapter 14 Reading Instruction for English Learners 514

Appendix 549
Appendix A: Assessment Tools 551
Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials 568
Appendix C: Test-Taking Lessons 612

References 624
Name Index 650
Subject Index 655

Contents

Preface iv
Acknowledgments xi
About the Authors xii

1 Reading and Learning to Read 1
Sixty Years of Reform in Reading Instruction 2
A Brief History of Reading Reform 2
The Current Era of Reform and the Science of Reading 3
Reflect and Apply 5
The Reading Proficiency and Habits of Our Students 5
Reading Proficiency 5
Reading Behavior 10
Summary 11
Literacy for Today's and Tomorrow's World 12
Reflect and Apply 13
The Reading Process 13
Models of Reading 14
The Simple View of Reading 14
The Cognitive-Constructivist View of Reading 16
Components of the Reading Process 17
Reading and Understanding Words 18
Word Recognition 18
Automaticity 18
Vocabulary Knowledge 19
The Process of Comprehension: The Construction-Integration Process 19
Construction-Integration 19
Metacognition 21
Strategies 21
Motivation 23
Other Theories of Comprehension 24
Sociocultural Theory 25
Reflect and Apply 28
A Literacy Curriculum for Today's and Tomorrow's World 31
The Components of Effective Reading Instruction 32
Technology and Artificial Intelligence 34
Making Instructional Decisions 35
Reflect and Apply 37
Concluding Remarks 37
Extending Learning 38
Children's Literature 38

2 Reading Instruction 39
Reflect and Apply 40
A Brief History of Reading Instruction in the United States 41
The Colonial Period and the 19th Century 41
Basal Readers from the Beginning to the Middle of the 20th Century 43
The Period of Continual Reform in Reading Education: From 1950s to the Present 44
1950–1960: The Call for Phonics Instruction 44
1970–1980: Whole-Language and Literature-Based Approaches 45
1980–1990: A New Focus on Reading Comprehension 46
2000s: Massive Federal Intervention in Reading 47
2010: The Common Core State Standards Provide a New Influence on Reading Instruction 48
2018: The Great Debate Is Revived and the Science of Reading 49
Reflect and Apply 50
Principles and Practices of Effective Reading Instruction 50
Highly Effective Schools and Teachers 51
Traditional Perspectives on Instruction 52

Reflect and Apply 56
A Cognitive–Constructivist Perspective on Instruction 57
The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model 57
Zone of Proximal Development 61
Teaching for Transfer 62
Teaching for Understanding: Knowledge and Strategies 62
Reflect and Apply 64
Implicit Learning and Instruction 64
Reflect and Apply 66
Major Approaches to Reading Instruction 66
Whole-Class Instruction 68
Small-Group Instruction 68
Independent Reading and Independent Work 68
Reflect and Apply 69
Concluding Remarks 69
Extending Learning 70
Children's Literature 71

3 Motivation, Engagement, and Emotional Support 72
Making Motivation a Top Priority 73
Creating a Literate Environment 75
Modeling 75
A Print-Rich Classroom 76
Organizing Physical Space 79
Choice 80
Classroom Climate 80
Grouping Students for Instruction 82
Reflect and Apply 84
Reading and Learning in the Classroom—Intrinsic Motivation 84
Interest 84
Making Connections to Students' Cultures and Lives Outside of School 85
Promoting Academic Values and Goals 86
Efficacy and Positive Attributions 87
The Importance of Appropriate Challenges 88
Using Cooperative Activities to Ensure Active Participation 90
Motivating Students Extrinsically 90
Praise and Points 91
Grades 91
Technology 91
Factors That Undermine Motivation 92
Reflect and Apply 92
Reflect and Apply 94
Social and Emotional Learning 94
Reflect and Apply 99
Assessing Students' Motivation 100
Concluding Remarks 101
Extending Learning 103
Children's Literature 103

4 Organizing Instruction So All Will Succeed 105
Individual Differences in Learning to Read 106
A Variety of Cultural and Language Experiences 106
Dyslexia and Learning Disabilities 107
Garden-Variety Reading Problems 108
Reflect and Apply 109
Creating a Strong Core Program 109
The Physical Arrangement of the Classroom 110
Managing Time 111
Whole-Class Instruction 111
Small-Group Instruction 112
Independent Work 112
Reflect and Apply 114
Differentiating Instruction 114
Differentiating Time 116
Differentiating Tasks 116
Differentiating Teaching 119
Differentiating Texts 119
Differentiating Instruction in Core Reading Programs 122
Differentiating Instruction for English Learners 122
Classroom Example of Differentiated Instruction 122
Reflect and Apply 125
Intervention for Readers Who Struggle 126
Response to Intervention 126
Characteristics of Successful Interventions for Readers Who Struggle 127
Technology and Reading Intervention 131
Reflect and Apply 132
Concluding Remarks 132
Extending Learning 133
Children's Literature 133

5 Classroom Assessment 134
Our Perspective on Assessment 135
The Current History of Assessment Practices 136
High-Stakes Testing 137
Response to Intervention and Progress Monitoring 137
Reflect and Apply 138
Types of Assessments and Their Uses 139
Formative and Summative Assessments 140
A Glossary of Commercial Assessments 141
Universal Screening Tests 141
Progress Monitoring—Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) 143
Benchmark or Interim Assessments 144
Diagnostic Tests 145
Assessments for Learning 146
Interpreting Reading Scores 147
Reflect and Apply 149
An Assessment System in Your Classroom 149
An Assessment System in a First-Grade Classroom 149
Screening and Grouping 150
Monitoring Progress 151
Monitor Progress 155
Revaluating and Regrouping 156
An Assessment System in a Fourth-Grade Classroom 156
Screening and Grouping 157
Monitoring Progress 160
Revaluating and Regrouping 162
Analyzing and Summarizing Your Data 163
From Reporting to Grading 166
Reflect and Apply 167
Assessing Individuals—When More Precise Information Is Needed 167
Using an Informal Reading Inventory: Administering and Scoring 168
Interpreting Oral Reading Errors 168
Understanding Students' Comprehension Difficulties from an Informal Reading Inventory 169
Reflect and Apply 171
What You Need To Know About High-Stakes Testing 171
Preparing Students for Standardized Tests 173
Reflect and Apply 175
Concluding Remarks 175
Extending Learning 176
Assessments Discussed in the Chapter 176

6 Choosing Texts for Reading Instruction 177
Why Text Matters 178
Reflect and Apply 180
Measuring Text Difficulty 180
Readability Formulas 181
Book Leveling 185
Qualitative Factors of Text 186
Goals of Instruction 186
Prior Knowledge 186
Vocabulary 187
Coherence and Unity 187
Figurative Language and Voice 188
Sentence Structure 188
Passage Length 189
Text and Activity Relationships 190
Reflect and Apply 191
Texts for Beginning Reading Instruction 192
A Historical Look at Texts for Beginning Reading Instruction 192
What Texts Should We Use for Beginning Reading Instruction? 194
Developing Comprehension with Beginning Readers 196
Reflect and Apply 198
Texts for Developing Comprehension 198
The Text as a Tool 199
The Text as a Goal 199
Selecting Literary Texts 200
Selecting Nonfiction Texts 201
Clear Structure 201
Coherent Writing 204
Unity 204
Voice 205
Text and Graphic Relationships 205
Audience Appropriateness 206
Texts in Core Reading Programs 208
Reflect and Apply 209
Digital Reading, The Internet, and Generative AI 209
Introducing Children to Digital Text 210
Reading and Learning on the Internet 210
Locating Information and Judging Usefulness 211

Judging Readability 211
Trustworthiness 212
The New Challenge of Generative Artificial Intelligence 213
Reflect and Apply 214
Concluding Remarks 214
Extending Learning 215
Children's Literature 215

7 Emergent Literacy 217
How Children Make Discoveries About Print 219
Some Early Understandings About Print 219
Connecting Letters and Phonemes: The Alphabetic Principle 221
Emergent Literacy and Curriculum Expectations 222
Reflect and Apply 224
Three Critical Insights About Language and Print 224
The Alphabetic Principle 225
Phonemic Awareness 225
Alphabet Recognition 229
Reflect and Apply 229
Emerging Knowledge About Comprehension 230
Oral Language Development 230
Building Background Knowledge 231
Genre and Text Structure Knowledge 232
Interactive Read-Alouds 232
Interactive Writing 233
Learning the Comprehension Process 233
Summary 235
Reflect and Apply 235
Whole- and Small-Group Reading Instruction 235
Creating a Literate Environment 235
Whole-Class Instruction 236
The Morning Meeting 236
Reading Aloud Interactively 237
Interactive Writing 240
The Language-Experience Approach 241
Small-Group Instruction 241
Phonological Awareness to Phonemic Awareness 242
Letter Names: The Alphabet 244
Letter-Sound Associations 245
Word Recognition 247
Spelling 248
Independent Activities 248
Free "Reading" 248
Journals 249
Making Books 250
Mailboxes 250
Play Centers 250
Computers 250
Recordings 251
Emergent Reading in Core Reading Programs 251
Reflect and Apply 252
A Kindergarten Scenario 253
Reflect and Apply 257
Assessing Emergent Literacy Skills 257
Standardized Assessments 257
Informal Assessment Procedures 258
Letter Names 258
Letter Sound 258
Phonemic Awareness 258
Concluding Remarks 260
Extending Learning 261
Children's Literature 261

8 Word Recognition 262
Challenges of Recognizing Printed Words 263
Why Listening Is Easier Than Reading 263
Shared Background Knowledge 263
Immediate Feedback 264
Visual Cues from the Speaker 264
More Common Words 264
Contextualized Meaning 264
No Translation Needed 264
Skilled Readers Automatically Recognize Words 264
The Makeup of Spoken and Written English 266
Phonemes: Vowels and Consonants 266
Syllables, Onsets, and Rimes 266
Word Families and Phonograms 267
Morphemes 267
Affixes: Prefixes and Suffixes 267
The Alphabetic Principle 269
The Structure of Printed Words: The Good News 269
Reflect and Apply 270
General Principles of Learning and Teaching Words 270
Developmental Phases in Learning to Read Words 270

Pre-Alphabetic Phase 270
Partial Alphabetic Phase 271
Full Alphabetic Phase 271
Consolidated Alphabetic Phase 271
Processes Involved in Reading Words 271
Principles and Organization of Word Recognition Instruction 272
Getting Started with Word Recognition Instruction 273
The Time and Place for Word Recognition Instruction 274
The Amount of Time for Word Recognition 274
Differentiating Word Recognition Instruction 274
Teaching Word Recognition with a Published Reading Program 274
A Weekly Plan for Word Recognition 275
Reflect and Apply 276
Teaching High-Frequency Words 277
Building a Sight Vocabularies 277
Word Banks 277
High-Frequency Words 278
Word Walls 280
Reflect and Apply 280
Teaching Phonics 281
Teaching Letter-Sound Correspondences: Decoding 281
The Scope and Sequence of Phonics Instruction 283
Teaching Consonants 284
Teaching Vowels 286
Teaching Blending 290
Activities for Practicing Decoding 291
Reading Words 291
Word Building Activities 291
Sorting Words 293
Writing Sorts 293
Technology That Assists Word Recognition 294
The Importance of Contextual Reading: Read, Read, Read! 295
Reflect and Apply 295
Teaching Multisyllable Words 295
Teaching Rimes 295
Decoding Multisyllabic Words 298
Teaching Meaning Units in Words: Prefixes and Suffixes 300
Providing Feedback and Coaching Word Recognition 300
Reflect and Apply 302
About Wide Reading 303
Reflect and Apply 304
Assessing Word Identification 305
Sight Words 305
Phonemic Awareness 305
Word Identification—Phonics 306
Concluding Remarks 306
Extending Learning 306
Children's Literature 307

9 Fluency and Independent Reading 308
The Importance of Fluency 309
Helping All Students Become Fluent Readers 311
Reflect and Apply 312
The Importance of Reading Volume 312
The Head Winds to Reading Volume 312
Reading Within the Curriculum 313
Reading Outside the Curriculum: Independent Reading 314
Providing Time to Read 315
Providing a Rich Array of Reading Material and a Place to Read 316
Encouraging Out-of-School and Summer Reading 320
Accountability for Independent Reading 321
Reflect and Apply 323
Individual Approaches to Developing Fluency 323
The Original Method of Repeated Reading 323
Simultaneous Repeated Reading and Neurological Impress 326
Audio-Assisted Repeated Reading 327
Reflect and Apply 329
Small-Group and Whole-Class Approaches to Fluency Development 329
Small-Group Fluency Instruction 329
Text for Fluency Instruction 329
Small-Group Fluency Lesson Plans 329
Whole-Class Fluency Instruction 330
Developing Reading Prosody 332
Choral Reading 332
Readers Theater 333
Fluency Development in Core Reading Programs 334
Developing Fluency with Technology 334

Read Naturally 335
E-Books and E-Book Apps for Building Fluency 335
Reflect and Apply 336
Assessing Readers' Fluency 337
Reflect and Apply 341
Concluding Remarks 341
Extending Learning 341
Children's Literature 342

10 Vocabulary Development 343
The Vocabulary Learning Task 344
Frequent, Extensive, and Varied Language Experiences 345
Reflect and Apply 347
Teaching Individual Words 347
Word-Learning Tasks 347
Learning a Basic Vocabulary 347
Learning to Read Known Words 347
Learning New Words That Represent Known Concepts 348
Learning New Words That Represent New Concepts 348
Identifying Vocabulary to Teach 348
Methods of Teaching Individual Words 349
Reflect and Apply 355
Teaching Word-Learning Strategies 355
Using Context Clues 355
Using Morphology (Word Parts) 358
Using the Dictionary 361
Using Multiple Strategies 362
Reflect and Apply 363
Fostering Word Consciousness 363
Modeling and Encouraging Adept Diction 364
Promoting Word Play 367
Homophones and Homographs 367
Idioms, Clichés, and Puns 368
Providing Intensive and Expressive Instruction 369
Reflect and Apply 370
Assessing Students' Vocabulary Knowledge and Skills 370
Standardized Tests 370
The Gates-MacGinitie Vocabulary Test 370
Newly Developed Reading Assessments 371
Teacher-Made Tests 371
Multiple-Choice Tests 371
Matching Tests 372
Questioning and Talking with Students 373
Applying the Four-Part Vocabulary Program 373
How to Begin Using the Four-Part Program 373
How to Implement the Program When You Are Using a Core Reading Program 374
Differentiating Instruction for English Learners 375
Concluding Remarks 375
Extending Learning 376
Children's Literature 376

11 Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text 377
A Model Of Reading Comprehension Instruction 378
Knowledge Development 379
Domain and Conceptual Knowledge 380
Cultural or Experiential Knowledge 381
Knowledge of Genre and Text Structure 381
Comprehension and Metacognitive Strategies 381
Strategies Are Conscious Efforts 382
Strategies Are Flexible 382
Strategies Help Us Reflect and Monitor 382
Strategies Lead to Higher-Level Thinking 383
Key Comprehension Strategies 383
Setting a Purpose for Reading 384
Asking and Answering Questions 385
Determining What Is Important 385
Summarizing 385
Dealing with Graphic Information 386
Locating Information 386
Critically Evaluating Information 386
Making Inferences 386
Reflect and Apply 389
Planning and Selecting a Reading Curriculum 389
The Reader, the Text, and the Purpose 389
Four Comprehension Curricula 390
Traditional Core Reading Programs 391
Boutique Core Reading Programs 391
Guided Reading 392
A Thematic Curriculum 392

Reflect and Apply 395
Teaching the Essentials of Narrative Comprehension 396
Building Conceptual Knowledge 396
Teaching Text Structure 398
Story Grammar and Story Maps 398
Developing Inferential Comprehension 400
Teaching Comprehension Strategies 405
Reflect and Apply 407
Frameworks for Developing Students' Comprehension 407
Scaffolded Reading Experience 407
Prereading Activities 408
During-Reading Activities 408
Post-reading Activities 410
Guided Reading 412
Close Reading 413
Collect-Interpret-Apply Approach (C.I.A.) 414
Reflect and Apply 415
Discussion 415
Instructional Conversations 416
Literature Circles 416
Independent Reading 418
Reflect and Apply 419
Concluding Remarks 420
Extending Learning 420
Children's Literature 420

12 Comprehending Informational Text 422
The Challenges of Informational Text 423
Informational Texts' Place in the Curriculum 424
Why Is Informational Text Difficult to Read 424
Reflect and Apply 424
Building Knowledge 425
Building Domain and Topic Knowledge 425
Curricula That Build Knowledge 425
Instructional Routines That Build Knowledge 429
Building Text Structure Knowledge 432
Text Features 433
Text Organizational Patterns 434
Reflect and Apply 437
Comprehension Strategies 438
Setting a Purpose for Reading 439
Determining What Is Important 440
Teaching Students to Summarize 444
Question Asking and Answering 446
Reflect and Apply 449
Multiple Strategy Instruction 449
Reciprocal Teaching 449
Collaborative Strategic Reading 453
Situating Strategy Instruction Within the Classroom 454
Comprehension in Core Reading Programs 454
Reflect and Apply 456
Reading with Digital Text 456
How the Digital Text Might Affect Reading 456
Comprehension on the Internet 457
Purpose Setting 457
Navigation 457
Integration 458
Evaluation 458
Prior Knowledge 459
Strategies for Use with Multiple Sources 460
Teaching Comprehension with the Internet 460
Learning from One Website 460
Learning from Multiple Websites 462
Self-Regulated Reading 464
Reflect and Apply 465
Assessing Reading Comprehension 465
The Reader 466
The Text 466
The Task 466
Recommendations 466
Concluding Remarks 467
Extending Learning 467
Children's Literature 468

13 Writing and Reading 469
The Reading-Writing Connection 470
Explaining the Reading and Writing Connection 471
Reflect and Apply 471
A Positive Reading-Writing Environment 472
The Intellectual Environment 472
The Physical Environment 472
The Writing Workshop 473

Reflect and Apply 476
Writing to Learn and Understand 476
Note-Taking 477
Brainstorming and Quick Writing 478
Semantic Mapping and the Venn Diagram 479
Writing Summaries 481
Journals 481
Dialogue Journals 482
Reading Logs 483
Learning Logs 484
Double-Entry Journals 485
Reflect and Apply 487
Teaching the Writing Process 487
A Process Approach to Writing 487
A Genre Approach to Writing 490
Teaching Different Genres 493
Fiction 493
Biographies and Autobiographies 494
Reports 495
Letters 498
Email and Texting 500
Poetry 500
Integrating Genres of Writing 502
Technology and Teaching Writing 503
Reflect and Apply 504
Revising, Responding, and Publishing Writing 504
Responding to Writing 505
Publishing Writing 506
Reflect and Apply 507
Assessing Writing 507
Assessing Writing to Learn 507
Assessing Extended Writing 509
Concluding Remarks 511
Extending Learning 511
Children's Literature 512

14 Reading Instruction for English Learners 514
Learning to Read English as a Second Language in the United States 515
Linguistic Diversity in U.S. Schools 515
English Learners in Today's Schools 516
English Learners' Reading Proficiency 516
The Critical Importance of Mastering English in Today's World 516
Reflect and Apply 517
What the Research Says About Teaching English Learners 517
Compelling Instructional Practices Are Likely to Be Effective for English Learners 518
English Learners Require Additional Instructional Support 519
The Home Language Can Be Used to Promote Academic Development 519
Teaching Economically Disadvantaged Students 520
Demand Critical Thinking 520
Teaching Foundational Skills 521
Empower Students to Challenge Racist Views of Their Competence and Worthiness 521
Build on Students' Prior Knowledge 522
Create a Sense of Family and Caring 522
Monitor and Assess Students' Needs 523
Honor and Respect Children's Home Cultures 524
Reflect and Apply 524
General Instructional Techniques for Working with English Learners 524
Take Advantage of the 20 Percent Rule 524
Provide Intensive Small-Group Instruction 526
Screen for Reading Problems and Monitor Students' Progress 526
Give English Learners and Yourself Plenty of Time 526
Use the Rosetta Stone Technique 528
Involve Parents, Siblings, and Other Speakers of the Children's Languages 528
Use Peer-Assisted Learning 530
Give Students the Freedom to Choose the Language in Which to Respond 531
Developing Word Recognition and Comprehension 535
Beginning Reading Instruction with English Learners 536
Developing Comprehension 539
Vocabulary Instruction 539
Building Background Knowledge 539
Reading Fiction 539
Reading Informational Text 540
Reflect and Apply 544

Assessments for English Learners 544
Types of Modifications Useful in Assessment 544
Some Recommendations for Using Modifications and Supports 545
Examples of Modifications and Supports 545
Concluding Remarks 547
Extending Learning 547
Children's Literature 547

Appendix 549
Appendix A: Assessment Tools 551
Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials 568
Appendix C: Test-Taking Lessons 612

References 624
Name Index 650
Subject Index 655

Features

In the Classroom

1.1 Using Background Knowledge 16
1.2 How Students Construct Meaning 25
2.1 A Portrait of Exemplary Fourth-Grade Instruction 53
2.2 Actively Engaging Students in Reading and Responding to a Text 55
2.3 Scaffolding Small-Group Instruction for English Learners 60
2.4 Implicit Learning: Mrs. Jackson's Third Grade Builds Word Knowledge 65
3.1 Poetry Browsing to Create Interest 81
3.2 Heterogeneous Small Groups Learn About Genre 83
3.3 Providing Both Challenges and Supports 88
3.4 Getting to Know Students and Letting Them Know You Care 97
3.5 Assessing Students' Reading Attitudes and Interests 100
4.1 Managing Small-Group and Independent Work 113
4.2 Differentiating Word Study Tasks 117
4.3 Differentiating Comprehension Instruction 118
4.4 Planning for Differentiated Small-Group Instruction 123
4.5 A Differentiated Historical Fiction Unit 124
4.6 Dyad Reading as a Class Intervention 130
5.1 Exploring Comprehension Responses 169
7.1 Kindergartners and the P Words 227
7.2 Using Wordless Picture Books in a Kindergarten Classroom 230
7.3 Reading and Writing Rhymes 239
8.1 A Weekly Lesson Plan (30 minutes/day) 276
8.2 Reviewing Consonants: Ms. Campbell's Class 285
8.3 Decoding Multisyllable Words 298
8.4 Decoding Multisyllable Words 302
9.1 Promoting Independent Reading 315
10.1 Using Artificial Intelligence in Working with Semantic Maps 354
10.2 Introducing Context Clues Using Lite Instruction 356
10.3 Robust Strategies Instruction: Using the Dictionary 361
10.4 Constructing and Examining Semantic Gradients in Word Meanings 364
10.5 Word of the Day Activities 365
11.1 Fostering Metacognition 382
11.2 Students' Post-reading Dramatizations 412
11.3 Instructional Routines: Establishing Literature Circles in a Fourth-Grade Classroom 417
11.4 A Glimpse into a Classroom That Combines Instructional Frameworks 418
12.1 Reciprocal Teaching in Action 451
13.1 Guidelines for Journal Writing 486
13.2 Introducing Letter Writing 499
13.3 Writing Tanka Poems 502
14.1 Traditional and Constructivist Instructional Principles 518
14.2 Supporting English Learners 519
14.3 Using the Shared Reading Experience in a Multilingual Fourth-Grade Classroom 521
14.4 Summarizing Part of a Selection 527
14.5 Phonics Instruction for English Learners and the Rest of the Class 537

Instructional Routine

5.1 Assessing Oral Reading Proficiency 152
5.2 Formative Assessment: Measuring Progress 161

6.1 Building Lasting Word Recognition 195
6.2 Reading Aloud to Develop Language, Vocabulary, and Comprehension 197
7.1 Using Letter Puppets to Help Children Understand the Connection Between Phonemes and Letters 220
7.2 Teaching Letter Names and Letter Sounds 246
8.1 Teaching High-Frequency Words 279
8.2 Teaching Single-Letter Consonants and Consonant Digraphs 284
8.3 Teaching Short Vowels 287
8.4 Teaching Vowel Patterns 288
8.5 Teaching Blending 290
8.6 Word Building Activities 292
8.7 Decoding by Analogy 296
8.8 Teaching Affixes 300
9.1 The Original Method of Repeated Reading 324
9.2 Partner or Dyad Reading 327
9.3 Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction (FORI) 331
9.4 A Weekly Schedule for a Readers Theater 333
10.1 The Context-Dictionary-Discussion Procedure 350
10.2 The Context-Relationship Procedure 351
10.3 Introducing New Words Representing New Concepts: The Frayer Method 352
10.4 Semantic Mapping 353
10.5 Teaching Context Clues: Robust Strategy Instruction 357
10.6 Teaching Prefixes 360
11.1 An Introduction to Making Inferences 388
11.2 Prereading Activity: Relating the Reading to Students' Lives 397
11.3 Teaching the Strategy of Self-Questioning 406
11.4 Questioning the Author: QtA 410
12.1 Know (K), Want to Learn (W), Learned (L) 431
12.2 Teaching Text Features 433
12.3 Teaching About Organizational Structure—Compare and Contrast 435
12.4 Determine What Is Important 440
12.5 Determining Importance with Longer Passages 443
12.6 Summarizing What We Read 445
12.7 Question Answer Relationships 448
12.8 Reciprocal Teaching 450
12.9 Teaching Students to Learn from One Website 461
13.1 Note-Taking 477
13.2 Introducing the Reading Log to Elementary Students 483
14.1 Teaching Students to Infer Character Traits with the SIOP Model 532

Teaching Tool

1.1 How to Create a Motivating Classroom 23
2.1 Cognitive Modeling 59
3.1 Creating a Book Review File 77
5.1 Brief Surveys of Short and Long Vowel Patterns 152
5.2 Noting Students' Reading Progress 156
5.3 Assessing Oral Reading Fluency 157
5.4 Checklist for Noting Students' Comprehension of Narratives 159
6.1 Calculating Text Readability 183
6.2 Using AI to Create Text Sets 207
7.1 Phonological Awareness 225
8.1 Common Letter-Sound Correspondences 282
8.2 Essential Materials for Teaching Phonics 284
8.3 Creating a Word List for Practicing Decoding 294
9.1 Guidelines for Helping Students Select Reading Material 318
9.2 Audio-Assisted Repeated Reading 328
9.3 Procedures for Measuring Rate and Accuracy 338
11.1 Sample Post-Reading Questions for Various Types of Thinking 411
13.1 Guidelines for Creating a Positive Writing Environment 473
14.1 AERA's Recommendations 535

The Reading Corner

1.1 High-Interest, Engaging Books That Motivate Reading 29
2.1 Informational Books That Give Students Opportunities to Make Critical Responses 63
3.1 Books About Food and Families in Many Cultures 79

3.2 Books That Foster Social and Emotional Learning 98
4.1 Books for Differentiated Thematic Units 121
5.1 Nonfiction Books in Series for Students in Lower Grades 165
6.1 Fiction and Nonfiction 190
7.1 Big Books 240
8.1 Easy-to-Read Books 303
9.1 Books That Hook Young Readers and Help Build Fluency 319
10.1 Books About Words 366
11.1 Narrative Texts, from Simple to Complex Plots and Character Development 394
12.1 Outstanding Science and Social Studies Books 427
13.1 Informational Books, a Sampling 496
14.1 Books Available in Bilingual Formats 534

This page intentionally left blank

CHAPTER 1

READING AND LEARNING TO READ

Classroom Vignette

It was the first day of summer vacation, and 10-year-old Carmella couldn't wait to meet her best friend Amber at the community pool. Just as she was deciding which bathing suit to wear, she heard the patter of rain on the roof and looked out the window. "Daaang," she muttered. "No pool today." She flopped back onto her bed and reached for Kate DiCamillo's *Because of Winn-Dixie*. Within minutes, she was deep into India Opal Buloni's new life in Florida, temporarily forgetting about the pool.

When Carmella's friend Amber woke up and saw that rain had spoiled their plans for the community pool, she never thought of picking up a book. Unlike Carmella, she had not mastered the complex process of reading. Reading wasn't much fun for her, and she didn't do it often. Amber will probably spend most of the rainy day with her iPad, watching movies and playing video games.

For some children, such as Carmella, mastering the complex process of reading comes easily, and by fourth grade, they are quite accomplished readers. For others, like Amber, this is not the case. As Carmella and Amber progress in school, they will face increasingly challenging reading tasks and will need help meeting those challenges. Amber—and other students who struggle with reading—will, of course, need more assistance than Carmella and other accomplished readers, but all your students will need the very best instruction and encouragement you can provide if they are to become the sort of readers the 21st century demands.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- LO 1.1 Explain what policies and programs have been employed to reform the teaching of reading and consider how these reforms affect the current reading ability of students in the United States.
- LO 1.2 Describe how well students in the United States read and identify segments of our student population who struggle to achieve 21st Century literacy skills.
- LO 1.3 Compare and contrast various models of the reading process and discuss how understanding how children read can influence instructional decisions in the classroom.
- LO 1.4 Describe the essential components of a reading curriculum and the knowledge teachers need to teach this curriculum well.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.1

This video welcomes you to our book and gives you a brief overview of the content. Before you start reading, ask what the major problems are in teaching children to read.

www.youtu.be/IM_WQhzhOPs

SIXTY YEARS OF REFORM IN READING INSTRUCTION

Americans hold high educational hopes for their children. We want all of our students to succeed and become productive citizens. This was not always the case. In the early years of our nation, literacy was a skill enjoyed mainly by wealthy men, a few women, and almost no one from the lower classes (Monaghan & Barry, 1999). Communities had not yet established a system of schools, and most children attended only a few years. Just as we expanded voting rights to include men of all social classes, women, and ethnic groups, we have now extended our literacy goals to all (Lepore, 2018). We want every child to read and write well, and as our expectations have increased, so has our awareness of the difficulty of meeting these goals. Too often, we have labeled these difficulties a crisis.

We believe that "crisis" is the wrong word to describe the problems our students, teachers, administrators, and parents face. Crisis, according to several dictionaries is a period of extreme instability or danger which could result in a decisive change. What we have is not a crisis, but problems that require thoughtful and comprehensive solutions. Here is a brief history of past efforts to reform and improve reading instruction. Understanding this history helps prevent the same mistakes from being repeated.

A Brief History of Reading Reform

Critics of the U.S. educational system frequently point to its failure to educate students as effectively as in the past, highlight the perceived poor performance of U.S. students compared with those in other countries, and criticize the overall inability of U.S. schools to teach all students to read proficiently. Reform remains a constant theme in American education, and many presidents, including Eisenhower, Johnson, Reagan, Bush I, Clinton, Bush II, and Obama, have made reforming reading, mathematics, and science education a central part of their political platforms.

One of the earliest reform efforts was an outgrowth of the Civil Rights Movement, as the 1964 Civil Rights Act mandated that the government report on the equality of educational opportunity. James Coleman (1966) conducted a massive survey of our educational system, and his 737-page report concluded, in part, that there was a significant achievement gap between Black and White children. He also found that peers mattered more than materials. "If you integrate children of different backgrounds and socioeconomics, kids perform better" (Coleman, 1966, p. 537). Others in the U.S. Department of Education saw things differently and urged increased federal funding for reading and math materials and teachers. Congress then passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965), commonly referred to as Title I. This reform helped schools in high-poverty areas acquire more teaching materials, fund additional reading teachers and paraprofessionals, and increase training for all teachers.

In 1983, a report by the National Commission on Excellence in Education titled *A Nation at Risk* declared, "Our Nation is at risk. Our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world ...." The reading community responded with its own report, *Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson et al., 1985). The report included wide-ranging recommendations on teaching reading based on the best available research at the time. It concluded, "America will become a nation of readers when verified practices of the best teachers in the best schools can be introduced throughout the country" (p. 116). The report urged parents to read to their children, encouraged teachers to deliver well-designed phonics lessons, and focused more on reading comprehension, while also encouraging all students to read more.

Becoming a Nation of Readers had little effect on reading education (Wilkerson et al., 2016), but it was part of a broader effort to expand the Federal Government's influence on education. In 1979, President Carter, along with Congress, established the Department of Education to enhance understanding of students' achievement and to centralize educational policy. As part of this mission, the government issued several reports that called for a strong, systematic focus on phonics and phonemic awareness in beginning reading instruction, including *Beginning to Read* (Adams, 1990) and *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* (Snow et al., 1998).

The next policy effort to boost reading achievement focused on raising standards (Vinovskis, 2022). Policy experts believed that school divisions and educators held low expectations for students, and Presidents George H. W. Bush and Bill Clinton both worked to establish higher standards for all educators. Through America 2000 and Goals 2000, the government declared that "By year 2000, American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter, including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography." By the year 2000, every adult American was expected to be literate and possess the knowledge and skills needed to compete in a global economy and to exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. The history of national test results confirms that these ambitious goals have not been achieved (Vinovskis, 2022).

George W. Bush decided to put teeth into these standards in two ways. The Federal Government commissioned experts to gather research on the best methods for teaching reading, share it with educators, and develop a system of assessments to hold teachers and schools accountable for meeting these higher standards. The initiative led to the *Report of the National Reading Panel* (NRP, NICHD, 2000). The report identified the five key components of reading instruction—phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension—and outlined how to teach them. Bush and Congress passed the *No Child Left Behind* Act. They allocated $6 billion for *Reading First*, a national effort to improve reading curricula, enhance teachers' professional development, and use testing to track student progress, giving weight to the National Reading Panel's recommendations. All third- through eighth-graders and some high school students were tested on reading and math achievement, and teachers and schools were held accountable through rewards, recognition, and punishments.

Under the Obama administration, two reform efforts significantly influenced reading education. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA, 2015) and the Race to the Top (ARRA, 2009) grants reinforced the focus on testing, while the Common Core State Standards (NGA & CCSS) established new reading standards for states, school districts, and educational publishers. States and districts that applied for and received Race to the Top funds were required to track the progress of all students through interim assessments, resulting in increased testing in schools.

The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) sought three major changes in reading education. Reading programs and classroom instruction should emphasize building knowledge by balancing fiction and nonfiction texts and creating text sets that build on one another. When students discuss or write about a text, they should focus on the text's ideas rather than their personal experiences. Students should also regularly read complex texts, with difficulty increasing throughout the year and from grade to grade. As a result of the CCSS, reading programs, instruction, and assessments have evolved, and these changes continue. Examining the effectiveness of these changes is threaded throughout our text.

The Current Era of Reform and the Science of Reading

Current efforts to reform reading education began with the Science of Reading movement. The term "science of reading" first appeared in print in *The Science of Reading Handbook* (Snowling & Hulme et al., 2005, 2022). However, the phrase

went viral when journalists writing about the "reading crisis" urged schools and teachers to follow the science of reading (Hanford, 2019a,b). The podcast *Sold a Story*, also by Hanford (2022), argued that the cause of our students' reading problems was an approach called guided reading or balanced literacy, and that the solution was a return to explicit, systematic phonics instruction. The problem with guided reading and balanced literacy was the lack of explicit phonics instruction. Educators, policy experts, and politicians pushed for more phonics instruction, even into the upper grades. Many states began to legislate curriculum decisions (Reinking et al., 2023).

We view the science of reading as encompassing much more than phonics or word recognition instruction (Duke & Cartwright, 2021). It includes the five main pillars of reading—phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension—as defined by the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000). However, reading instruction extends beyond these pillars. Students need to build knowledge (Cervetti & Hiebert, 2015) and develop the interest and motivation to read widely and deeply (Alexander, 2013). It is crucial that teachers use assessments effectively to tailor instruction for all students and organize their classrooms to create an engaging environment where everyone can succeed.

Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana are often cited as examples of states that successfully followed the science of reading. Their success was due to much more than phonics instruction. In those states teachers read often to their students to build knowledge, they teach comprehension strategies and they make extensive use of small group instruction to differentiate teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2026).

After 60 years (1965–2024) of an expanding federal role in education and literacy, the second Trump administration is reducing federal involvement in education, except in reading. The Department of Education recently started accepting proposals to enhance literacy instruction. They stated, "that the science of reading is a body of evidence-based research that proves the importance of providing direct, systematic, and explicit instruction in phonological awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and reading comprehension" (U.S. Department of Education, 2025). Additionally, the federal government aims to return educational policy to the states and promote school choice programs.

Providing instruction aligned with the science of reading simply means that curriculum and instruction should be based on research. Since the first edition of this book in 1998, we have consistently grounded our recommendations in reading research. The instructional practices we suggest have been tested through classroom studies or are based on well-founded theories of reading. We will highlight these research-supported recommendations in all of our chapters. Other practices we mention are emerging and have not yet been thoroughly researched, but they are rooted in sound instructional theory. Our job is to translate these research findings into directives for effective classroom instruction.

The efforts to improve literacy in the United States have centered on three main strategies. In the 1970s and 1980s, politicians and policy experts argued that investing more money in teachers, teacher training, and instructional materials would boost reading achievement. In the 1990s and 2000s, other reformers claimed that our standards were simply too low. If we expected more from our students, our administrators and teachers would rise to the challenge. The third group of reforms, starting in the 2000s, believed that holding teachers and schools accountable through high-stakes assessments would give the standards more teeth. Currently, some journalists, politicians, and policy experts think we are in a crisis. We disagree. There are problems, and there are solutions, but understanding the data on our students' reading proficiency and reading habits will help you understand the problems. To prepare, it would be wise for you to understand the reading proficiency of American students.

Reflect and Apply

The arguments about the quality of education in the United States are old and increasingly political. To help you understand this debate and think deeply about the important topics we discuss, we include Reflect and Apply sections periodically throughout the text. Ideally, with many facts at your disposal, you will discuss your responses with others—a study group, your class, or your course instructor.

1. Why do American politicians from both parties and their policy experts persistently push for reforming education, particularly reading instruction, in our schools? What motivates these reform efforts?
2. What are the three main strategies that have been employed to enhance reading achievement in the United States, and how successful have these efforts been? What approaches have yet to be tried to improve reading achievement?

THE READING PROFICIENCY AND HABITS OF OUR STUDENTS

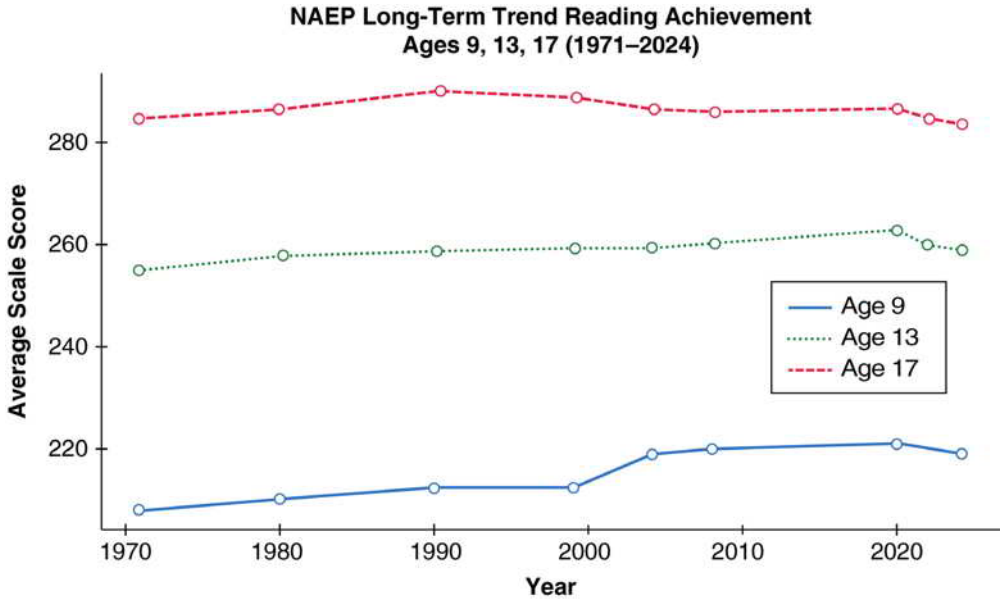
Understanding the reading skills of U.S. students is a complex challenge. We will guide you through the data, share our conclusions, and invite you to draw your own interpretations. There is no single correct answer in this exercise. To evaluate the reading proficiency of our students, we examine four key data sources that provide the most reliable large-scale information currently available: the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement known as PIRLS, the Programme for International Student Assessments (PISA), and some data directly comparing the reading skills of U.S. students in 1960 to today. We also analyze students' reading habits to see how much children and teens actually read. While teachers and schools influence reading achievement, the home environment and culture also play a significant role in how much children read, and reading volume influences reading achievement (Torppa et al., 2020).

Reading Proficiency

The federal government created NAEP 45 years ago to provide a regular report on U.S. students' achievement in reading and other academic subjects. In other words, it was designed to do exactly what we're trying to do here—show how U.S. students are performing in school. NAEP reports long-term trends in reading every two to four years for students aged 9, 13, and 17. **Figure 1.1** displays NAEP results since 1971 (NCES, 2022). The trend line for 17-year-olds is primarily flat, except for a noticeable decline starting in 2020, which coincides with the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. Scores did not rebound when students went back to school. The trend line for 9-year-olds (fourth grade) and 13-year-olds (eighth grade) shows a slight increase from 1971 to 1999, then a steeper rise from 1999 to 2012, indicating a modest improvement in reading for these age groups. The pandemic similarly affected fourth- and eighth-graders.

The picture becomes more complex when we look at the data by racial or ethnic groups. While the achievement gap between Black, White, and Hispanic students

FIGURE 1.1
U.S. Students Reading Proficiency 1971–2024

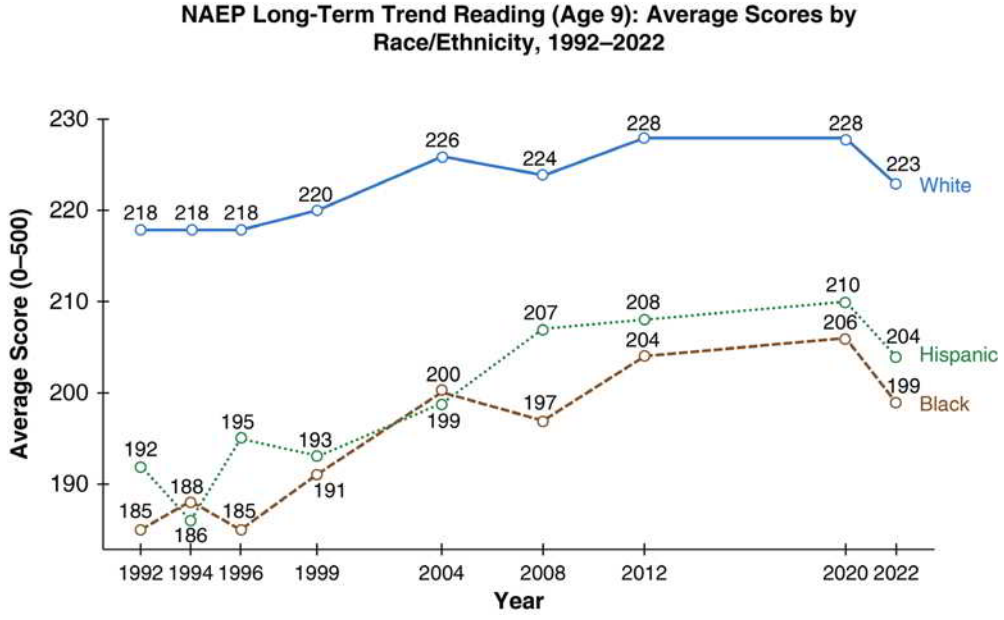


Source: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Educational Sciences, National Center for Educational Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Long-term trends. Reading 1971–2024.

has narrowed significantly since 1971, a notable performance gap remains among the three groups (see **Figure 1.2**). Hispanic and Black students score markedly below White students. Although overall reading achievement is improving, we still have work to do to ensure all children reach the same level of proficiency.

The most commonly cited NAEP statistic is the percentage of students who are "proficient" readers. Currently, 31% of fourth-graders are proficient in reading, and

FIGURE 1.2
Trends in NAEP Reading Average Scores and Score Gaps for White, Hispanic, and Black 9-Year-Olds



60% are at or above a basic level. That means 40% are below the basic level. The results for 13-year-olds are similar. It is essential to understand how well students at each level actually read. There is a perception that reading at a basic level is a significant problem. It is not. **Figure 1.3** describes what a basic and a proficient reader can do when reading informational text.

Students at a basic level can recognize words, read fluently, and demonstrate comprehension. At the proficient level, students can do more. They can understand words with multiple meanings, draw more inferences, and support their opinions with evidence from the text. This shows that the critics who cry about our reading crisis are partly correct. About 30% of fourth-graders struggle with word recognition and fluency and need more and better instruction in foundational skills like phonics. However, 30% of students have basic word recognition skills and need to work on knowledge development, vocabulary, and comprehension to reach a proficient level of reading.

The second way to evaluate American students' reading skills is to compare them with students in other countries. The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) was founded in the late 1950s to carry out international studies. Its latest reading survey, Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), was conducted during the 2021–22 school year in 65 countries (Mullis et al., 2023). **Figure 1.4** shows the results of this study, which gathered data from over 150,000 fourth-graders. As shown, the United States ranked eleventh among the 65 nations. It scored below Russia, Ireland, Finland, and England, tied with Finland, and above Poland and 32 other European, Asian,

FIGURE 1.3
Description of Basic and Proficient Readers on the National Assessment of Education Progress

NAEP Basic (208)	When reading informational texts such as articles and excerpts from books, fourth-grade students performing at the *NAEP Basic* level can likely • read fluently • determine the relevant meaning of familiar words using context from a single section of the text • locate a specific detail from the text and make simple inferences from one section of the text • restate a problem or solution presented in a single section of the text • provide a description of a text feature or author's craft using a general reference to the text • provide an opinion using a general reference to the text
NAEP Proficient (268)	When reading informational texts such as articles and excerpts from books, fourth-grade students performing at the *NAEP Proficient* level can likely do all listed at the basic level plus: • determine the relevant meaning of words with multiple meanings • use a specific detail from the text to make inferences or provide a description or an explanation about text features • provide an opinion with relevant support from the text • restate a problem or solution presented in a single section of the text • describe, explain, or draw conclusions about text structures (e.g., compare and contrast, cause and effect, sequence and order) • integrate ideas across a text to determine purpose and main idea

FIGURE 1.4
PIRLS Overall Reading Average Scores of Fourth-Grade Students, by Education System, 2021

Educational System	Overall Scaled Score
Singapore	587
Ireland	577
Hong Kong	573
Russian Federation	567
Northern Ireland	566
England	558
Croatia	557
Lithuania	552
Finland	549
Poland	549
United States	548
Chinese Taipei	544
Sweden	544
Australia	540
Bulgaria	539
Czechia	539
Hungary	539
Denmark	539
Norway	539
Italy	543
Slovenia	537
Macao (China)	536
Austria	530
Slovakia	529
Latvia	528
Netherlands	527
Germany	524
New Zealand	521
Spain	521
Portugal	520
Slovenia	525
Malta	515
France	514
Serbia	514

Educational System	Overall Scaled Score
Belgium (French)	511
Israel	510
Kazakhstan	504
PIRLS scale Centerpoint	500
Turkey	496
Belgium (French)	494
Georgia	494
Montenegro	487
Qatar	485
United Arab Emirates	483
Bahrain	458
Saudi Arabia	449
North Macedonia	443
Azerbaijan	440
Uzbekistan	437
Oman	429
Brazil	419
Iran	413

Source: Adapted from International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Progress in International Reading Study (PIRLS) 2021.

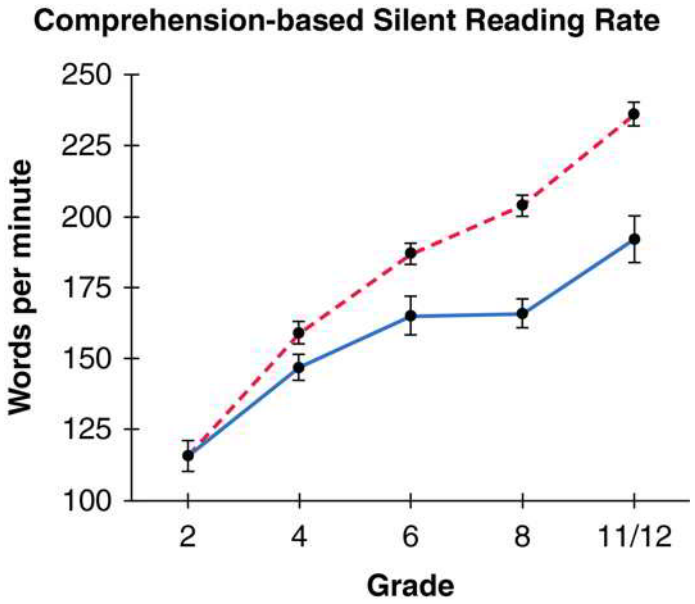
and Middle Eastern nations. Our students scored 48 points above the international average of 500. This is a solid result and not a cause for concern.

A second part of the PIRLS study, ePIRLS, looked at fourth-grade students' ability to read online for information (NCES, 2023). The study brought reading into the digital age and explored how students can select, interpret, and combine information while reading online. The students were given science and social studies tasks, each requiring them to read three websites, each with five to ten pages. They had to read text, analyze visual data, and engage with pop-up and animated activities. They used hyperlinks to navigate between sites and integrated visual and textual information. The assessment required students to answer both multiple-choice and constructed-response questions.

Twenty-one countries participated in the ePIRLS study. Students from the United States ranked eleventh out of 21 nations. Students from Singapore, Norway, and Ireland performed better than ours, which scored the same as students from Sweden and Denmark. Students from China (Taipei), Canada, Israel, Italy, Slovenia, Portugal, Georgia, and the United Arab Emirates scored significantly lower than ours. Two other findings are worth noting: our students performed better on the ePIRLS than on the regular PIRLS, and girls outperformed boys.

A third piece of evidence comes from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). PISA evaluates the reading, mathematics, and science skills of 15-year-olds (tenth-graders) in 51 countries worldwide (OECD, 2023). Adolescents

FIGURE 1.5
Comparing the Reading Proficiency of Students in 2016 to That in 1960



Source: Used with permission from Spichtig, et al., (2016). The decline of comprehension–based silent reading efficiency in the United States: A comparison of current data with performance in 1960. Reading Research Quarterly, 51(2), 239-259.

in the United States scored above average on these tests and ranked ninth among all participating nations. Our students perform similarly to those in Canada, New Zealand, and Hong Kong, with only Ireland, Singapore, Japan, and a few others scoring higher. The data also showed that, despite a decades-long decline in reading ability worldwide, U.S. students were among the few to buck this trend. More than 30% of our students reached one of the three highest literacy levels. These students can read complex, abstract texts and make sophisticated interpretations.

The final data compare the silent reading efficiency of U.S. students today with that of students in 1960 (Spichtig et al., 2016). In the study, two thousand students (from 2nd to 12th grade) from both decades read the same texts silently under identical conditions. The students' reading speeds and comprehension levels were measured. The study shows that the silent reading efficiency of U.S. students has decreased, with the most significant decline occurring at the secondary level.

Comprehension-based silent reading refers to how quickly students read when they comprehend a text well (Spichtig et al., 2016). The solid line on the graph is the scores in 2016, and the dotted line is the scores in 1960. Second-graders in 2016 and 1960 performed the same. The gap first appears among fourth-grade students and widens over the next eight years. When comprehending well, sixth-graders today read as fast as fourth-graders did in 1960. Students in middle school have reached a plateau, showing no growth over the years. Eleventh- and twelfth-graders today read about as well as sixth-graders in 1960. These data provide a partial explanation for why NAEP scores have changed little in middle school and high school. All this indicates that students today are less efficient readers.

Reading Behavior

American children, adolescents, and adults are reading less than they did 30 years ago, and this is significant. We know this from several kinds of data. NAEP regularly asks students how often they read for fun on their own. **Figure 1.6** shows some of those results.

FIGURE 1.6
Percentage of Fourth- and Eighth-Graders Who Report Reading for Fun Every Day

	Fourth-Graders		Eight-Graders	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
2024	42%	37%	19%	10%
1984	58%	49%	41%	30%

Source: National Center for Education Statistics. (2022). *Appendix tables: NAEP long-term trend reading age 9, average score results by selected characteristics, 1971–2022.* U.S. Department of Education.

The percentage of children and adolescents who frequently read for pleasure is declining. Less than 40% of fourth-graders read for pleasure every day, and fewer than 20% of 13-year-olds do so (Milliot, 2024). Thirty-nine percent of adolescents currently report never reading for enjoyment. The Pew Center has reported similar results, as did Scholastic, a major publisher of children's and adolescent books. Bone and her colleagues also report similar findings, along with the concerning detail that few parents regularly read to their children—less than 5% (Bone et al., 2025). Finally, book publishers note that book sales to the 9–12 age group continue to decrease at an accelerating rate. "Book sales for children 9–12 have been weak for several years, and the new report showed that print unit sales of middle grade books fell 5% in the first half of 2024 compared to the same period in 2023" (Milliot, 2024).

The decline matters because reading volume affects the development of reading fluency, vocabulary growth, and comprehension skills. Fluency, or the ability to read with pace and expression, improves through practice with easier materials, such as books like *The Diary of a Wimpy Kid* and *The Lightning Thief*. In 1988, fifth-graders who read 20 minutes or more outside of school encountered 1,800,000 words, many of which were new and many of which they learned (Anderson et al., 1988). Children who read only 3 minutes a day outside of school encountered just 200,000 words. Students who are not reading outside of school are building vocabulary only through what teachers teach.

Summary

The best available data indicate a cautiously optimistic outlook for U.S. students' reading skills. Our students perform as well as or better than peers in other industrialized countries and handle digital tasks similarly to students in other nations. However, silent reading comprehension has notably declined in the upper grades, suggesting that reading has become more difficult for many. By fourth grade, most students can read simple texts and answer straightforward questions. But as texts become more challenging—the kind middle-grade students are expected to manage—a large percentage of middle school students struggle with comprehension, and a significant portion of high school seniors face similar difficulties. When both texts and questions grow more complex—such as the materials needed to understand political and social issues or to appreciate advanced literature—very few students, even those nearing high school graduation, can comprehend them effectively.

Even more important is the gap between White, Hispanic, and Black students. This gap in reading proficiency has persisted for over thirty years, with only minor improvements. This also reflects an economic disparity, with students from higher-income families scoring higher than those from lower-income families (Romeo et al., 2022). Students from lower-income households often have less access to books, print, and other literacy activities and may face more psychological stress (Snow et al., 1991; van Hippel, 2018).

Educators and policymakers who adhere to a narrow view of the science of reading have identified only half or less of our literacy challenges. While explicit, systematic phonics instruction is crucial, it is not sufficient. Students must expand their vocabularies through extensive reading and develop critical thinking about what they read.

Some believe that everything about reading can be taught by a knowledgeable teacher who explains and models the core of the reading process. However, much about reading is learned through reading itself. As Share (1999) emphasizes, reading is a self-teaching system. Through reading, students develop fluency, vocabulary, and the knowledge necessary for comprehension. Teachers, of course, need to teach students to read, but they also need to spark interest so that students become motivated to read.

The challenge for you, as a teacher, and for us, as authors, is to present approaches and strategies that will ensure all students can succeed. It's not enough for students to pass their state reading test; we want them to become engaged and avid readers who read for pleasure, information, and sometimes as a means of escape.

Literacy for Today's and Tomorrow's World

Understanding how well U.S. students read is crucial; equally important is understanding current literacy standards and how they are evolving. In the past, literacy was defined as the ability to sign one's name. At another time, it meant being able to read aloud a simple, familiar text—often a Bible passage (Kirsch & Jungeblut, 1986). Today, while there is no single definition of literacy, there is widespread agreement that everyone needs a much higher level of literacy than in the past and this demand will likely continue to grow. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development offers this definition: "Literacy in the 21st century involves the capacity to use, understand, interpret, and communicate across a range of media, including print, digital, visual, and multimedia texts. It requires critical thinking, problem-solving, collaboration, and ethical use of information to participate fully in society" (OECD, 2023).

Present-day literacy involves much more than passively absorbing words on a page. Reading requires developing a deep understanding of what is read, retaining key information, connecting new knowledge to existing understanding, knowing when and where to apply that information, and using it appropriately in various contexts both inside and outside of school. It also requires effective communication with others. Literacy today demands that readers *do* something as a result of reading, not just acquire knowledge. Furthermore, modern literacy means readers must be able to handle a range of texts—not only short stories, novels, and history books, but also tax forms, detailed instructions for complex machines, and texts that aim to inform and persuade us about important political, economic, and social issues. These issues cannot be fully understood from brief sound bites on Apple News or MSNow, or from a TikTok video.

More and more, literacy involves knowing how to navigate the Internet, read digital texts, and make complex decisions about the accuracy of information on various websites, blogs, and tweets. These skills are called New Literacies (Leu et al., 2015). The Internet is becoming the primary textbook today, and for most people, it will be the textbook of the future. The strategies used for printed textbooks and informational trade books must be replaced by new approaches. Readers now need to search for information using keywords, verify the credibility of websites, and synthesize information from multiple sources. Lessons on these search tools will replace lessons on using the Table of Contents and the Index of a textbook.

Some suspect that reading digital text differs from reading print posing new challenges for all readers. With digital text, we often resort to skimming, sacrificing deep understanding. With these new literacies, "instead of hiking the trail yourself, the trees, rock, and moss move past you in flashes with no trace of what came before and no way to see what lies ahead" (Jabr, 2013, p. 48). Kaufman and Flanagan (2016) demonstrated that young adults reach higher levels of abstraction when reading on conventional paper than when reading on screens. "The ever-increasing demand of multitasking, divided attention, and information overload that individuals encounter in their use of digital technologies may cause them to 'retreat' to the less cognitively demanding lower end of the concrete-abstract continuum" (Kaufman & Flanagan, 2016, p. 2774).

While we have emphasized reading for information through print and digital sources, we do not mean to overlook the importance of reading fiction. Not only does fiction bring pleasure, but it also teaches us what it means to be human. Fiction fosters empathy by requiring us to immerse ourselves in others' lives (Kidd & Castrano, 2013). It enhances language skills and cultural understanding. Through fiction, we explore values and gain insights into justice, caring, and relationships. Fiction nurtures moral reflection and self-awareness (McAdams, 2011). People use stories to understand others and build their personal identity. Fictional texts such as *The Odyssey*, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and *To Kill a Mockingbird* teach us about the communities we belong to and the values that guide our lives.

Literacy also involves the desire to read for enjoyment and information. Without motivation and the habit of reading, advanced reading skills are unlikely to develop. Today, teaching children to read is only half the challenge; we also need to motivate them to read. When devices like the iPad, Xbox, and Snapchat are more captivating than a novel, and TikTok sound bites are easier to consume than *The New York Times*, encouraging reading becomes harder. Building a love for reading and inspiring children to use print for information might be our most difficult task, and we have yet to create an effective curriculum for it. A child who can read but chooses not to has no advantage over one who cannot read.

To be sure, elementary and middle school students do not read all of the complex texts we have discussed here, but their early reading experiences should lay a foundation for tackling complex material in the future. Additionally, because many children are economically disadvantaged, we must work especially hard to significantly enhance reading instruction and increase opportunities for these students to read (NCES, 2023). We especially need to boost all children's higher-order skills and their desire to explore answers in complex materials. We must nurture and motivate students to become competent readers who are eager to read in today's increasingly complex and demanding world.

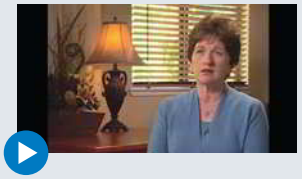
Reflect and Apply

3. Suppose you're sitting with a small group of parents at a school open house when one woman abruptly asks why today's students read so poorly compared to those in earlier years. A man quickly agrees and, with similar abruptness, questions why American children can't read as well as kids in other countries. Craft a response that cites data to reassure these parents that U.S. students are actually performing quite well.
4. The concept of present-day literacy is complex. At this point, describe your understanding of the concept in a paragraph or two. Keep your description and add to it as you gain a broader knowledge of present-day literacy in later chapters.

THE READING PROCESS

The reading process describes how we read and how children learn to read. No matter what you learn about teaching reading from this textbook, your university courses, in-service sessions, Pinterest, or discussions with other teachers, much of what you do in the classroom will stem from your personal understanding of the reading process. The variety of teaching options available, the diverse needs of different students, and the unique specifics of each teaching situation make it impossible to predict all the decisions about literacy instruction you will face each day. However, understanding a reader's mental processes while reading can help you make wise choices.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.2



Two experts, Connie Juel and Freddy Hiebert, present their view on how reading develops, what problems lie ahead for some children, and what needs to be done to overcome these difficulties. Keep these ideas in mind as you read more about the reading process.

Reading instruction is often swayed by trends, leading educators to adopt a new trend only to abandon it when trends change. Publishers create numerous reading programs, all claiming to be "research-based." Each new program is marketed as "new and improved," similar to a box of Tide, and is "guaranteed" to solve students' reading problems and motivate them to reach high literacy levels. In addition to these published programs, teachers can access millions of resources on Teachers Pay Teachers, Pinterest, and hundreds of other websites. Much of what is found online is poorly designed, not very helpful, and often misleads you and your students. The best way to deal with the myriad claims of publishers and the activities available on websites is to have a clear understanding of how we read and how children learn to read.

Models of Reading

Today, most discussions about reading begin with a model of the reading process. Models illustrate, through simple language and visuals, the different parts of a process and how they work together. You've probably seen models of the circulatory and solar systems; now, we will introduce models of how reading functions. "Models are metaphors that help us visualize and understand research and theories that explain the components of the reading process" (Ruddell & Unrau, 2004, p. 1116). Currently, several models influence how we understand reading, including the Simple View of Reading (Hoover & Gough, 1990), the Rope Model (Scarborough, 2001), the cognitive-constructive view of reading, and its related Construction-Integration Model (Kintsch, 1998).

Box, a well-known statistician, highlighted the advantages and limitations of models. He wrote, "Essentially all models are wrong, but some are useful" (Box & Draper, 1987, p. 424). Models are helpful when they help you understand how children read, when they guide your interpretations of assessment data, and when they lead you to make better instructional decisions. All this improves your instruction and enhances children's reading and well-being (Reinking & Yaden, 2021).

The Simple View of Reading

The Simple View of Reading (refer to **Figure 1.7**) posits that reading comprehension is the product of decoding and language comprehension (Hoover & Gough, 1990). If students possess strong decoding skills, they can read the words, and with adequate language comprehension skills, they should be able to understand the texts they are reading. Weak decoding and weak language skills undermine reading comprehension.

If a student has weak decoding skills, their reading comprehension will be hindered. Likewise, if a student has weak language comprehension but strong decoding skills (a somewhat unlikely scenario), comprehension will be similarly affected. The Simple View of Reading is useful because it reminds you to focus your instruction on the two main components of reading: decoding words and developing language skills.

There is no shortage of criticism of the Simple View of Reading; it has almost created its own industry (Duke & Cartwright, 2021; Kirby & Savage, 2008; Paris, 2025; Snow, 2018)—most critiques focus on the fact that reading is not a simple process. Decoding alone requires paying attention to the sounds within words, mapping sounds to letters, recognizing words, and doing so fluently and with expression (Paris, 2026). Comprehension is even more complex, requiring skills beyond oral language

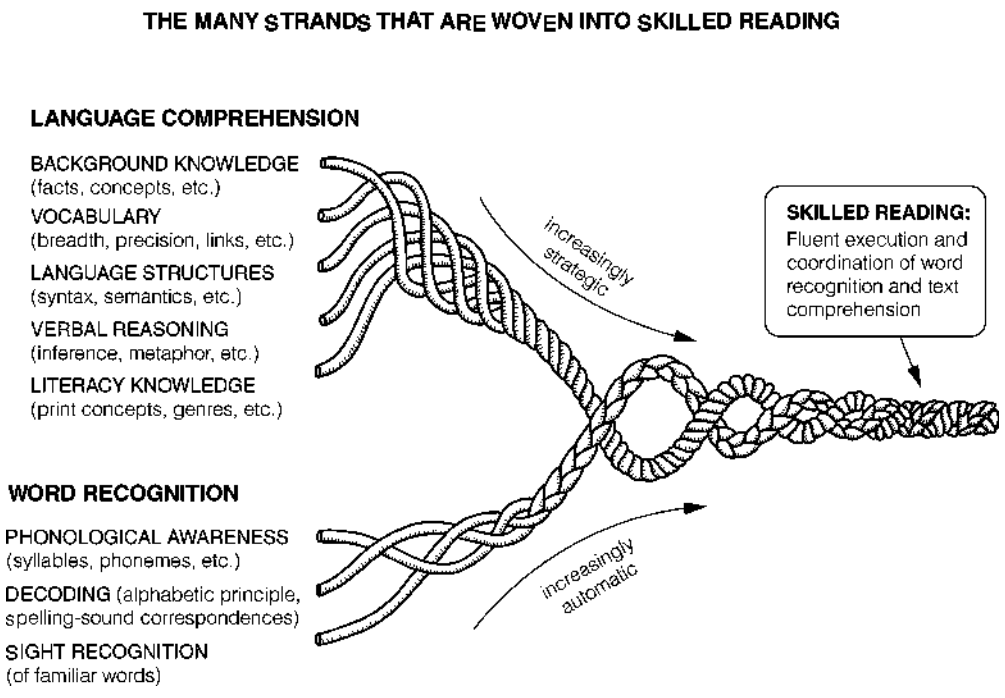
FIGURE 1.7
The Simple View of Reading

comprehension, such as understanding genre and text structure, setting purposes, and monitoring comprehension. Unlike oral language, the reader cannot ask the author what they meant (Duke & Cartwright, 2021). Finally, 21st-century reading demands analysis, synthesis, and critique, which go well beyond what is typically required in oral language comprehension. Because the Simple View is so, so simple, others have found the Rope model more informative (Scarborough, 2001). We present a diagram for the Rope model in **Figure 1.8**.

The Rope Model has more parts than the Simple View. It urges you to consider background knowledge, vocabulary, syntax, verbal reasoning, and genre knowledge as part of understanding language, and phonological awareness, decoding, and sight words as part of recognizing words. But the Rope Model has its weaknesses. Some components, like "language structure" and "verbal reasoning," are vague and do not clearly indicate what to teach. Additionally, the Rope Model offers no guidance on how to teach or develop these reading skills, when to do so, or how much time to spend on each and for which students (Kambach & Mesmer, 2024). The Rope Model says that the components of word recognition become more automatic, but it does not explain how to achieve this. Similarly, the components of language comprehension become more strategic—but how? It's impossible to create a curriculum based solely on either of these models. Additionally, both the Simple View and the Rope Model ignore motivation, and without motivation, developing readers make little progress.

Both the Simple View of Reading and the Rope Model present the components of reading, but neither explains how reading actually happens. We now need to consider reading as a process, not just a collection of parts. How do the marks on the page turn into ideas, thoughts, and feelings? Over the past 40 years, a widely accepted, balanced, and strongly supported view of the reading process has developed: the *cognitive-constructivist view*. This construct underpins how we approach reading instruction. In the next section, we explain several theories that elaborate on, complement, and supplement this concept.

FIGURE 1.8
Scarborough's Rope Model of Reading



Source: Used with permission from Scarborough, H.S. (2001). Connecting early language and literacy to later reading (dis)abilities: Evidence, theory, and practice. In S.B. Neuman & D.K. Dickinson (Eds.), Handbook of early literacy research (Vol. 1, pp. 97–110). Guilford.

The Cognitive-Constructivist View of Reading

The cognitive-constructivist view of reading emphasizes that reading is an active process in which readers seek meaning from what they read. Unlike the Simple View and the Rope Model, which largely overlook the process, the cognitive-constructivist approach explains how we read. In this view, the reader makes connections between ideas in the text and combines these understandings with prior knowledge. This search for meaning depends heavily on the reader having an existing store of knowledge. The active role of the reader is important because they actually construct much of the meaning they derive from the text they read.

For example, as Carmella reads Kate DiCamillo's *Because of Winn-Dixie,* she learns that India Opal is sad because her mother recently walked out on her and her father. Later in the book, when Carmella discovers that Amanda Wilkinson, a girl India Opal does not initially get along with, is sad because her younger brother recently died, Carmella can infer that Opal and Amanda share a similar experience and might become friends. Nothing in the text explicitly states this to Carmella; instead, the inference comes from her understanding that people who share similar experiences often become friends and from her active engagement with the text. This also suggests that Carmella can understand India Opal's feelings. Notice how teacher Martin Cummings highlights the use of background knowledge and encourages active processing with his sixth-graders (*In the Classroom 1.1*). Mr. Cummings helps students realize that readers actively seek meaning in what they read and that the meaning they create depends on their own knowledge of the world and its rules.

In the Classroom 1.1

Using Background Knowledge

Martin Cummings projected the first page from Sharon Flake's novel *The Skin I'm In* on the board:

> The first time I seen her, I got a bad feeling inside. Not like I was in danger or nothing. Just like she was somebody I should stay clear of. To tell the truth, she was a freak like me. The kind of person folks can't help but tease. That's bad if you're a kid like me.

He read the paragraph aloud to his sixth-graders and then said, "What does this paragraph tell us? What do you think after reading this?"

Chris: The narrator's someone young, maybe our age.

Mr. Cummings: What makes you think so?

Chris: 'Cause it says "a kid like me" and sounds like the way kids talk.

Lateisha: Yeah, Black kids, not White kids. I think the person talking is Black.

Mr. Cummings: So you think the narrator's Black? What else do we know about the narrator from this paragraph?

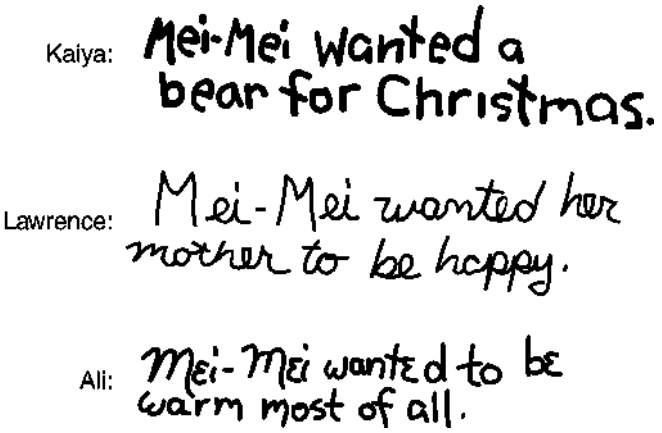
Kyle: She has a low opinion of herself.

Mr. Cummings: How do you know that?

Kyle: 'Cause she calls herself a freak.

The cognitive-constructive view of reading comes from cognitive psychology, which became the dominant approach in American psychology starting in the 1960s (Gardner, 1987). Cognitive psychologists see the learner and their background knowledge as central to learning. They also view learners as active participants who act on, rather than merely respond to, their external environment as they learn. Before cognitive psychology gained prominence, behaviorism ruled, and psychologists believed that human behavior is mainly shaped by rewards and punishments (Skinner, 1957).

FIGURE 1.9
Three Students' Responses to the Same Question About a Story They Read



Source: Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

In the cognitive view, reading is an active process in which the meaning the reader constructs from a text is heavily influenced by the mental effort they invest. Both the beginning reader—who we might observe carefully sounding out words as they read aloud—and the experienced reader, like Carmella—who seems to effortlessly absorb *Because of Winn-Dixie*—are actively engaged in making meaning from the text.

Constructivism highlights that understanding a text is an active process. It suggests that the meaning a person derives from a text is subjective—it results from that individual's own interpretation. Each reader's understanding is shaped by their experiences and unique mental framework. Because of this, different readers may interpret the same text in various ways (Burr, 2024). The three student journal entries shown in **Figure 1.9** demonstrate this idea. All three students responded to a prompt based on Feng Sun's picture book, *Mama Bear*. The story is about a girl who bakes and sells almond cookies to save enough money to buy a large, expensive stuffed bear for Christmas, believing it will help keep her and her mother warm. The students were asked: "What did Mei-Mei want most for Christmas?" Each answer in Figure 1.9 is, of course, correct, but each reflects a different perspective on the story.

Recognizing that constructivism emphasizes the subjectivity of meaning, we should also acknowledge that different texts vary significantly in how much they limit subjective meaning (Stanovich, 1994). An abstract poem might inspire many valid interpretations, but a manual that comes with your new EV car should inspire only one. Between these extremes, some texts allow for various degrees of individual interpretation. However, when reading straightforward stories and much informational material, most readers will arrive at quite similar interpretations. Constructivism is both a social and a psychological concept. Most constructivists stress that the social environment we live in greatly influences the meanings we find in our experiences, including our encounters with texts. Therefore, constructivism strongly encourages a variety of discussion styles and group activities in reading and learning (Burr, 2024).

Components of the Reading Process

The models we have presented provide high-level overviews of the very complex process of reading. They outline the broad strokes of the process but lack detailed specifics. Now, we will guide you more deeply into the reading process and examine its components, such as how we recognize words, understand their meanings, and comprehend the overall text. The components of reading we discuss here differ from the Simple View or the Rope model because we believe those models overlook essential aspects of reading (Duke & Carpenter, 2021).

Reading and Understanding Words

Word Recognition

Before the reader can make connections or apply their knowledge and experience to the text, they must first read the words. Reading is an ongoing, recursive process. Many operations happen at the same time, but we have chosen to focus on word recognition as a starting point for explaining how reading works. For a skilled reader, word recognition happens effortlessly and without conscious awareness. Most words are recognized automatically, with the reader processing all the letter-sound relationships at once or recognizing the word as a whole. Only when a new word appears, such as *Bangladesh,* does the reader realize that some process must be used to identify it. They might know they need to break the word into chunks or syllables and then use familiar patterns—like *ang, la, or esh*—to pronounce the unfamiliar word. Developing readers rely on phonics, letter-sound connections, and spelling patterns to sound out new words. These skills come naturally to some, but nearly all students need direct instruction to learn effective strategies for recognizing words. We will discuss these developmental stages when we examine word recognition in Chapters 7 and 8.

Automaticity

Achieving automatic word recognition is crucial because automaticity underpins reading skills. Perfetti (2007) has developed a comprehensive theory of word-reading efficiency that links fluent word recognition to the automatic retrieval of word meanings from memory. When you see the word *cantankerous*, you should read it effortlessly and instantly understand its meaning, knowing it reminds you of an unpleasant uncle. If not, you resort to decoding the pronunciation and using context clues, word parts, or the dictionary to determine its meaning.

The concept of automaticity is both important and simple. An automatic activity is one that we can do easily and with very little attention. As LaBerge and Samuels (1974) noted in their pioneering work on automaticity in reading, the mind's limited attentional capacity means we can only focus on one thing at a time. Recent research suggests that, contrary to popular belief, multitasking is almost impossible unless one task is automatic and requires no attention, such as listening to music on your iPhone (Ophir et al., 2009). If we try to pay attention to too many things at once, we will fail. For example, most of us can drive in heavy traffic, but if it's a new car and we try to control the heater, use navigation, and tune the radio all at once, we may cause an accident. Drivers' attention spans are limited, and a new car with many electronic gadgets will test them even more.

Reading involves multiple subprocesses that must occur simultaneously, including recognizing words, assigning meanings to words, understanding sentences and larger chunks, and linking the text to prior knowledge. Unless some of these processes are automatic, readers can't do all of this at once. When we talk to students about all this, we use the word fluency. "Fluency combines accuracy, automaticity, and oral-reading prosody, which, taken together, facilitate the reader's construction of meaning" (Schwanenflugel & Kuhn, 2015, p. 7). The concept of fluency should also include endurance, as good readers can sustain fluent reading from page to page. Fluency is not just an oral phenomenon—it applies to silent reading as well. Because fluent readers can decode a text automatically, they can decode and comprehend simultaneously, resulting in oral reading that is accurate, smooth, relatively rapid, and properly expressed. To become fluent readers, students need to engage in plenty of silent reading of material they find interesting, enjoyable, and relatively easy. Some students who are not easily motivated to read benefit from various reading activities or lessons designed to build fluency. Students might take turns reading with a partner or echo read what the teacher reads (Rasinski, 2003). These and many other techniques for developing fluent readers, along with the essential skills that support fluent reading, are discussed in Chapter 9.

Achieving fluency is often especially difficult for students learning English as a second language. Besides following the same steps as native speakers, non-native

speakers may need to translate English words into their own language to understand their meaning. Therefore, becoming automatic in processing words and fluent in reading texts is very important for English language learners.

English learners need a strong focus on vocabulary to develop reading fluency. It is both difficult and unnatural to read a passage quickly and with expression if it is not understood. To enhance fluency, teachers must actively expand students' vocabulary. As students encounter new words, teachers should discuss their meanings and connect them to students' existing knowledge. Visual aids, such as pictures, support understanding of new words and concepts, especially for young learners. Emphasizing cognates helps create links between students' first and second languages. For example, *artista* means *artist* and *conflicto* means *conflict*.

Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for learning to read and understanding what you read. Children who begin school with a strong vocabulary tend to progress more quickly in learning to read. Students from disadvantaged backgrounds who start with smaller vocabularies often struggle more with word recognition and comprehension (Language and Reading Research Consortium, 2015; August et al., 2005). Vocabulary, or word knowledge, is vital for comprehension, and the relationship between vocabulary and comprehension is reciprocal. Reading engaging and challenging texts that promote understanding helps expand a student's vocabulary. If a reader doesn't grasp the meaning of key words in a text, comprehension suffers. Teaching vocabulary improves comprehension. This is true for both native English speakers and English learners.

Building vocabulary knowledge requires a comprehensive instructional program with many components (Graves, 2016, 2022). Students need rich language experiences in the classroom, such as interactive read-alouds, engaging discussions, and plenty of time for independent reading. Teachers must directly teach individual words, especially those crucial for understanding texts. They should also help students develop word-learning strategies so they can use word parts, context clues, and the dictionary to infer word meanings. Since reading is a self-teaching process, if students have the right tools and opportunities to use them, they will learn new words independently (Seidenberg et al., 2020; Share, 1995). Finally, teachers should foster word consciousness so that students find words interesting and enjoyable to learn. In Chapter 10, we will focus directly on vocabulary instruction.

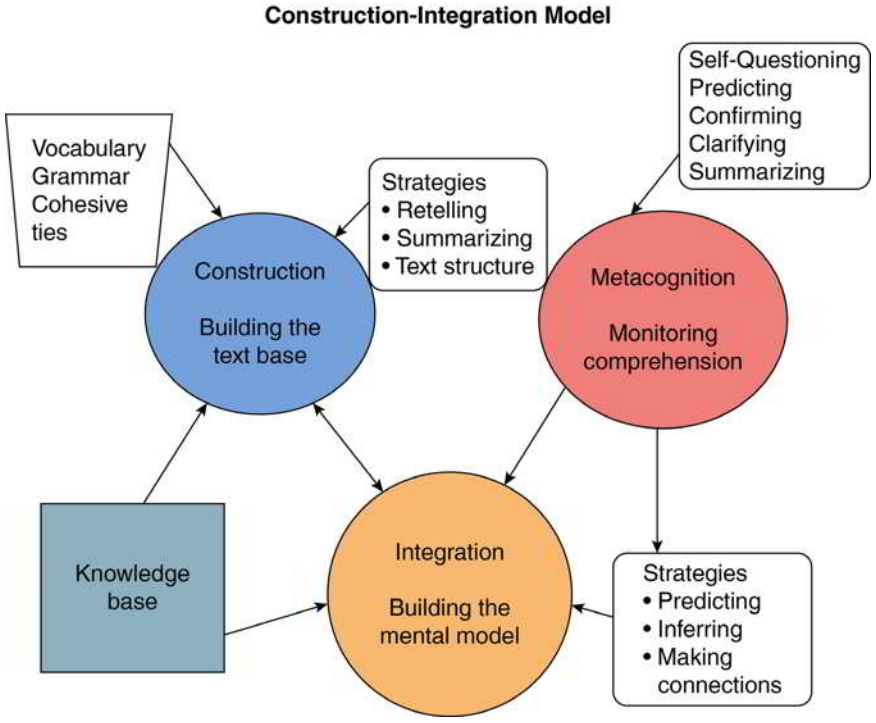
The Process of Comprehension: The Construction-Integration Process

Construction-Integration

Comprehension is the goal of reading. We can break down the comprehension process into at least three recursive steps—construction, integration, and metacognition. To understand this process, we turn to the clearest theory—the construction-integration model, a detailed example of constructivism. Developed by Kintsch (1998, 2004) and others, the process begins with construction, where the reader comprehends sentences and connects ideas from one sentence to the next. Integration is the use of prior knowledge to expand and interpret the meaning the author presents. Consider these three sentences: *John got a cup of coffee. It was very hot. There is now a big mess on the rug.* Construction is needed to link the first sentence to the second. The pronoun *it* refers to both the coffee and its temperature. These links or connections are called anaphoric relationships. The first two sentences are integrated with the third when the reader, using their prior knowledge, infers that the hot coffee was dropped, possibly onto an expensive rug. In the final phase, metacognition, the reader confirms that this explanation makes sense.

The construction-integration process is demonstrated in **Figure 1.10**. The reader first applies their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar to understand each sentence, a crucial step in oral language comprehension. Then, the reader connects one sentence

FIGURE 1.10
The Construction-Integration Model of Comprehension



Source: Based on Kintsch, W. (1998). *Comprehension: A paradigm for cognition.* Cambridge University Press.

or idea to another using their knowledge of cohesive ties or anaphoric relationships in language. A reader understands that words like *but* and *however* indicate that the next idea qualifies the previous one; that *because* and *since* show a cause-and-effect relationship; and that *some* and *few* refer to a portion of ideas already mentioned. As the reader links ideas through these cohesive ties, they create a textbase—a relatively literal understanding of the text. A textbase is temporary and may be what a reader can immediately recall if they stop reading in the middle of a passage and is asked to retell it.

To preserve this textbase, the reader combines textual information and prior knowledge to build a mental model, often called a situation model. It is called a situation model because the reader's knowledge and attitudes, along with the social context, influence the meaning they construct. This is the core of the constructivist process. When reading the text—*Mary looked at the menu carefully, trying to find the cheapest entrée, while John gazed lovingly into her eyes*—we immediately understand that Mary and John are in a restaurant, that Mary is concerned about money or at least wants to make a good impression, and that John is smitten. We use our prior knowledge to interpret the text.

When psychologists first developed this constructivist view of cognition and reading, they aimed to explain how readers use knowledge and named this process schema theory. Schema theory emphasizes how knowledge is stored in our minds, how we apply it, and how it develops. According to the theory, knowledge is organized into structures called *schemata*. David Rumelhart (1980) states that schemata make up our understanding of "objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, and sequences of actions." We have schemata for objects like a house, for situations like being in a class, for events such as going to a football game, and for sequences like getting up, eating, showering, and going to work.

When we read the small scene with John and Mary, we use our dating schema to interpret the text. When a couple is having dinner together in a restaurant, it's likely a date. The words *menu* and *entrée* evoke the setting—a restaurant. *Gazed lovingly* signals affection and reinforces the idea of a date. The word *cheapest* in the phrase

cheapest entrée indicates Mary's lack of money or her sensitivity to John's financial situation. We interpret our experiences—whether direct encounters with the world or vicarious experiences gained through reading—by comparing and, in most cases, matching them to existing schemata, which form a vast and complex network of interrelationships. When we read about a cricket match our comprehension breaks down because most Americans lack prior knowledge or the experience necessary to understand the game of cricket. These networks of *organized* knowledge are virtually endless and make up much of the intellectual capital available to human beings.

One important result of readers having extensive, internalized networks of schemata is that once a specific schema is activated, a large store of knowledge becomes immediately accessible. Even when watching a movie, the director relies on us having a rich background of information or schemata to fill in gaps. The more we understand about the topic, the easier it is to handle and learn more about it. Schemata help the reader initially interpret what they read by connecting new information to prior knowledge, assessing the importance of details in a text, making inferences, and retaining information (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Hattan et al., 2024). Reading, science, and social studies curricula can be designed so that what students learn in kindergarten provides a foundation, schemata, for future learning in later grades (Kim et al., 2024). You will learn more about this curriculum in Chapter 12.

Good readers rely on both the text and their background knowledge to construct meaning. As teachers, we need to provide students with texts and tasks that encourage this interaction between the text and what they already know. Sometimes we err by giving too little background knowledge, which harms comprehension; other times, we give too much, preventing students from constructing meaning from challenging text, an experience that fosters a sense of accomplishment.

Metacognition

The third part of the construction-integration process is metacognition. You must monitor the meaning-building process and ensure the text makes sense (Duke & Cartwright, 2021). Think of your mind's eye, a part of your brain that observes your own thinking, giving a thumbs-up when things are progressing well and a thumbs-down and stopping the process when it doesn't make sense. Being actively aware of your understanding while reading and being able to fix misunderstandings when comprehension breaks down are crucial skills for becoming an effective reader, and lacking these metacognitive skills is a significant problem for poor readers.

Metacognitive readers can step back mentally and observe their own reading process. By stepping outside of themselves, they become self-regulated learners—learners who develop thoughts, feelings, and strategies that help them achieve their learning goals (Cartwright & Palian, 2024). Skilled readers possess different kinds of metacognitive knowledge, as shown in **Figure 1.11**.

Metacognition starts with setting a purpose—why am I reading this? For instance, at the start of this section, you might have realized that you lack prior knowledge about metacognition (self-knowledge), observed that the section is brief (task knowledge), and decided that rereading it several times would be helpful (strategy knowledge). Therefore, you showed metacognitive knowledge even before you began reading.

Strategies

To keep the meaning construction process on track and to address comprehension challenges, the mature reader has access to a set of cognitive tools or strategies. For example, if a reader encounters an unknown word while reading, a reasonable response would be to read ahead a bit to see if the context suggests a meaning; this is a strategy, something done automatically or deliberately to aid meaning construction. The list of comprehension strategies varies among experts, but most agree that readers need to: set a purpose for reading, preview a text, predict, activate prior

FIGURE 1.11
Types of Metacognitive Knowledge

Types of Metacognitive Knowledge	What We Say to Ourselves
Self-Knowledge	"I love figuring out clues in detective stories."
	"If the book is too long, I know I won't finish it."
Task Knowledge	"It is best to skim the chapter first to learn what it is about, before reading it to take notes."
	"I wonder, what is the author's point? Why did he write this book?"
Strategy Knowledge	"When I get stuck on a word, I never use a dictionary and I should."
	"I am going to summarize this section of the chapter to see if I understand it."

Source: Based on Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (Eds.). (1998). *Self-regulated learning: From teaching to self-reflective practice.* Guilford Press.

knowledge, monitor and clarify, draw inferences, self-question, and summarize or retell (Dewitz & Graves, 2024). Some strategies help drive the construction of the textbase, others assist in developing the mental model, and still others support metacognition. A strategy like self-questioning might accomplish all three. Asking questions before reading helps to establish a purpose and build a mental model. Asking questions during reading, especially inferential ones, can promote the integration of text information and prior knowledge. When a reader asks a question after reading a section of text, the question helps the reader check their understanding. **Figure 1.12** categorizes these research-based comprehension strategies by their functions. Some strategies serve multiple purposes.

In reading instruction, we often use the terms comprehension skills and strategies interchangeably (Afflerbach et al., 2008). In some curricula, finding the main idea is termed a skill, while determining importance is viewed as a strategy (Dewitz et al., 2009). In reality, these skills and strategies are the same and involve a type of thinking crucial for getting to the gist. Most comprehension processes start as strategies that require intentional thought and effort. Over time, these strategies can become automatic, allowing readers to make inferences or ask questions without conscious effort. Our goal is to develop readers who are both skillful and strategic.

Reading online requires different strategies than reading printed texts. Afflerbach and Cho (2009) suggest that Internet reading demands a different approach because

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.3

This third-grade teacher is explicit about reading comprehension, describing her thinking about how to understand characters in a work of fiction. List the number of suggestions she makes to her students.

FIGURE 1.12
How Comprehension Strategies Affect the Process of Meaning Construction

Textbase (Strategies that help readers relate ideas to each other)	**Mental Model** (Strategies that help readers relate text ideas to prior knowledge)	**Metacognition** (Strategies that help readers monitor and repair comprehension)
Making anaphoric connection	Predicting	Self-questioning
Retelling	Making inferences	Predicting-confirming
Summarizing	Making connections	Clarifying
Using narrative structure	Self-questioning	Rereading
Using text structure		Summarizing

readers encounter multiple texts, images, or videos and must decide how and when to switch among them. Some of us, especially children, are not yet familiar with this new media (Le Bigot & Rouet, 2007). Compared to reading a single text, Internet reading involves more decisions about what to read and when (Afflerbach & Cho, 2009). The purpose of reading must stay clear; otherwise, the disciplined reader risks becoming a random shopper. Leu and his colleagues (2015) argue that specific categories of strategies are necessary for Internet reading. These include defining the problem, locating information sources with keyword searches, critically evaluating the information and judging its trustworthiness, deciding how useful the information is, and integrating information from multiple websites.

Motivation

Comprehension involves more than just skill; it also depends on *motivation*. Students need to care about understanding and be motivated to think critically and apply strategies, especially when dealing with complex texts. Knowledge and strategies alone can only take the reader so far; the reader must genuinely want to understand the material (Alexander, 2003). Although none of the reading models we discussed included a motivation element, Patricia Alexander's model does. In her lifespan model, knowledge, strategies, self-regulation, interest, and motivation are all vital for developing reading ability. The reader must have a clear purpose for reading, and if they don't, teachers should help students find their interests and build motivation. The goal of reading instruction goes beyond simply creating better readers. Reading is a tool for enjoying texts and gaining insight into ourselves, others, and the world. Becoming skilled in comprehension strategies can increase motivation because readers learn they can tackle complex texts and succeed. In the *Teaching Tool 1.1*, important motivational tools are presented.

Teaching Tool 1.1

How to Create a Motivating Classroom

1. Read interesting texts. Most texts explicitly written for teaching comprehension (instructional websites, workbooks, and leveled books) lack the interest of authentic novels, magazines, and informational trade books (Dewitz et al., 2010).
2. Allow students some choice in what they read. Giving students choices helps them feel a sense of control. It also allows them to explore the genres they enjoy—mysteries, adventures, and fantasy—and follow their own curiosity.
3. Create tasks that students value. Reading to become a better reader is not as motivating as reading to learn about sharks or enjoying the thrill of a murder mystery.
4. Focus on student efficacy. When students believe they have the tools to succeed—strategies and knowledge—and attribute their success to their own abilities, their motivation grows. Students develop a sense of control and confidence.
5. Challenge your students. Many students enjoy challenging projects. It is rewarding to read something difficult and produce a complex report.
6. Stress competition at times. Some students thrive on competition. They like doing better than their peers or better than they did before.
7. Stress the social relatedness of learning. For many students, working in groups and being part of a larger effort are essential catalysts for effort.
8. Minimize the use of points, pizza, and other extraneous rewards.

Other Theories of Comprehension

As we mentioned earlier in this chapter, people interpret a text in different ways. The meaning each person constructs depends on their purpose for reading, their background and beliefs, and the social context in which they read. Take the Second Amendment to the U.S. Constitution.

> *A well-regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms shall not be infringed.*

A political liberal who supports stricter gun controls emphasizes the "*well-regulated militia*" part of the sentence and suggests that guns are meant for militias. Individuals do not have unlimited rights to firearms. Conservative political thinkers focus on the "*right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed*" and prefer minimal gun control. Each group interprets the same sentence differently.

Along with constructivism and the construction-integration model, two other theories compete to explain how we read and how we should read. These theories are New Criticism (Ransom, 1979; Brooks & Warren, 1938) and Reader Response Theory (Rosenblatt, 1938/1995, 1978). Each of these theories can be incorporated into the construction-integration model and each highlights how the situation model is constructed. All of these theories are relevant to how to teach reading in today's classrooms.

New Criticism holds that meaning resides in the text and that the reader's task is to find and interpret it. Apparently, the New Critics did not engage with the Second Amendment. A contemporary example of New Criticism is close reading (Boyles, 2012; Fisher & Frye, 2014), a style of reading in which the reader pays close attention to the ideas in the text and, if possible, minimizes the role of prior knowledge in constructing meaning. One consortium of educators that developed assessments for the CCSS offered this definition of close reading.

> Close, analytic reading stresses engaging with a text of sufficient complexity directly and examining meaning thoroughly and methodically, encouraging students to read and reread deliberately. Directing student attention to the text itself empowers students to understand the central ideas and key supporting details. It also enables students to reflect on the meanings of individual words and sentences; the order in which sentences unfold; and the development of ideas over the course of the text, which ultimately leads students to arrive at an understanding of the text as a whole. (PARCC, 2019, p. 7)

Close reading makes sense when you are trying to ferret out the mean of a Robert Frost poem or the conditions of your auto insurance policy. Close reading makes less sense when you are gripped by an exciting adventure story. How we read depends on the text and our purpose. Even as close reading and reader-response theory share a focus on the transaction between the reader and text, reader-response theory focuses more on the reader than the text. The meaning a person gets from a text comes from a transaction between the reader and the text. Readers will have a variety of responses to a literary work. Over the past 30 years, reader-response theory has significantly influenced literature instruction (Galda & Graves, 2007; Marshall, 2000). When reading complex literary texts, students will interpret them in different ways. Many literary texts do not have a single correct interpretation, and readers should be encouraged to develop multiple interpretations—if they can support their ideas.

One important fact to remember when considering reader-response theory is that it primarily applies to literary texts and specific reading goals. Rosenblatt (1978) explains that there are two main types of reading: efferent (informational) reading and aesthetic reading. In efferent reading, the reader's main focus is on what they will take away—what information they will learn. Much of the reading done by both students and adults is aimed at learning new information, answering questions, figuring out how to complete a task, or gaining knowledge to solve a particular problem. Most reading in subjects like health, science, math, and geography is informational. These texts, unlike many literary texts, often limit meaning significantly, don't

invite many interpretations, and should produce similar interpretations for different readers (Stanovich, 1994).

Aesthetic reading is quite different. In aesthetic reading, the main focus isn't on what students remember about a text after they've read it, but on what happens to them while they read. The primary goal during aesthetic reading isn't to gather information but to experience the text. Although the aesthetic reader needs to understand the text, they must also "pay attention to associations, feelings, attitudes, and ideas" that the text evokes (Rosenblatt, 1978). When we are in the throes of a novel, we are living in that experience. Generally, literature is written to offer an aesthetic experience. Most adults read literature for enjoyment; they don't read it primarily to learn, even though we often do learn from it. Students also need opportunities to have similar experiences. We explore aesthetic reading further in Chapter 11 when discussing narrative texts and an instructional routine called literature circles. Before concluding our discussion on meaning construction, we should consider one more important and influential theory, sociocultural theory.

Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory broadens and extends the influence of the cognitive-constructivist perspective beyond just the reader and the text into the broader social context. Learning is seen primarily as a social process rather than an individual one. This theory still closely resembles constructivism, emphasizing that learning is an active, constructive process and that what is learned is subjective. As explained by its originator, Vygotsky (1978), or by Vygotskian scholars such as Wertsch (1998), sociocultural theory is intricate. Nonetheless, its implications for reading and learning can be summarized.

First, students' social and cultural backgrounds have a significant and undeniable impact on their learning. Unless we as teachers take students' social backgrounds and modes of learning and thinking into account, little learning is likely to occur. Second, because learning is inherently social, much learning—especially the most effective and lasting types—happens when groups of learners collaborate. Dialogue—an exchange of ideas and face-to-face discussion in which students aim to be understood and to grasp others' perspectives—is a fundamental part of learning. Third, the classroom, the school, and various student communities within a classroom are social environments that greatly influence what is or isn't learned, and each must be thoughtfully considered in planning and implementing instruction.

To illustrate how these various theories of meaning construction operate within the same book, we take you into a fourth-grade classroom where the students are reading Phyllis Reynolds Naylor's *Shiloh. In the Classroom 1.2* offers a segment of that instruction.

In the Classroom 1.2

How Students Construct Meaning

In Ms. Gladwell's fourth-grade classroom, one of her groups is reading *Shiloh,* a novel about Marty, an 11-year-old who rescues an abused dog and faces several moral dilemmas. This is the first novel they will read during the school year, and for several students, it is the first novel they have ever read. As the students read and discuss the book, Ms. Gladwell is aware that she must address their comprehension from an efferent, or close-reading, perspective while allowing for an aesthetic response to the text. She hopes they become captivated by Marty's problem. Several theories of comprehension underlie her instruction.

At the start of the novel, Ms. Gladwell has students focus on the facts and the text's structure. They create a character list and draw a map of the setting. In the character list, they identify each major character and their relationships with others. Characters are added to the chart as they are introduced in the text. Ms. Gladwell

writes the list on a large sheet of chart paper and students copy it into their readers' notebooks. They are encouraged to update their list as they discover new information (Collinge & Robinson, 2015).

Character List

- Marty—11 years old, likes animals
- Dara Lynn—Marty's sister
- Becky—Marty's sister
- Ma—Mother
- Dad—a hunter, kind toward dogs
- Shiloh—a skinny beagle
- Judd Travers—Shiloh's owner, a hunter, cruel to his dogs

Starting from this largely efferent stance—gathering information and focusing on text structure—the teacher gradually guides students toward an interpretive mindset. As the students move into the second quarter of the novel, they uncover the moral dilemmas that trouble Marty. Marty wants to rescue Shiloh from his abusive owner, Judd, but must do so secretly, lying to his parents. At this point, Ms. Gladwell and her students create a new character list that explores each main character's beliefs. They soon realize what Marty is learning about the complexity of moral life.

What the Characters Believe About Right and Wrong

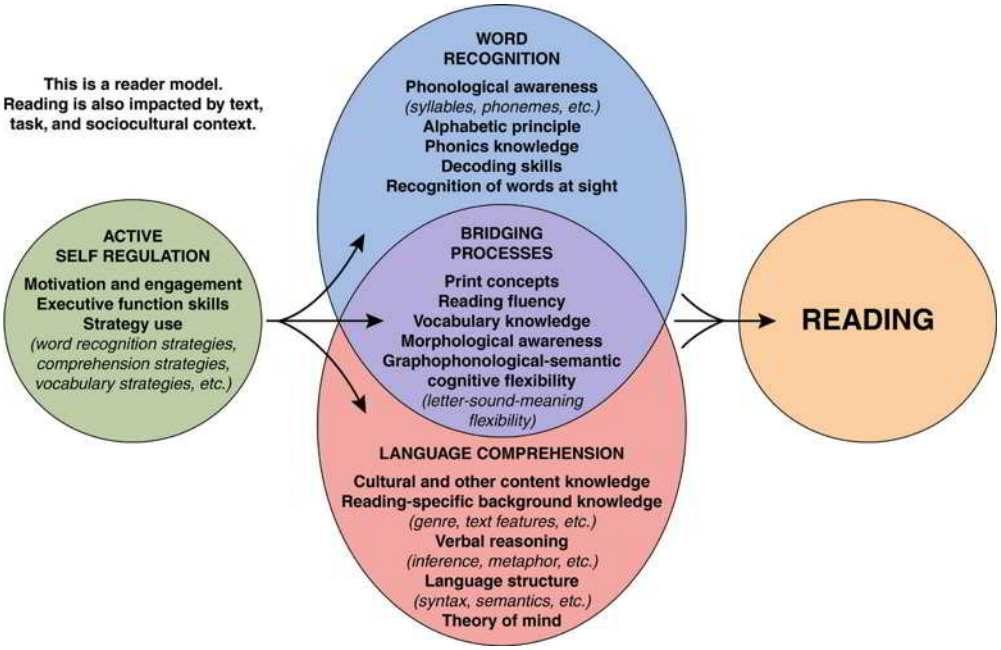
Character	Belief
Marty	Shiloh's safety is more important than the law.
	You can lie by not saying anything.
	The Bible isn't always clear about what is right and what is wrong.
	It is wrong to steal from your family.
Dad	Right and wrong are defined by the law.
Judd	Right and wrong are defined by you. You should have the freedom to do what you want.

As the students read deeper into the novel, they are living through Marty's problem: What is the right thing to do? How can Marty save Shiloh and defy Judd without incurring the wrath of his parents, punishment, and the loss of the dog?

At this point, the students are engaged in close reading, studying the book to extract its nuances. Still, they are also experiencing an aesthetic response as they live through Marty's fears, indecision, and anxiety. Ultimately, they must be critical readers, taking a moral stance toward the book and in their own lives. As readers, they have to decide how to determine right and wrong. This is why we read fiction: to learn about the values, ethics, and morality of human life and to revel in the excitement of the story. The strategies and knowledge of text structure that are often at the center of our curriculum are the tools that foster our pleasure and enable us to grapple with these deep human questions.

In concluding this section on the reading process, it is worth pointing out that although constructivism as a theory was developed nearly 40 years ago, it is entirely consistent with the model of reading comprehension developed by the RAND Reading Study Group (2002), a group commissioned by the U.S. Department of Education to review the research on reading comprehension: "We define reading comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language." The RAND group notes that comprehension involves the reader, the text, the activity, and the sociocultural context.

FIGURE 1.13
Imagining What Is Happening Inside the Mind of the Reader



Source: Used with permission from Duke, N. K., & Cartwright, K. B. (2021). The science of reading progresses: Communicating advances beyond the simple view of reading. Reading Research Quarterly, 56, S25-S44.

Our understanding of the reader has been expanded by the work of Duke and Cartwright (2021), Paris (2026) and Elleman (2019). **Figure 1.13** is the Duke and Cartwright model, one that updates what the Scarborough Rope Model does not discuss. To these researchers, two conceptions of reading stand out. First, reading is an intentional process with active self-regulation. Young children through adults are motivated to read. We set a purpose for reading, use strategies to recognize words and develop understanding, and monitor our understanding and repair it when it breaks down.

Second reading is not composed of two distinct processes, decoding and comprehension; rather, skills bridge them. Vocabulary knowledge is essential for word recognition and comprehension. Fluency makes word recognition functional and supports comprehension, and the awareness of morphemes, the smallest unit of meaning (*-s*, *-ing*, *-tion*, *trans*), is essential to both word recognition and comprehension.

Beyond this expanded view of the reader, the conception of reading in the RAND report still holds sway. The text matters. How we read a poem, a novel, and an Internet article differs. Reading *The Old Man and the Sea* for your seventh-grade English teacher is different from reading the same novel on the beach during the summer. The RAND committee's work and the thinking of Duke and Cartwright reinforce the focus on the constructive nature of reading.

Constructivism and the construction-integration model are consistent with the Common Core State Standards (CCSS, 2010) that currently drive the reading curriculum in most states. The CCSS states four major goals. We present these goals in **Figure 1.14** and indicate how they align with the construction-integration model. The CCSS set the goals for our reading curriculum, but with one glaring exception: the CCSS does not address the vital issue of motivation, and we discuss this in detail in Chapter 3.

FIGURE 1.14
How the Construction-Integration Model Aligns with the Common Core State Standards

Anchor Standards in the Common Core State Standards	Elements of the Construction-Integration Model
Key Idea and Details Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it. Determine central ideas or themes of a text and analyze their development; summarize the key supporting details and ideas.	This standard aligns with the **construction** phase of the comprehension model. This standard aligns with both the ***construction*** and ***integration*** phase of the comprehension model.
Craft and Structure Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone. Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole.	These standards align with both the ***construction*** and ***integration*** phase of the comprehension model.
Integration of Knowledge and Ideas Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words. Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, including the validity of the reasoning as well as the relevance and sufficiency of the evidence.	These standards align with the **integration** phase of the comprehension model.
Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity Read and comprehend complex literary and informational texts independently and proficiently.	The construction integration model operates with any level of text complexity.

Source: Used with permission from Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a. Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Lit-eracy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers & National Governors Association.

Reflect and Apply

Comprehension is an active, constructive process that is emphasized throughout this book. This means that if you want to understand, remember the ideas we present, and apply them in your teaching, you need to engage with them mentally. Ideally, based on constructivist and sociocultural principles, you will discuss your responses with others—such as a study group, your class, or your instructor.

5. In this chapter, we discussed five models of the reading process, some more explicit than others. Choose one of the models and explain what you learned about teaching reading from it.
6. Suppose one teacher teaches the word *relax* by simply saying, "*Relax* means to loosen up," while another teaches it by showing students several pictures of people relaxing, having them assume relaxing positions themselves, and then asking them to discuss situations where they have felt comfortable and relaxed. Explain how the second teacher demonstrates a cognitive-constructivist perspective.
7. A reader can be metacognitive before reading, during reading, or after reading. Now that you have read this section of the chapter, practice your metacognitive skills by reflecting on your understanding of this section and of metacognition in particular. What steps could you take to better grasp the concepts in the chapter?

The Reading Corner

High-Interest, Engaging Books That Motivate Reading

To motivate students to read for both learning and pleasure, it is essential to introduce and make accessible high-interest, engaging books. The books listed here have been selected from those recommended by parents, teachers, librarians, and, mostly, young readers themselves, as fitting these criteria. Many of the books are part of a series that have proven among the most popular choices for young readers. The suggested grade levels are based on averages and recommendations and are not strict rules. For instance, the picture book *Call Me Roberto!* might be enjoyed by readers of all ages, and we know capable eight-year-olds who have devoured *The Sorcerer and the Stone.*

Books for Readers K–2

Natalalie Alonso. Illustrated by Rudy Gutierrez. *Call Me Roberto! Roberto Clemente Goes to Bat for Latinos*. Calkins Creek, 2024. Inspirational story of Puerto Rican-born Roberto Clemente who endured years of racism but rose to become one of the greatest baseball players of all time. 40 pages.

Joanna Cole. Illustrated by Bruce Degen. *The Magic School Bus Lost in the Solar System.* (Part of the *Magic School Bus* series.) Scholastic Press, 1992. In this popular book, the magic school bus turns into a spaceship and takes Ms. Frizzle's class soaring through the solar system, where many facts about the planets are revealed. 40 pages.

Eric Litwin. Illustrated by James Dean. *Pete the Cat. I Love My White Shoes.* (From the *Pete the Cat* series.) HarperCollins, 2010. Pete the Cat walks down the street in white shoes that change color when he steps in piles of various colored messes. But, whatever the mess or color, it's "all good." 40 pages.

Dave Pilkey. *Captain Underpants and the Wrath of the Wicked Wedgie Woman:* Color Edition (*Captain Underpants*, #5). Scholastic, Inc., 2023. In this installment of this extremely popular series, George and Harold, who are always good at using their imaginations, accidentally create a monster. Full of outrageous silliness that kids love. 176 pages.

Gideon Sterer. Illustrated by Emily Hughes. *If You Make a Call on a Banana Phone.* Clarion Books, 2025. This is a delightfully silly story full of joy and wisdom about making friends from unexpected places. 48 pages.

Adam Wallace. Illustrated by Andy Elkerton. *How to Catch a Dragon.* (From the *How to Catch* series.) Sourcebooks Wonderland, 2019. In this book, the How to Catch kids are off to catch a dragon as they chase him through Chinese New Year celebrations. 40 pages.

Mo Willems. *My New Friend Is So Fun!* From the *Elephant and Piggie* series. Hyperion Books for Children, 2014. Elephant Gerald and Piggie are best friends, but when Piggie finds a new friend, will Gerald be ready to share? That's the question to be answered in this installment of this delightfully charming series. 64 pages.

Jane Yolen. Illustrated by Mark Teague. *How Do Dinosaurs Eat Their Food?* (From the *How Do Dinosaurs*? series.) The Blue Sky Press, 2005. One of the 25 books in the series, this story delightfully illustrates how dinosaurs have a hard time behaving at the table just as children might. 40 pages.

For Readers Grades 3–4

Aaron Blabey. *The Bad Guys in One Last Thing* (*The Bad Guys* #20). Scholastic, 2024. Final installment of the wildly popular *The Bad Guys* series about four wannabe heroes, Wolf, Shark, Snake, and Piranha, as they set out for one last good deed. 192 pages.

Judy Blume. *Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing.* Puffin Books, 2007. In this first book of Judy Blume's popular Fudge series, Fudge, who grown-ups think is adorable but older brother Peter knows better, causes mischief wherever he goes. 120 pages.

Adam Gidwitz. *Max in the House of Spies: A Tale of World War II.* (*Operation Kinderspion: Part Two*.) Dutton Books for Young Readers, 2025. In this fast-paced tale of espionage and spies, Max, in trying to find his way back home to his parents in Berlin during World War II, sets out to become a British spy. 336 pages.

Abby Hanlon. *Dory Fantasmagory: Center of the Universe.* (Book 7 in the *Dory Fantasmagory* series.) Dial Books, 2025. In this episode of the laugh-out-loud *Dory Fantasmagory* series, Dory, the imaginative rascal with an outsize personality, joins her first soccer team. 160 pages.

Erin Hunter. Illustrated by Laszio Kubiny. *Survivors: The Gathering Darkness: The Final Battle.* (Book #6 from the *Survivors* series.) HarperCollins, 2019. An animal adventure story about the dog Storm, after discovering the identity of the traitor dog who was sabotaging her former pack, becomes a prisoner in the Wild Pack's camp. 352 pages.

Lauren Tarhis. *I Survived the Dust Bowl, 1935* (*I Survived* #25). Scholastic Inc., 2025. In this installment of the action-packed historical fiction series highlighting American historical events of the 1900s, 11-year-old Ray braves the dust storms that hit the Texas Panhandle in 1935. 144 pages.

E. B. White. Illustrated by Garth Williams. *Charlotte's Web.* HarperCollins, 1974. The beloved, heartwarming tale of a pig, a girl, and a spider that continues to cast its spell and capture the hearts of readers since its publication decades ago, a true literary classic. 184 pages.

For Readers Grades 5–6

Avi. *The Road From Nowhere.* Scholastic Press, 2026. In this big-hearted, old-west adventure from master storyteller and Newbery medalist Avi, 14-year-old Ollie is desperate to find his own lode of silver and get his family out of the silver mining town high in the Colorado desert. 288 pages.

Jeff Kinney. *Diary of a Wimpy Kid: PartyPooper*. (Book 20). Henry N. Abrams, 2025. Hands down, one of most popular series ever, in this installment Wimpy Kid Greg's plan for the ultimate birthday party backfires with unexpected and hilarious results. 274 pages.

Lois Lowery. *Number the Stars* (Reissue). Clarion Books, 2011. This 1990 Newbery Award winning classic historical novel tells the story of how Annamarie's family takes in and conceals her best friend Ellen as German troops begin to "relocate" all the Jews in Denmark. 160 pages.

Philip Pullman. *The Book of Dust: The Rose Field* (*Book of Dust,* Volume 3). Knopf Books for Young Readers, 2025. For more mature readers, this fantasy adventure book is the conclusion to Pullman's series that explores some of the deepest questions of what it means to be alive to all the "splendors and horrors" around us. 672 pages.

Rick Riodan. *Percy Jackson and the Olympians*: *Rath of the Triple Goddess: The Senior Year Adventures, Book 2.* Disney Hyperion, 2026. In his continuing quest to earn college recommendation letters from the gods, Percy has to pet sit the goddess Hecate's polecat and giant mastiff during Halloween week. 336 pages.

J. K. Rowling. *The Sorcerer and the Stone.* New stenciled edge edition of Book One in the series of seven Harry Potter books. Scholastic, Inc., 2024. In this book that started a literary phenomenon capturing the imaginations of millions of young readers, orphaned Harry Potter enrolls in Hogwarts, a school of wizardry, where he learns the truth about himself, his family, and the evil that haunts the magical world. 320 pages.

Ruta Sepetys and Steve Sheinkin. *The Bletchley Riddle.* Viking Books for Young Readers, 2024. In this historical adventure, 19-year-old Jakob and his quirky younger sister Lizzie find themselves involved in Britain's World War II codebreaking factory at Bletchley Park and embark on quest to unravel a mystery surrounding their mother's disappearance. 400 pages.

A LITERACY CURRICULUM FOR TODAY'S AND TOMORROW'S WORLD

Decades of theory and research have enabled us to identify the components of a reading program that should lead all students to the high level of literacy required in the 21st century. Before continuing, we should note that this book focuses on reading; therefore, some aspects of a comprehensive literacy curriculum are not discussed, including spelling and handwriting. Although we consider writing in relation to reading, we do not present a complete writing program. Finally, we do not provide curricula for specific subjects, such as history or science. However, the reading curriculum we describe in this book is both broad and deep.

In almost all states, the influence of the National Reading Panel (NRP, 2000), the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 (NCLB, 2002), and the Race to the Top (ARRA, 2009) continues to shape educational policy, along with the Common Core State Standards and the science of reading movement in both its narrow and broader senses. The NRP influences curriculum decisions with states and school districts emphasizing phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension, while paying less attention to motivation. NCLB and Race to the Top have instilled high-stakes testing in our schools, although in some states the stakes of these tests have been lessened.

The Common Core State Standards (NGA & CCSSO, 2010) continue to define the reading and language arts standards in 39 states and the District of Columbia. Although some states have moved away from the Standards, others have renamed them to make their state standards appear locally developed. Even states like Minnesota and Virginia, which initially rejected the CCSS, have created their own standards that resemble the Common Core. By adopting the Common Core State Standards or a similar version, school districts and schools have developed or purchased curricula that:

1. Encourage students to read, write, and speak about the ideas in the text while minimizing personal interpretation. Close reading is common in many curricula although the evidence of its effectiveness is slim.
2. Have students read progressively challenging texts. Within and across grade levels, students should be guided to read more complex texts so they are eventually prepared to encounter similar texts in the workplace and in college.
3. Shape the type of tests that are used to assess students' growth in reading.

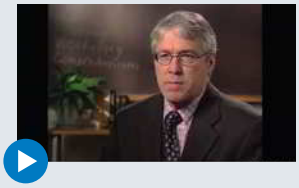
The science of reading movement has greatly influenced reading curriculum and instruction. About 40 states have enacted laws requiring the science of reading in some form, and these states vary widely in how they define it (Neuman et al., 2025). Nearly all states have laws that include words like "evidence" and "research" in their legislation. Most of these laws mention teaching the five key components identified by the National Reading Panel: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. However, many of these laws lack any mention of building knowledge or motivating students to read. The science of reading has shaped reading curriculum and instruction, in a number of ways.

1. In most states, the concept of reading instruction has come to mean choosing the right commercial reading program (Aydarova, 2024). Most states have reviewed and approved core reading programs and created lists of recommended or required commercial options. Nine states have published mandatory lists of programs that school districts must buy, while another 30 have suggested lists. Many of these programs are labeled "High Quality Instructional Materials" on the assumption that using them will ensure that children learn to read. Despite arguments from some non-profit think tanks, no evidence has been published that commercial core programs significantly improve reading growth, beyond the benefits of a strong systematic phonics program (Slavin et al., 2009).

2. The science of reading has established that systematic, explicit phonics instruction is essential. We certainly agree. However, developers of reading programs and states implementing them often fail to recognize that instruction must be tailored to each student. Some students learn to decode words easily, while others require more intensive instruction throughout the primary grades (Connor et al., 2013).
3. Most of the science of reading legislation has overlooked online reading to learn and the growing need for self-directed readers with critical reading skills. This is also true of commercial publishers trying to align their programs with the science of reading.
4. Most legislation related to the science of reading has also provided funds for staff development. We agree. Growing your knowledge is crucial to becoming an effective teacher. As we emphasized in this chapter, understanding the reading process will help you make informed decisions in your classroom. That understanding will guide you to instructional practices backed by research.

The rest of our book will help you select and implement instructional practices informed by research. Our text represents the current state of the science of reading.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.4



Before you read about the components of effective reading instruction, consider what Tim Shanahan, one of the authors of the National Reading Panel, has to say about the topic. How do our views diverge from Shanahan's.

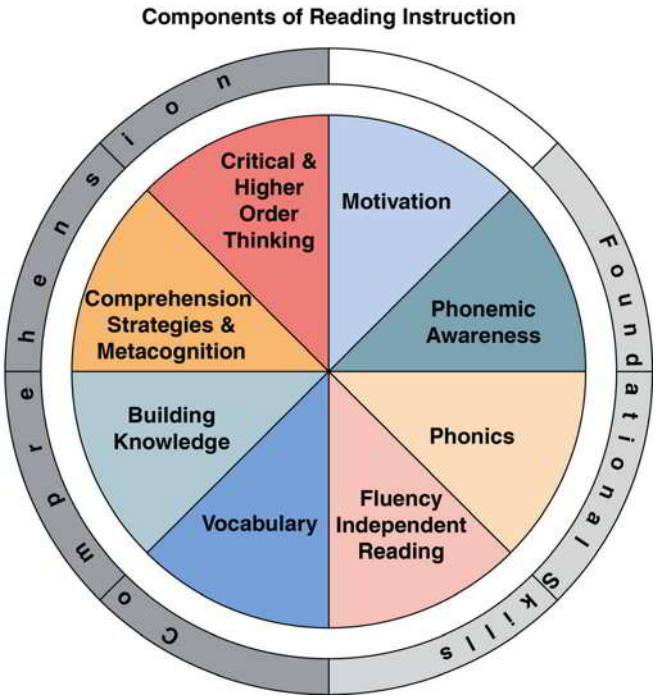
The Components of Effective Reading Instruction

Eight components are essential in reading instruction. Some like phonics and phonemic awareness lay the foundation for strong reading skills. Others, like comprehension strategies, metacognition, and critical thinking, become more important as students move into upper elementary and middle school. Some components like vocabulary, independent reading, and motivation are essential throughout schooling and beyond. In **Figure 1.15** and beyond, we expand on these eight components.

1. **Motivation**

   We recognize the huge importance of inspiring students to become literate and maintain their interest in reading over the years. It's easy to see reading as just a skill, but all skills are learned because we have goals beyond just performing effortlessly. We learn to read because it's a rite of passage into adulthood. Most kids simply want to learn to read. After enjoying the performance, there should

FIGURE 1.15
Major Components of the Present-Day Literacy Curriculum



be satisfaction in the book itself. Reading offers entertainment and escape. It's a tool that helps us learn and understand the complex scientific, economic, and political world around us. Reading is crucial for success in higher education and at work. As our children increasingly get distracted by big screens and small screens—where Amazon's Alexa, TikTok, and Instagram report the news and answer trivial questions—we must find ways to make reading exciting.

2. **Phonemic Awareness and Emergent Literacy**

   As part of learning to read, students need to internalize a significant amount of knowledge about print and its connection to speech. One key element of this knowledge is phonemic awareness—the understanding that spoken words are made up of distinct sounds. However, there are many other aspects of emergent literacy. For example, students must recognize that the written language they are just beginning to learn is similar in many ways to the oral language they already know well. Additionally, as part of emergent literacy, children need to develop positive attitudes about reading and their ability to learn to read.

3. **Phonics and Word Recognition Skills**

   Phonics is the part of reading instruction that emphasizes the connections between letters and sounds. Children use their understanding of phonics to decode written words they do not immediately recognize. If an experienced reader sees the word *garment* and doesn't recognize it right away, they can follow a series of steps to pronounce it correctly. As children learn to read, they build knowledge of orthographic (spelling) patterns to identify new words. Phonics skills help children become confident, independent readers. Additionally, other word recognition skills—such as identifying syllables and managing word parts like prefixes and suffixes—also support children's independence as readers.

4. **Fluency and Independent Reading**

   Students must move from slow accurate word recognition to automatic or fluent word reading. Fluency combines accuracy, automaticity, and oral-reading prosody, which, taken together, help the reader understand meaning (Schwanenflugel & Kuhn, 2015). Additionally, students must develop fluency in their silent reading, reading at an appropriate pace and with comprehension (Kim,2015). Several effective strategies can build students' fluency, but none are more important than a robust independent reading program in every classroom. It's not enough for students to just read and understand assigned texts. They must become independent readers who choose to read voluntarily for pleasure, knowledge, and satisfaction that only reading can provide.

5. **Vocabulary Learning and Instruction**

   A substantial amount of research has examined students' vocabulary knowledge, and reliable estimates indicate that many students learn about 5,000 words from reading by the end of first grade and roughly 50,000 words by high school graduation (Graves, 2016, 2022). Clearly, vocabulary development is a vital task throughout children's school years, and effectively improving students' vocabularies requires a comprehensive, long-term approach. That approach includes rich, diverse language experiences, instruction in individual words, strategies for learning new words, and the promotion of word awareness.

6. **Building Knowledge**

   Comprehension is both a complex process and the ultimate goal of reading, so comprehension instruction must be strong, long-lasting, and multifaceted. Many building blocks contribute to comprehension, and knowledge is essential. We use our background knowledge to create meaning, and reading helps us build more knowledge. In a solid comprehension curriculum, the stories, articles, and books students read build knowledge from one text to the next, with each text providing the information needed for the following one (Kim et al., 2024). Teachers can also activate and develop knowledge before students read and help students connect what they know to the text as they read (Hattan & Lupo, 2020).

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.5

Instruction in phonemic awareness needs to be explicit, with the teacher directly explaining and modeling a language concept. How does the teacher make phonemic awareness explicit?

First, we want students to recognize that what they bring to school—the wealth of out-of-school experiences they gain when they start first grade and that continue to grow each year—is relevant to what they learn in class. For example, the pride they felt when they were first allowed to go shopping alone can help them understand a story character's emotions when they overcome a challenge. Second, we want students to see that the subjects they study in school are connected in many ways. Knowledge of the American Revolution from social studies can help them understand Johnny's motives in Esther Forbes's *Johnny Tremain*. Third, we want students to recognize that ideas and concepts learned in school apply to their lives outside of school.

7. **Comprehension Strategies and Metacognition**

   Comprehension is an active process, and readers work to construct meaning. Good readers set a purpose for reading and monitor their reading to ensure the meaning they create makes sense. They use strategies, mental acts, to help their understanding (Duke et al., 2021). Although many strategies have been identified, a few are repeatedly highlighted as especially effective: establishing a purpose for reading, using prior knowledge, asking and answering questions, making inferences, identifying what is essential, summarizing, and monitoring comprehension (Dewitz & Graves, 2024). The active application of knowledge and strategies depends on motivation. Students must care; they must want to learn from and engage with the text.

8. **Critical and Higher-Order Thinking**

   We want students to progress from simple understanding to higher-order thinking. Students should be able to handle complex tasks such as analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating. While reading, we aim to foster deep and lasting understanding—teaching in a way that helps students truly grasp topics, retain key information, and actively apply what they learn across tasks both inside and outside of school.

   Reading has always required critical thinking, but in the Internet age, it has become an essential survival skill. Information floods our lives, making it vital for everyone to find what they need and for students to evaluate the trustworthiness of what they read. Students should consider who authored the information, their credentials, and their political views. An article on the weather, for example, will have a different perspective coming from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration than from a political website. Instead of dedicating a whole chapter to critical thinking and the Internet, you will find both of these topics integrated throughout the book in chapters on selecting texts, comprehension strategies, and reading informational texts.

Technology and Artificial Intelligence

We wrote this book anticipating the upcoming storm of Artificial Intelligence. Unfortunately, little is known about how AI will affect learning to read and teaching children to read. Despite this, we want to share our thoughts and experiences with it. AI is a promising technology that could drastically change our civilization. It is also heavily hyped to ensure that the billions invested will generate profits, and this hype both amazes and frightens us (Bender & Hanna, 2025). Be very cautious with this new technology. We believe all educators can learn from past technological innovations and avoid repeating the same mistakes. Like previous technologies, there is a fear of missing out (FOMO).

When laptop computers became less expensive, schools were encouraged to give one to every student, from kindergarten through twelfth grade. The impact of providing each student with a laptop was modest and quite specific. Research has shown that moderate, intentional use of computers is linked to improved writing outcomes but not to reading outcomes. Large-scale distribution of laptops without careful planning by school administrators and teachers led to pointless work with no

real benefits for students (Zheng et al., 2016). When schools invested in staff training and considered how students could effectively use laptops, students experienced notable benefits for their writing.

What can we reasonably expect from Artificial Intelligence? First, AI can serve as a tool for teachers to plan their instruction. Throughout this book, we used AI to generate word lists for teaching word recognition and vocabulary instruction. AI can be used to create games for practicing word recognition or to develop meaningful sentences that demonstrate the proper use of new words. We used AI to create graphics, such as Figure 1.15, outlining the components of a reading curriculum, but it took an hour to write detailed instructions to guide ChatGPT to do so. AI can also be used to create items for assessing students' word recognition and vocabulary knowledge. Even if you rely on AI for lesson planning, you must have enough knowledge to evaluate whether the lessons, activities, and words align with your goals. Use AI carefully and critically.

Currently, we do not see a role for AI in directly teaching elementary and middle school students to read and write. We believe that learning to read involves both social and cognitive processes, and that the teacher's interactions with students are essential for modeling and supporting early attempts at word recognition and comprehension (Carlisles et al., 2011; Piasta et al., 2009). Research on assistive technologies, such as text-to-speech, in which a computer pronounces words as students read on a screen, shows how AI could support students. However, this technology provides only limited benefits to older students with reading challenges and no benefits for students in kindergarten through second grade (Cimino et al., 2025; Garzon, 2025, 2020; MacArthur, 2019).

Finally, we see little role for AI in teaching elementary students to write. Students should learn to plan, draft, revise, edit, and publish independently. Only after they can write well on their own should teachers consider allowing them to use AI as a support tool. For students who have some facility with the writing process, AI might be a useful editing tool. Remember, though, that writing is thinking, and students need to learn to think. A recent study found that when adults use AI to support their writing, they think much less than when they write without AI (Kosmyna et al., 2025). Be cautious with AI, use it for planning, but rely on what you know to critique what AI offers.

Making Instructional Decisions

To develop and implement a literacy curriculum, you need to make instructional decisions and have the tools to do so. Over the past several decades, our school populations have become more diverse. We now have many English learners, large numbers of students living in or near poverty, and an increasingly larger number of students with a special education label. The special education population grew from 8.3% in 1976 to 15% in 2015 (NCES, 2023). English learners currently make up 10.6% of the public-school population, compared to 7.3% in 1980 (Irwin et al., 2021). Beyond these groups, children vary in how they learn and at what pace. Teachers need to explore how to effectively differentiate instruction in the classroom.

Our text is designed for teachers working in general education classrooms, teaching a diverse group of students. Nearly everything we wrote applies to English learners or students who need extra support. Many of your students will require additional help, and as their teacher, you will collaborate with reading specialists, special education teachers, counselors, and educators experienced in working with students whose first language isn't English.

To meet the eight curriculum goals we listed in Figure 1.15 and the increasingly diverse needs of the students in your classrooms, you will need some tools.

- The first tool is an understanding of the reading process. You need to understand how children read and how they learn to read. A theory of the reading process underlies all instructional decisions. If you believe that reading is a series of neatly separated components, you will employ a discrete-skills approach, teaching them one at a time. If you view reading development as

the product of knowledge, strategies, and motivation, you favor a more constructivist approach. We discussed the reading process in this chapter.

- Next, you need to understand the fundamental principles of reading instruction. What are the main methods for teaching reading, and where did they originate? In Chapter 2, we provide a brief history of reading instruction so you can embrace time-tested instructional approaches and avoid untested fads.
- You need to know how to motivate your students, and in Chapter 3, I will explain how. Your students' classroom work should be engaging so that, at the end of each day, they look forward to the next. Beyond the classroom, we want your students to become readers, and this motivational goal is a challenge in an era dominated by cellphones, tablets, and digital games.
- You need to organize space and time in your classroom to meet the needs of all your students. The physical layout helps you teach the whole class, work with groups of students, and meet with individuals. Time is also essential. You'll quickly find that you don't have enough time to do everything you want. Some students will need more of your time and others less. Finally, you'll need to differentiate instruction and form small groups for students who need extra help. We cover these topics in Chapter 4.
- You need to learn how to assess your students so you can design instruction that meets their needs. In most schools, you'll be asked to administer and interpret a range of assessments. State assessments evaluate programs and the quality of schools and teachers. District assessments help prepare students for state tests and measure their progress each month. The formative assessments you create give you a weekly view of your students' learning. Often, observing your students and evaluating their daily work provides insight into their progress. Diagnostic tests help place students in appropriate texts and identify their strengths and weaknesses. In Chapter 5, we will explain these assessments and guide you in managing them.
- Finally, you will need to select texts for reading instruction and help students choose books for their independent reading. Today, most school districts have purchased a core reading program. A core program provides many texts and instructional materials, but usually there are not enough texts for students to become fluent readers (Brenner & Heibert, 2010). You will need to supplement these programs with additional texts for beginning reading instruction and novels or trade books to build knowledge and comprehension in upper grades. In Chapter 6, we will guide you through the process of choosing texts for reading instruction.

With these tools in hand, you will be ready to teach your students to read. The rest of the chapter deals with specific age groups and instructional approaches. All these approaches have a strong research base and some are branded as specific Instructional Routines.

- In Chapter 7, we focus on the youngest readers, children in pre-kindergarten who are just learning to read. We call these student emergent readers because there is no official start date for learning to read. Throughout the early years of life, students are learning about books and print.
- In Chapter 8, we focus specifically on learning to recognize words. We describe the process of learning to read words and include many lesson plans for teaching students to do.
- In Chapter 9, we explain how to help students transition from slow, accurate readers to fluent, expressive readers. To do so, students need to read widely and some require specific instructional activities to build reading fluency.
- In Chapter 10, we explain how to build your students' vocabulary. To do so, they need many language experiences, instruction in word meanings, and the tools to infer word meanings while they read.

- In Chapter 11, we shift our focus to reading comprehension. First, we explain how comprehension happens and then we consider how to teach comprehension for narrative texts.
- In Chapter 12, we discuss teaching students to comprehend informational text, texts that include their science book, historical articles, and the myriad of texts they will find on the Internet.
- In Chapter 13, we explain how writing improves reading and vice versa. We discuss specific techniques for using writing to improve reading comprehension.
- Finally, in Chapter 14, we will help you apply instruction in word recognition, vocabulary, and comprehension to those students in your classroom whose first language is not English.

Reflect and Apply

Teaching reading requires substantial knowledge to make informed decisions. As one educator wrote, "teaching reading is rocket science" (Moats, 2020).

8. The science of reading and the Common Core State Standards are important influences on reading instruction. Take a moment to review what we've shared and determine if these two policy initiatives are aligned or in conflict. You might also consider listening to the podcast *Sold a Story* to understand what the science of reading truly means.
9. We have identified eight major components of a reading curriculum and reading instruction. Does each of these components have a specific place or time in a reading classroom? Which elements of reading should be integrated into everything you do in the classroom?
10. You will be teaching many computer experts and school administrators who advocate for including AI in reading education. How will you respond to these experts and supporters?

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, we highlighted four key points. First, we described the reading process that underpins this book—the cognitive-constructivist view. We also explained how the cognitive-constructivist perspective aligns with research and the science of reading, and how it offers better instructional guidance than some currently popular models of reading. Additionally, we discussed several concepts that expand and complement this view—such as the construction-integration model of comprehension, automaticity, fluency, and metacognition. Second, we briefly described U.S. students' reading proficiency, compared their current proficiency with past levels and with students in other industrialized nations, and outlined the literacy skills needed for today's and tomorrow's world. Third, we listed the components of the current literacy curriculum that serve as the foundation for this book. Fourth, we provided an overview and explained the common organizational structure shared by all chapters.

The topics in this chapter are crucial to understand because they lay the foundation for the rest of the book. As we have stressed many times, reading is enhanced by strong background knowledge. For this book, the more you learn about the reading process, models of reading, and the science behind them, the better prepared you'll be to help your students reach high literacy levels and develop a lifelong motivation to read. Understanding the curriculum components and how each chapter is structured will help you learn, remember, and apply the information and procedures more easily. Therefore, we strongly recommend reviewing the chapter, taking notes, revisiting some prompts in the Reflect and Apply sections, using suggestions from the Extending Learning section, and possibly exploring and reading some of the works listed in the references.

Extending Learning

Here we recommend several activities that extend beyond this book—to schools, students, teachers, parents, libraries, and other sources of information—to help you better understand and value your role in supporting children's literacy today.

1. One way to deepen your understanding of new and complex ideas is to consider various perspectives on them. The concepts we discussed about the reading process are described in many other texts, and all of these are complex enough to deserve further study. Choose two or three concepts that you want to explore more, and read about them in the references we have provided.
2. Visit the NAEP website (https://www.nationsreportcard.gov) and spend some time reviewing the most recent reading results for your state and a grade level that interests you. Print out a copy of the sample test items. Then, go to your state website and compare the passages and questions from the national and state tests, if those samples are available. Which test is the more rigorous assessment of reading? Does one of the tests require more higher-order thinking?
3. List the components of the current literacy curriculum we have outlined. Then, interview some elementary school teachers to find out which components they cover, which they do not, and the literacy activities they engage in that are not included in the curriculum presented in this chapter. Be sure to include teachers from primary, middle, and upper elementary grades. After completing your interviews, summarize what you have learned and comment on (1) how much the teachers you interviewed use the curriculum we have outlined, and (2) any components of the literacy curriculum that are not included among the components we consider but that you might want to add to your classroom.

Children's Literature

DiCamillo, K. (2000). *Because of Winn-Dixie*. Candlewick Press. A poignant and well-told story of a young girl building a new life after her mother left and she and her father moved to Florida—with, of course, a little help from her dog, Winn-Dixie. 182 pages.

Flake, S. G. (1998). *The Skin I'm In*. Jump at the Sun/Hyperion. Uncomfortable because her skin is extremely dark, 13-year-old Maleeka meets a new teacher with a facial birthmark and makes some discoveries about how to love who she is and what she looks like. 171 pages.

Forbes, E. (1998). *Johnny Tremain*. Houghton Mifflin. Johnny Tremain, apprentice silversmith, takes on the cause of freedom as a message carrier for the Sons of Liberty in pre-Revolutionary Boston. CD available. 293 pages.

Giff, P. R. (2004). *A House of Tailors*. Wendy Lamb Books. Set in the late 19th century, this novel for intermediate readers tells the story of how 13-year-old Dina adjusts to her new life in the United States after being sent from Germany to live in Brooklyn with her tailor uncle. 149 pages.

Hemingway, E. (1952, 2023). *The Old Man and the Sea*. Old man catches a big fish and fights off sharks. Scribner. 78 pages.

Kinney, J. (2014). *Diary of a Wimpy Kid*. A series of books about Greg Heffley as he navigates the problems of middle school. Abrams. 200+ pages.

Naylor, P. R. (2000). *Shiloh*. Marty faces moral dilemmas while secretly caring for an abused dog and lying to his parents about what he is doing. Atheneum. 144 pages.

Riordan, R. (2022). *Percy Jackson and the Olympians, Book One: The Lightning Thief*. Mythical creatures seem to be walking straight out of the pages of Percy's Greek mythology textbook and into his life. Hyperion. 414 pages.

Snicket, L. (2002). *The Carnivorous Carnival: Book the Ninth*. HarperCollins. The continued adventures and misadventures of the Baudelaire orphans in the Series of Unfortunate Events series. 286 pages.

Sun, C. F. (1994). *Mama Bear*. Houghton Mifflin. Young Mei-Mei bakes and sells cookies in order to earn enough money to buy a large and expensive stuffed bear for Christmas. Illustrated. 28 pages.

CHAPTER 2

READING INSTRUCTION

Classroom Vignette

Work week is the week before the students return to school in August. Work week is when returning teachers set up their room, learn about the new school and district policies, and catch up on the gossip from the summer that is ending too soon. Work week for new teachers is exciting and stressful. It is the time when they try to find a match between what they learned in their college methods courses and the reality of their first job. This past work week was more stressful than many in recent memory since the state and the district has spent the last two years discussing the science of reading (SOR). Coming from the state department of education to the local school districts and to their school was a new set of standards and a new curriculum. For each school and for each teacher that means learning the standards for the grade level, learning how to use their new reading curriculum with its multi-volume teacher's edition, learning to give new assessments for screening students and learning to use a new report card that parallels the new standards and the new curriculum.

Mrs. Harrison, the principal, began the first meeting of work week facing apprehensive faculty and staff. Some teachers were versed in the science of reading, having listened to a podcast by Emily Hanford, a journalist critical of current instructional practice. And thousands of teachers participated in a Facebook discussion group on the science of reading. For many, the science of reading was new, and they were suspicious of new ideas because previous curriculum reforms had little impact on students' learning. The new curriculum had been presented over the summer through a series of webinars sponsored by the publisher. Most teachers had read the new standards, but the new assessment system had yet to be rolled out. While there was some griping, most teachers accepted the need for change.

After the initial morning meeting, two kindergarten teachers and three fourth-grade teachers confronted the principal and wanted to know why the new curriculum had replaced some of their favorite materials and lessons. The kindergarten teachers were concerned that their favorite children's books had been replaced by boring stories and articles in the new curriculum. They were also concerned that the phonics curriculum seemed more robust, demanding that kindergarten teachers teach skills such as consonant digraphs that previously been taught in first grade. The fourth-grade teachers had similar complaints. They argued that extending phonics instruction in fourth grade was unnecessary. Most of their students decoded well and were fluent readers. The teachers were also concerned that the new curriculum, focused heavily on short nonfiction articles on science and social studies topics, and would not allow them the time to teach beloved novels like *Holes* (Sachar) and *The Tale of Despereaux* (DiCamillo). This was the current reality of one elementary school that was changing its approach to reading instruction.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 2.1 Describe the history of reading instruction in America from the mid-19th century to the present and use that history to understand how the current approaches to reading reflect the tensions of the past.

LO 2.2 Discuss principles and practices of effective reading instruction including traditional and cognitive-constructive concepts and how to they apply to classroom instruction.

LO 2.3 Discuss why implicit instruction is essential for developing strong readers and contrast it with explicit instruction.

LO 2.4 Compare and contrast the major approaches to reading instruction and consider how the science of reading movement has changed our impressions of these approaches.

Change is the one constant in American education. For the past 70 years, American educators have been pushed and pulled in many directions. The current push is coming from the science of reading movement, but the influence of older movements like that of the Common Core State Standards (NGA & NCSS, 2010) and the cognitive–constructive perspective on comprehension instruction that emerged in the 1980s is still influencing instruction across the country.

Our goal in this chapter is to explain the principles of effective reading instruction. The first step in doing that will be to look back in history and see how reading has been taught. Next, we will look at highly effective schools and effective teachers and discuss some traditional perspectives on instruction and then describe the more recent advances in instruction that are part of the cognitive–constructive approach. That approach stresses being explicit in teaching, modeling how good readers think, and providing your students with support as they try out new skills and new ways of interacting with text. We will also describe implicit instruction because much of what students learn about reading and language, they learn while they are reading, writing, listening, and speaking. We want a classroom environment where students learn more than what they are taught. We will conclude this section by presenting the major approaches to reading instruction currently employed across the country. But before we begin, we will take a look back at the history of reading instruction in the United States, especially the last 75 years, a period of time that has witnessed a number of perceived literacy crises.

Instruction is the procedures and practices teachers use to help students acquire new knowledge, skills, and attitudes. When Lee Shulman described teaching, he said, "there are ways of talking, showing, enacting, or otherwise representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern, the unskilled can become adept" (Shulman, 1987, p. 14). To this, we would add that those without motivation can become engaged and interested.

To help students with these acquisitions, teachers explain concepts and skills, show students how to use them, aid students as they try out new tasks, and provide ample feedback and opportunities to practice. Teachers organize instruction so that students will use their new knowledge and skills long after they have moved on to other topics and other grades. Good teachers try to make all of this as lively and interesting as possible because motivated students are deeply engaged in reading and writing. Good teachers provide students who struggle with reading as much help as possible while guiding and encouraging those who are surging ahead.

Reflect and Apply

1. Think about the best teacher or teachers you ever had—elementary, secondary, or higher education. What made the instruction of these teachers particularly strong? Try to ignore for now the personality traits of these teachers.

2. If you are currently working in a school, in any capacity, think about the new initiates in the school and how the teachers and administrators are reacting to them.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF READING INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

Reading instruction and how to teach reading have frequently been controversial and continue to be so. The history of the United States and its schools reveals cyclical changes in which alternating political and educational ideas at first received widespread support, only to later draw heavy criticism and disapproval (Cremin, 1990; Graves & Dykstra, 1997; Tierney & Pearson, 2021). Understanding this history will help you understand the present and perhaps avoid the pitfalls of the past. As Pearson and Cervetti (2017) write: "Ideas and practices come with ancestors and precedents, even when they appear to emerge suddenly, they persist long after their theoretical and research foundation appear to have been overturned" (p. 13).

Since the early 19th century, there have been many debates about the best methods for teaching young children to read, but fewer arguments about promoting the reading ability of older children. To understand the development of contemporary approaches to teaching reading, the history of reading instruction in the United States is best studied against the backdrop of tensions between a direct, or didactic, approach to teaching the skills of reading and a more holistic or child-centered approach that puts meaning making first. In the brief history that follows—parts of which rely heavily on information taken from Nila Banton Smith's *American Reading Instruction* (2002), Pearson and Cervetti's (2017) work on reading comprehension, and Tierney and Pearson's *A History of Literacy Education* (2021)—we focus on these tensions.

The Colonial Period and the 19th Century

The period extending roughly from 1600 to 1840 was relatively free of tensions over instructional approaches. There was tension about the content of early reading books. The purpose of reading instruction early in the period was clearly religious, as revealed by this excerpt from the Old Deluder Act passed by the General Court of Massachusetts in 1647:

> *It being one chief point of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures. . . . It is therefore ordered that every township in this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty households, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and read.* (Quoted in Smith, 2002)

Beginning about the time of the American Revolution and continuing until about 1840, the purpose shifted, and reading instruction and textbooks reflected what Smith has termed a *nationalistic-moralistic emphasis*, as exemplified in these lines from the preface to Lyman Cobb's *The North American Reader* (1835):

> *The pieces in this work are chiefly American. The English Reader so largely used in our country does not contain a single piece or paragraph written by an American citizen. Is this good policy? Is it patriotism?* (Cobb, 1835)

However, regardless of whether the reading material focused on religious or patriotic content, the method of instruction throughout the period was much the same—the alphabetic-spelling method, a plodding, step-by-step approach in which students first learned the alphabet, next learned to spell a large number of syllables, and then spelled words before they read them. At this time, students memorized sections of text (usually religious, moral, or patriotic in content) and recited them aloud (Smith, 2002).

Comprehension, however, was largely an afterthought. In the early 19th century, the goal of reading was to read familiar texts aloud, the Bible or a hymnal, with expression and intonation. Oral performance was the measure of good reading. There was a small number of educated White men and women who did read with strong comprehension, but this was not the goal for all people. Developing comprehension was not an explicit goal of instruction but a byproduct of memorizing text.

Not surprisingly, this approach eventually came under fire, most notably by educational reformer Horace Mann, who advocated instead a focus on whole words and letter sounds. In an 1842 report to the Board of Education in Massachusetts, Mann displays his disdain for the alphabetic-spelling approach and pushed for a meaning-focused approach that foreshadows the controversy that, though modified, continues today:

> *Compare the above method [the more meaningful approach Mann favored] with that of calling up a class of abecedarians—or, what is more common, a single child—and while the teacher holds a book or card before him, with a pointer in his hand, says, a, and he echoes a; then b, and he echoes b; and so on until the vertical row of lifeless and ill-favored characters is completed, and then of remanding him to his seat, to sit still and look at vacancy*. (Mann, 1884/1965)

From the American Revolution through the early 1800s, children spent little time in school so only one or two books were used to teach reading. The first textbook designed specifically for the colonies was *The New England Primer*. published from the late 17th century until the end of the 18th century. This slim volume was used to teach letters, sounds, syllables, and short sentences from the Bible. The New England Primer was replaced by Noah Webster's *The American Spelling Book*; first published in 1783, it stayed in print for over 35 years. As students stayed in school longer, Webster added a second and a third book, *The Little Reader's Assistant* (1790) and *An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking* (1787). All of these texts emphasized pronunciation and oral expression while reading selections on history, morality, religion, and popular speeches of the time. **Figure 2.1** is a list of rules for reading well by Joshua Leavitt in his *Easy Lessons in Reading* (1832).

By the mid-1800s, reading programs and reading instruction began to evolve as society and schools changed. As the country's population grew and children stayed in school longer, they were divided into grades, and eventually publishers offered

FIGURE 2.1
Rules for Reading: Joshua Levitt (1832)

If you wish to know how to read well, you must learn these rules by heart.

1. Be careful to *call* your words right.
2. Learn to *pronounce* them properly.
3. Speak with a *clear* and *distinct* voice.
4. Do not read too *fast*. Read *slow* and *carefully*, so as not to make any *mistakes*.
5. Be very particular to observe all the *Stops*.
6. Learn to use the proper *Emphasis* and *Inflections* of the voice. Ask your teacher to show you what that means, and how to do it.
7. Endeavor to *understand* every word you read as you go along. *Study* your reading lessons very carefully as you read.
8. Try to read as if you were telling a story to your mother or talking with some of your playmates. *Reading is talking from a book.*
9. Take pains to *read* the poetry and not to *sing* it.
10. The emphatic words are printed in *Italic* letters.

Source: Based on Joshua Leavitt. (1832). *Easy Lessons in Reading: For the Use of the Younger Classes in Common Schools.* J. & J.W. Prentiss.

one book for each grade. The most popular were the *McGuffey's Eclectic Readers* published from 1835 until 1920 and selling over 120 million copies. McGuffey, a professor of moral philosophy, included a lesson plan with each selection, an idea he took from Samuel Worcester. (Worcester sued McGuffey for plagiarism and won an out-of-court settlement for $2,000.) Before students read the selection, the teacher provided a bit of background information, and after the selection was read there were lists of words and definitions to study, comprehension questions, and guides to common pronunciation errors.

By the end of the 19th and into the 20th century, reading programs began to look a bit more like they do now. These published reading programs were called basal readers because they formed the base for teaching children to read. The programs typically had one or more anthologies of stories for each grade plus a teacher's guide with lessons for teaching children to read. Over time, more robust teachers' guides were developed just as teachers received more education in the process of teaching reading. In 1900, *The New Education Readers* (Demarest & Van Sickle, 1900) contained a 13-page teacher's guide for the first-grade program. Today, the teachers' guides for *Into Reading* (Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 2020) consist of 12 separate volumes of instructions totaling over 3,000 pages.

Basal Readers from the Beginning to the Middle of the 20th Century

Basal readers at the beginning of the 20th century contained a collection of reading selections with accompanying worksheets, teacher's manuals, tests, supplementary material, and lots of workbooks. The books for the earliest grades employed strictly controlled vocabularies and generally contained very brief narratives, relying on pictures to convey much of their meaning. The books in the remainder of the primary grades continued to employ controlled vocabularies and contained largely fiction focusing on typical middle-class life, fantasy, safe adventures, and moderately preachy stories. Educators like Arthur Gates and William S. Gray believed that children should learn easy common words first, and the key was repetition. An early reading text, called a preprimer, contained language like this: Ride. See me ride. I ride fast. Fast, fast, fast.

In the fourth grade, selections became longer, vocabulary control eased, and more genres of fiction were included, along with a few expository selections. Much of the instruction students received in these programs was organized around the directed reading lesson—which included preparing students for reading, silent reading of a fiction or nonfiction selection, and follow-up questions and discussion. These lessons were often punctuated by skills work in decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension, and students spent a good deal of time completing worksheets.

As basal reading programs grew, they began to incorporate more skill work—comprehension, vocabulary, and study skills. Some argue that comprehension skills—finding the main idea, distinguishing fact from opinion, or grasping an author's organizational pattern—had their origin in survey work conducted by William S. Grey, who was the author of the Curriculum Foundation Series, better known as Dick and Jane (Dewitz et al., 2010). Others suggest that the new comprehension assessments and reading skills grew up together with each influencing the other (Pearson & Cervetti, 2017). The developers of comprehension tests had to test something, *skills*, and the authors of basal programs tended to teach what was tested, *skills*.

The increasing number of skills raised two important questions for the publishers: "In what order should the skills be taught?" and "How much time or emphasis should be given to each skill?" To answer these questions, the publishers created scope and sequence charts that identify the skills to teach and review each week. Scope and sequence charts guided instruction over the academic year. As the scope and sequence charts became more complex and the number of skills grew, there was a need to give teachers more explicit guidance in the teacher's manual.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.1

Introduced in the 1930s and used until 1965, a particular basal series. was used in teach reading in many U.S. classrooms. What theory of early reading instruction influenced the development of this program?

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=72qQKI7IYII

The Period of Continual Reform in Reading Education: From 1950s to the Present

From the 1950s to the present, American educators, students, and their parents lived through periods of perceived crises followed by reform efforts. Every political and economic jolt to the nation seemed to create a new reform movement in American schools influencing how reading was taught. The reform movements reflected a pull between more holistic-meaning focused instruction and more skills-based instruction, centering on letters, sounds, and words. The push and pull of these two forces were portrayed as a pendulum swinging from one side to another (Cuban, 1990). Others called it the Reading Wars (Kim, 2008), and the battle is still with us today as the science of reading movement seeks to reform instruction.

In **Table 2.1**, we present a timeline of the reforms. On the left side of the table, we list the influential books, reports, or podcasts that launched and defined the reform, and on the right side, a brief summary of the substance of the reform and its influence(s).

1950–1960: The Call for Phonics Instruction

Many believe that the first jolt to American education occurred when the Soviet Union launched Sputnik on October 4, 1957. This first man-made satellite led many Americans to doubt the prowess of our scientists and the schools that trained them.

TABLE 2.1
70 Years of Forces Pulling and Pushing on Classroom Reading Instruction

	Influential Books, Reports, Articles & Podcasts	Effects on Curriculum and Instruction
1950s	*Why Johnny Can't Read* (R. Flesch, 1955)	Awakened parents and the public to the evils of whole word method of beginning reading instruction and proclaimed the importance of phonics.
1960s	*Learning to Read: The Great Debate* (J. Chall, 1967) The First-Grade Studies (Bond & Dykstra, 1967)	Chall's review of research reinforced the importance of teaching phonics. The First-Grade Studies added weight to the teaching of phonics but also affirmed the importance of the teacher's decisions in the classroom.
1970s	*Understanding Reading* (F. Smith, 1971) *Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game* (K. Goodman, 1976)	Smith's book and Goodman's article pushed back on phonics and argued for a natural way to teach children to read—whole language.
1980s	*Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson et al., 1985) The Instruction of Reading Comprehension (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities (Palincsar & Brown, 1984)	Anderson turned the argument from just phonics and asserted the importance of the home, wide reading, and comprehension instruction. Pearson provided a model for teaching children to comprehend. Palincsar developed a method for teaching children to become strategic readers.
1990s	*Beginning to Read* (M. Adams, 1990) Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children (Snow et al. 1998)	Identified the importance of phonemic awareness and phonics in beginning reading instruction. Asserted that phonemic awareness and phonics were critical for children who struggle learning to read.
2000	*Report of the National Reading Panel* (2000) *RAND Reading Study Group* (Snow, 2002)	Identified phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension as five pillars of reading instruction. Developed a research framework to address the most pressing issues in literacy.
2010	*Common Core State Standards* (2010) *Revised Publishers' Criteria for the Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts and Literacy* (2012)	Defined national reading standards that focused on building knowledge, reading complex texts, and rigorous questioning by teachers.
2020	"Hard Words: Why Aren't Kids Being Taught to Read" (Hanford, 2018) "Sold a Story" (Hanford, 2022–2024) Fact-Checking the Science of Reading (Tierney & Pearson, 2024)	Identified balanced literacy as the cause of the *reading crisis* and declared that the *science of reading* points toward a strong focus on phonemic awareness and phonics. Questioned the assumptions and the research cited by many in the science of reading movement.

At about the same time, parents were alarmed by the 1955 publication of Rudolf Flesch's text *Why Johnny Can't Read*. Flesch charged that American children were not learning to read because they were not taught phonics and predicted a dire future for the nation. Flesh criticized the dominate whole-word method, where children were introduced to high frequency, common words (*look, jump, see, run*), and these were repeated frequently, ensuring that students remembered them. Flesch wanted children to learn phonics and to sound out words.

A decade later, in 1967, Harvard University professor Jeanne Chall published a very influential review of research, *Learning to Read: The Great Debate* (1967), in which she concluded that phonics produced better results than the whole-word method. In that same year, the largest study of beginning reading ever conducted, the First Grade Reading Studies (Bond & Dykstra, 1967/1997), produced findings that tended to support Chall's conclusions. Although these three publications did eventually change the content of basals (it took more than 20 years), they did not seriously change the influence and prominence of basals in the schools (Pearson, 2000). Contrary to Flesch's charge, most basals had always included some phonics instruction, and basal publishers responded to criticisms by moderately increasing the amount of phonics instruction. As late as 1990, the vast majority of American children continued to be taught with basal readers, and most teachers, if asked, would have said that they used a basal reading approach (Chall & Squire, 1991).

Along with the basal reader, many school districts adopted a skills management approach to teaching word recognition, word analysis, vocabulary, and comprehension. Skills management systems identified and sequenced reading skills, provided worksheets for practicing the skills, and provided tests to monitor students' mastery. The Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development (Otto & Askov, 1971) is an example of a skills management system for teaching word attack, vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, and interpretative reading. Each of these broad areas was divided into many subskills, numbering from 100 to 400 different skills. Each week, students, based on their assessed needs, would work on different skills and take tests to determine their level of mastery.

The skills management approach proved to be so popular that it was adopted by developers of basal reading programs in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The sequence of skills instruction became more precise and robust, more skills were taught, the number of worksheets increased, and students took more mastery tests. This approach was so time-consuming that reading for pleasure and meaning became rare in many classrooms. Reading instruction was now driven by an accountability system that assessed a proliferating number of reading skills, often at the expense of reading books (Johnson & Pearson, 1975).

1970–1980: Whole-Language and Literature-Based Approaches

Advocates of more holistic approaches—whole-language and literature-based instruction—began to challenge basal reading programs in the late 1970s, particularly the practice of chopping reading up into a series of skills. The pendulum swung firmly to a focus on meaning as the key to learning to read. Whole language was popularized by influential articles by Kenneth Goodman (1976) and by Frank Smith's book *Understanding Reading* (1971). They charged that learning to read is a natural process, and breaking reading into a myriad of skills makes it challenging to learn. More specific charges were that basals included too much skills instruction, that instruction in phonics and other subskills of reading was not integrated with actual reading, that vocabulary was much too controlled, that stories were banal and not well constructed, that separating students into ability groups had dire results for less skilled readers, and that teachers were over-programmed and over-scripted.

Advocates of literature-based programs shared similar criticisms, though they tended not to be as adamantly opposed to basal anthologies as their whole-language colleagues. Both groups pushed for the use of authentic children's literature in

reading instruction and lamented the content of basal programs, which focused on white, middle-class characters, themes, and settings. Both groups had a marked effect on published reading programs and a huge effect on the reading instruction taking place in U.S. classrooms.

Three general characteristics of whole-language and literature-based instruction stand out: the use of authentic children's literature, a child-centered approach, and a focus on learning to read by reading. Advocates argued that authentic children's literature—books written by professional authors to engage and entertain children—should be the mainstay of reading instruction. Moreover, whole texts should be used; excerpts should be avoided. Students and their needs, desires, and interests should be the focus of attention, the primary concern. A preset curriculum is suspect. Student-initiated learning is favored over teacher-initiated instruction. Instruction comes when and as needed, while students are actually engaged in reading, and in quite brief mini lessons.

The influence of whole-language and literature-based instruction produced a significant change in basal reading programs, especially in first grade; many schools abandoned basals completely. Publishers of basals now picked reading selections for their literary merit and not based on their control and repetition of the vocabulary. Hoffman and his colleagues carefully documented these changes, examining first-grade basal programs from 1987 and 1993 (Hoffman et al., 1994). In the newer programs, students had to learn more than twice as many individual words as in the older ones. Each word appeared with far fewer repetitions, and the overall reading level for first grade was significantly more difficult. On the positive side, the material was judged to be more engaging. Educators and publishers were betting that interest and engagement would trump vocabulary control and phonics instruction.

Instruction in word recognition skills and strategies still played a part in these new basal reading programs, but the whole-language movement introduced a new and controversial method of teaching word recognition. Goodman and others erroneously believed that readers used three cues to identify words: the meaning of the sentence, the grammar, and the letter-sound patterns. Therefore, reading *house* for *home* in the sentence *John ran home* was not considered an error because the reader demonstrated that he had preserved the meaning of the sentence. The efficacy of the three-cueing system will become an issue again when the science of reading movement arises in 2018.

1980–1990: A New Focus on Reading Comprehension

In the early 1980s, many politicians and educators were again convinced that the nation faced a crisis because of the poor quality of kindergarten through college education. One report, *A Nation at Risk* (U.S. Department of Education, 1983), urged improved teacher training, a longer school day and school year, and the adoption of higher academic standards. Reading educators responded with their own report, *Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson et al.,1985), which recommended well-designed phonics instruction, a stronger focus on teaching comprehension, and improved teacher training. Other educators argued that the crisis was manufactured to serve political ends (Berliner & Biddle, 1995).

The researchers who wrote *Becoming a Nation of Readers* were among several leading a change in our understanding of reading comprehension and how it should be developed. They argued that enough was known about teaching word recognition and therefore researchers and educators should focus on developing students' comprehension. Propelled by radical changes in psychological theory and by a large-scale research effort launched at the Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois, researchers explored how background knowledge influenced reading comprehension and how skilled readers used strategies to make sense of text (Pearson & Cervetti, 2017). Pearson proposed the gradual release of responsibility model that changed the structure of comprehension instruction (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983), and Palincsar and Brown (1984) crafted an instructional technique on that model called

reciprocal teaching. These reports and research efforts attempted to settle the issue of how much emphasis to place on holistic-meaning-focused instruction and how much on skills-based instruction.

In the 1990s, while the federal government was funding research on reading comprehension, it insisted that educators not lose focus on word recognition instruction in beginning reading. Marilyn Adams wrote *Beginning to Read* (1990), a text that presented the research on how the mind works while we read and documented how children come to link printed words on the page to their spoken equivalents and to meaning. Once again, the importance of phonics instruction was stressed, and a new construct was added—phonemic awareness. Before children can link letters to sounds (phonics), then need to become aware of the individual sounds in the stream of speech. Adams, at the behest of the federal government, reacted against the whole language movement's lack of attention to explicit instruction in word recognition.

2000s: Massive Federal Intervention in Reading

In 1997, Congress directed the Director of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) to convene a panel of experts to "assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read." This resulted in two reports. In the first of these, the National Research Council, a prestigious scientific organization, published *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* (Snow et al.,1998), a book that reviewed and brought to prominence much of the research on early reading sponsored by the NICHD. The report focused on young children and emphasized the importance of phonemic awareness and phonics, especially for children who have difficulty learning to read.

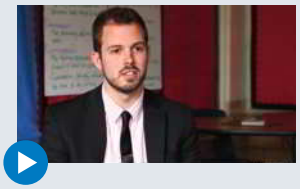
In the second report, the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Panel published the *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching Children to Read (NRP)* (NICHD, 2000). In this report, the NRP identified five components of reading instruction that it saw as strongly supported by research: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. This report became the basis for most curriculum decisions in the years that followed. The National Reading Panel report was a back-to-basics movement that sought to fix the perceived poor reading skills of American students by strengthening early reading instruction. The message most educators took from the report was to put more focus on letter recognition, phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency but vocabulary and comprehension, particularly comprehension strategy instruction, still played a role.

The National Reading Panel Report was part of a larger effort by the George W. Bush administration to upgrade reading standards and improve reading achievement. In 2001, Congress passed the No Child Left Behind Act, which mandated yearly testing of students in third through eighth grade in reading and math. These reformers believed that if we held teachers and schools accountable, reading achievement would improve. We will review the effects of this testing movement in Chapter 5.

The NRP Report had both strong supporters and strong opponents, but both groups agreed that it has had a significant effect on reading instruction. Most notably, *Reading First*, a massive federal funding program, was specifically designed to promote kindergarten through third grade instruction in each of the five areas endorsed by the report—that is, in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Reading First was implemented in over 1,700 school districts and had a substantial influence on reading instruction despite its only marginal results (Gamse et al., 2008). Only first-graders improved in decoding ability, and second and third grade students did not improve in reading comprehension.

Basal publishers responded to the federal initiatives by updating their programs to reflect the new research priorities. They also changed their identity becoming *core reading programs*. The change in terminology was significant (Dewitz et al., 2010). Whereas *basal* means the base from which students begin reading instruction and then move into ever-wider ranges of literature, *core* conveys the idea that these published programs are *the* reading curriculum, encompassing the entirety of reading

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.2



A fifth-grade teacher discusses his curriculum decisions as he thinks about the Common Core State Standards and the use of novels in the classroom. Why is it better to teach a few things well than to survey all the possible topics in reading/language arts?

instruction. Core reading programs were marketed as being scientifically based after a number of states and one research lab certified the research base of their instruction. However, subsequent research, especially studies of comprehension instruction, have challenged the research base of these programs (Dewitz et al., 2009; McGill-Franzen et al., 2006). As the influence of the NRP Report began to wane, other policy makers turned their focus to standards.

2010: The Common Core State Standards Provide a New Influence on Reading Instruction

Some educators and policy experts believed that raising standards was key to solving the reoccurring reading crisis. The most recent national initiative was sponsored by a consortium of state governors and superintendents and resulted in the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) (NGA & CCSSO, 2010), a set of standards adopted by 45 states and supported by the Obama administration. **Figure 2.2** presents a shortened version of the standards. The standards urged educators to think about reading instruction at three levels. Students should (1) grasp key ideas and details, (2) understand how the craft and structure of the text influenced the meaning, and (3) integrate knowledge and ideas to produce new understandings. These standards, plus the requirement that students read increasingly complex text, were applauded by many educators. Unfortunately, the writers of the CCSS quickly betrayed their own initiative by writing a second document, the Publisher's Criteria (Coleman & Pimental, 2012), designed to influence the development of instructional materials consistent with the CCSS.

FIGURE 2.2
An Abbreviated Version of the Common Core State Standards

Key Ideas and Details

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

Craft and Structure

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

Integration of Knowledge and Ideas

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

Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity

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

The betrayal took several forms. The Publisher's Criteria (Coleman & Pimentel, 2012) advocated an instructional method called *close reading*, which had little to no research support (Welsch et al., 2019). Students were to reread a text several times, digging into its meaning, structure, and language with each reading (Snow & O'Connor, 2013). The reader's use of prior knowledge was discouraged, so personal interpretation took a back seat to the author's ideas. The writers of the Publisher's Criteria advocated the use of complex text, believing that those were the texts that would produce the greatest growth in reading. In New York, fifth-grade students began the year by reading the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and studying it for two weeks or more. After several tortured re-readings of the text one students exclaimed, "I hate human rights."

The CCSS had a considerable influence on reading instruction and core reading programs as publishers rewrote their programs to align with the Standards (Kenavey, 2016). Four changes were evident. First, the core reading program created units of instruction that focused on developing students' knowledge of a topic or theme. Second, core reading programs championed close reading. Third, the CCSS urged publishers and teachers to assign increasingly complex texts because the developers of the standards judged that current reading texts were too easy. Fourth, the programs directed teachers to keep students focused on the ideas in the text and to minimize the use of prior knowledge and experience. This practice was in some conflict with the well documented relationship of prior knowledge and reading comprehension. The influence of the CCSS is still widely evident in current core reading programs, since most organize text selections to systematically develop knowledge and the practices of close reading are widely employed (Dewitz et al., 2026).

2018: The Great Debate Is Revived and the Science of Reading

In 2018, Emily Hanford from American Public Media and other journalists began a series of reports and podcasts on what they saw as the current *crisis* in reading instruction. Using reading scores from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP, 2018), they argued that only 34% of U.S. fourth- and eighth-graders were proficient readers. The cause of this problem was the failure of schools and teachers to follow the science of reading. In their articles and podcasts, they identified several culprits. Children were being taught to guess words from context cues using the three-cueing system: the meaning, the grammar, and the letter-sound associations. Children were not being taught to sound out words—schools were not teaching phonics. Instead, approaches such as guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) relied on teacher judgment, not on a systematic curriculum to guide word recognition instruction. They labeled these practices "balanced literacy" (Weaver, 1998), an approach that is difficult to define with several origins (Pressley et al., 2023). Some saw balanced literacy as a new name for whole language and the ideas popularized by Kenneth Goodman and Frank Smith in the 1970s.

Instead, the science of reading (SOR) advocates argued that educators should follow the research or the science, For some advocates, who took a narrow approach, this primarily meant systematic, explicit instruction in phonics and, in some cases, stretching phonics instruction into third, fourth, and fifth grades (Coyne et al., 2025). There was another strand within the SOR movement, and these educators focused on the broad scope of reading research and considered word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, motivation, and the complex problem of how all we know about reading can be integrated into a curriculum. The thinking of these educators was presented in 53 papers published in the journal *Reading Research Quarterly* from 2020 to 2021 and in many articles since. These authors were concerned with what to teach, when, for whom, and how much (Seidenberg et al., 2020). Educators with a broad view, as reflected in our book, distinguished between the science of reading and the science of teaching reading (Jensen, 2021; Kim & Snow, 2021). While much is known about reading, translating that research into curriculum and instruction is not easy (Solari et al., 2020).

The narrow advocates of the SOR focused their efforts on phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency. Some even argued that once children learned to identify words, comprehension would be effortless (Hasbrouck, 2019). The influence of the movement grew, promoted by nonprofit organizations such as The Reading League, The National Council for Teacher Quality, and The American Enterprise Institute, for-profit publishers such as Amplify and Imagine Learning, and social media groups (Aydarova, 2023). Currently, 34 states have passed legislation mandating that school districts follow the science of reading by purchasing a core reading program aligned to the science, and in nine states, specific programs have been mandated. Tierney and Pearson (2024) debunked many of the claims of the narrow interpretation of SOR, arguing that phonics alone was not the solution to effective reading instruction.

We are going to leave the latest battle in the reading wars while it is still simmering. Our textbook has always been built on the research in reading instruction. When we wrote the first volume of this book in 1998, research was our guide. We continue to present a comprehensive view of the research on reading instruction, and we will help you build an understanding of the knowledge, strategies, and dispositions you will need in order to plan and deliver instruction.

Reflect and Apply

3. Compare the rules of Joshua Levitt (Figure 2.1) to the standards of the Common Core (Figure 2.3). Does the Common Core set reasonable expectations for students in American schools?
4. Since the 1950s, numerous books, reports, and podcasts have urged educators to increase the focus on phonics instruction. Why is phonics frequently the suggested solution to problems in reading education? What else should reformers and educators consider?

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES OF EFFECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION

Providing effective instruction has always been a concern of teachers, researchers, and policy makers, and a huge proportion of the most productive research and theorizing on the topic has taken place in the past five decades. Researchers have used two methods to unlock the principles of effective instruction. Many researchers have designed instructional studies and compared one method of instruction to another to determine which is more effective. Through these controlled studies, researchers have learned about the importance of clear explanations, modeling, pacing, practice, and feedback (Duke et al., 2021). Other researchers have studied effective teachers (Carlisle et al., 2011). They have studied schools, observed in classrooms, recorded the practices of successful administrators and teachers, as well as less successful teachers for comparison, and related instructional practices to students' growth in reading. We will first describe the research on effective schools because teachers work in a complex social and political environment. The best administrators encourage teachers and provide the resources they need for success. Next, we will take you into effective classrooms and describe successful teachers. After that, we will dissect these classrooms and highlight the instructional principles that underlie their success. We will conclude by taking a closer look at the three dominant models for teaching reading—core reading programs, guided reading, and reader's/writer's workshop.

Highly Effective Schools and Teachers

Our understanding of effective teaching begins with consideration of effective schools. Teachers exist within schools, and effective leadership facilitates their work. In 1991, Hoffman summarized research conducted in the 1980s by describing eight attributes of such schools. While these studies are dated, the principles continue to affect schools today:

- a clear school mission,
- effective instructional leadership and practices,
- high expectations,
- a safe, orderly and positive environment,
- ongoing curriculum improvement,
- maximum use of instructional time,
- frequent monitoring of student progress, and
- positive home-school relationships.

Ten years later, a group of researchers studied 18 schools that were beating the odds, schools in high-poverty areas whose students' reading achievement well exceeded what was expected (Taylor et al., 2002). They found the same factors that define effective schools, along with a few new insights. In these schools, there was a strong focus on student learning, what previous researchers called high expectations. These researchers also noted frequent collaboration among teachers to design curriculum and refine instruction.

In other studies, researchers have focused on the classroom and the teacher, looking for classrooms in which students show particularly strong achievement in reading, achievement well beyond that in average schools and classrooms. Six studies stand out, four of which deal with instruction generally (Allington & Johnston, 2002; Pressley et al., 2001; Taylor et al., 2003; Wharton-McDonald et al., 1998) and two of which deal specifically with motivation (Bogner et al., 2002; Dolezal et al., 2003). Each of these reports is well worth detailed study, and we encourage you to read them.

Studies of highly effective teachers start with the assumption that by studying experts, we can understand the tools of their trade. Thus, psychologists have studied expert airplane pilots, radiologists, and chefs trying to discern the thinking that underlies their expertise. In educational studies, researchers, with the assistance of school personnel, identify teachers who achieve superior results, as measured by both standardized tests and their supervisors' professional opinions. These expert teachers, along with some average teachers, are observed over the course of a school year, and their teaching practices are recorded, described, categorized, and then linked to outcomes such as students' test performance, reading levels, and the quality of their written work.

In the classrooms of highly effective teachers, several essential practices stand out. First, these teachers create a stimulating environment for their students. The classrooms are filled with print, including books of all kinds for students to read, student-created print—reports, books, charts, and projects—and teacher-created print—instructional charts, bulletin boards highlighting topics being studied, and graphic organizers. Second, children are constantly busy, with multiple activities underway at once. Teachers instruct the whole class but also work with small groups and confer with individual students. A wide range of texts is used to teach reading, including core readers, children's literature, nonfiction books, magazines, online information, digital texts, graphics, and children's own writing. Because children read many different texts, reading instruction is often integrated with content areas, so at times it is hard to tell if the topic is reading, science, or both.

These exemplary teachers demonstrate a rich combination of direct explicit skill instruction (in phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary and comprehension strategies) and implicit instruction, like reading quality literature, book discussions led by the teacher, and in the upper grades, book discussion led by the students (Connor et al., 2013; Puzio et al., 2020). Process writing and writing in response to reading occur at all levels; even the youngest students plan, compose, revise, and share what they have written (Graham & Hebert, 2011). Exemplary teachers ignore the age-old fight between teaching phonics skills and engaging children with literature—they do both! They select a story from the core reading program when it is helpful to introduce a new concept and skill, and then students read more challenging texts to apply what they have learned. As students work with these more difficult texts, they meet regularly in small groups and confer with their teacher for additional help so the teacher can gauge their progress and assist them when necessary. To orchestrate all of this, the expert teachers are masterful classroom managers who use many opportunities to motivate their students. **Figure 2.3** summarizes the characteristics of these excellent teachers.

Another characteristic of effective teaching is the differentiation of instruction based on assessments (Connor, 2019). Effective teachers use data to determine which students need more time receiving explicit instruction in word recognition and comprehension and which thrive working by themselves, with a partner, or in small groups. In one school in which teachers practiced data-driven, differentiated instruction from first through third grades, 94% of students were reading at or above grade level (Connor, 2019).

Traditional Perspectives on Instruction

Over the next several pages, we will work to define the concept of instruction. Start by reading the story of Mrs. Mowry's fourth-grade classroom. From here, we will distill some traditional principles of instruction. We will then discuss a cognitive perspective on instruction, one that influences the teaching of word recognition,

FIGURE 2.3
Characteristics of Teachers Who Produce Outstanding Achievement in Reading

- The best teachers employ a rich combination of skills instruction (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension) and more holistic activities (reading quality literature and nonfiction texts, discussing and writing about what they read), focusing on important academic tasks.
- The best teachers differentiate instruction. Some children need explicit systematic instruction and others thrive reading and write with a partner or in small groups.
- The best teachers teach a lot. They work hard, and their students work hard in turn. They employ a combination of well-planned small-group activities and whole-class instruction.
- The best teachers scaffold students' efforts so that if students put significant effort into learning, they will be successful.
- The best teachers employ higher-order thinking.
- The best teachers integrate reading instruction with the language arts and the other content areas.
- The best teachers manage classrooms skillfully.
- The best teachers motivate continually and prominently and repeatedly recognize students' work.

Based on National Governors Association Center for Best Practice & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010). Common Core State Standards for English language arts and literacy in history, social studies, science and technical subjects. Authors

vocabulary, and comprehension. The cognitive perspective emphasizes direct explicit instruction, but there is still a place for implicit learning (Seidenberg & MacDonald, 2018). Implicit learning is vital for building reading fluency and vocabulary. The *In the Classroom 2.1* feature shares an example of Mrs. Mowry's classroom instruction.

In the Classroom 2.1

A Portrait of Exemplary Fourth-Grade Instruction

Mrs. Mowry begins the period by reading aloud and discussing the survival book *Earthquake Terror* (Kehret, 1996), the story of Jonathan, an 11-year-old boy and his family on a camping trip in Northern California when an earthquake strikes. Mrs. Mowry wants the students to describe the main character, Jonathan, who must care for his younger sister, who uses a walker, while his parents go for help. The discussion today focuses on character traits, and Mrs. Mowry first models and describes the concept of a character trait. She and the students then list character traits on the board, including *responsible, caring, problem-solver, resourceful*, and *resentful*.

The students are also working in book clubs, reading one of three related novels on the theme of survival—*I Survived* (Tarshis, 2011), *Kensuke's Kingdom* (Morpurgo, 1999), and *Hatchet* (Paulsen, 1987). Today, when the students meet with their book club partners, they will create a list of the main characters in their novel and infer each character's traits. The students are paired up so they can assist one another and apply what they learned in the read-aloud. Alongside each trait, they will provide text evidence, including actions and thoughts of the characters that they gleaned from the text. During the book club time, the students are actively engaged in reading and taking notes. The room is quiet. Occasionally, a student will confer with a partner. Mrs. Mowry provides extra help to the struggling readers in the room, conducting a guided reading lesson with their text, *I Survived*.

During book club time, four of Mrs. Mowry's students work with the school's reading specialist, who provides additional small-group instruction. These students are reading well below a fourth-grade level and continue to have difficulty with decoding and oral reading fluency. Thirty minutes later the four return to their book club.

Later in the period, Mrs. Mowry uses the concept of character traits in a writing task. She tells the students their task is to take what they have learned about character traits and write a poem about a character from their book club selection. A handout helps the students structure their poems. When they have finished writing their poem, most students return to their independent reading assignment while the teacher confers with individual students.

Mrs. Mowry conducts short reading conferences with five students each day while the rest of the class works on book clubs or independent reading. During the conferences, she discusses what the students are reading, assesses oral reading fluency as needed, assesses their comprehension, and then probes their critical thinking. The conferences allow her to praise and support the students' efforts as readers and guide their reading choices. As the year progresses, the conferences continue, and Mrs. Mowry also assesses comprehension by observing the students as they interact in book clubs. In Mrs. Mowry's class, there is a free flow of activities moving from whole-class instruction to small-group instruction to individual work.

Mrs. Mowry's class exemplifies many instructional principles that are essential for learning. These principles were gleaned from about 1960 to about 1980 as educators and researchers produced a rich body of basic information about effective instruction (Good & Brophy, 2003). These traditional principles included:

- focusing on academically relevant tasks,
- employing active teaching,

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.3

Active teaching takes place at any age and with any component of reading. In this first-grade classroom note how the teacher engages in active teaching and how she fosters active learning.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.4

Mrs. McClelland, a third-grade teacher, engages with her students to think deeply about the text they are reading. How many different ways does the teacher encourage and support her students?

- fostering active learning,
- providing sufficient and timely feedback so that students can learn from their mistakes, and
- distinguishing between instruction and practice.

Focus on academically relevant tasks

If you are going to get really good at something, you need to do a lot of it. You need to have what educational researchers have termed *opportunities to learn*, chances to practice whatever it is you are trying to get good at (Berliner, 1979). If students are going to become proficient readers, they need to read a lot. Certainly, plentiful reading is the central, academically relevant task in learning to read, but it is by no means the only one.

How much students should read each day remains an open question. Brenner and Hiebert's (2010) data suggest that if students read everything in their core reading programs, they could do so in 15 minutes or less daily. Clearly, that is not nearly enough reading to become fluent and skillful. Allington (2014) and Fisher and Ivey (2006) argue that students in the middle grades need to spend 30 to 45 minutes a day reading. Even more time is necessary for readers who struggle to learn to read. These students, who often receive multiple interventions from their reading teachers and tutors, typically read less than five minutes daily (Dewitz & Dewitz, 2003). Remember, the quality of reading also matters. Glancing at pictures in a nonfiction text randomly does not provide the same experience as engaging deeply with an exciting novel or reading carefully to understand a new concept like the water cycle from a science book.

In addition to reading itself, several subtasks are important. If students are to become proficient decoders—readers who can use their knowledge of letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns to decode unfamiliar words—they need to be actively engaged in tasks such as reading decodable and leveled books (Pugh et al., 2023). If students are to become proficient at responding to literature, they need many opportunities to discuss and write about what they have read. And if students are to become critical readers and writers of informational prose, they need abundant opportunities to read, evaluate, and respond critically to informational texts in print and on the Internet. These are only some of the reading-related areas in which students must become proficient, but we think we have made our point: Curriculum—what students study—matters! In Mrs. Mowry's classroom, students read and write all the time—during whole-class time, in small literature groups, and during independent reading.

Employ active teaching

The term *active teaching* refers to a set of principles and teaching behaviors that research has shown to be particularly effective, especially in teaching basic skills (Konopka et al., 2015). Teachers who engage in active teaching are the instructional leaders of their classrooms; they are fully knowledgeable about the content and purposes of the instruction they present and about the instructional goals they wish to accomplish. Active teachers do a lot of teaching. Although they use discovery learning for some purposes, they do not generally rely on students to discover what it is they are supposed to learn, particularly when the learning deals with basic skills. The concept of active teaching became even more precise when cognitive–constructivists principles defined it in terms of direct explanation and modeling. The active teacher explains concepts and strategies, models strategies and thinking, and guides students as they attempt to use the new ideas. Mrs. Mowry employed active teaching when she explained the concept of character traits and had the students generate the traits that describe Jonathan, the main character in the novel *Earthquake Terror.*

Foster active learning

Just as it is vital that the teacher be actively involved in teaching, it is also crucial that the learner be actively involved in learning (Good & Brophy, 2003). As we explained in our discussion of the cognitive–constructivist orientation in Chapter 1, the learner must do something with the material he is studying if he is to learn much from it. The students in Mrs. Mowry classroom engage in active learning when they meet with their book club partner and together create a list of characters and traits for the novel they are reading. Fourth-grade teacher Juan Perez puts it well in *In the Classroom 2.2*.

In the Classroom 2.2

Actively Engaging Students in Reading and Responding to a Text

Juan Perez wants his students to be deeply involved when they are reading. That's simply a fact. But there are a number of ways this can happen. First, he lets the students have a say in what they will study. Early in the school year, they picked a number of topics to study, and sharks were first on the list. Second, Mr. Perez lets students select which among several shark books they will read. Third, Mr. Perez gives students the choice in how they respond to a text. Finally, students can choose with whom they want to work. Say, for instance, a student is reading a trade book on sharks, perhaps Seymour Simon's *Sharks*. As he reads, the student can:

- think about the new things he is learning about sharks,
- discuss new insights with others,
- make outlines or sketches that depict his new knowledge,
- write a brief story about how he might respond if he were in the water and saw a shark fin nearby,
- draw relationships between the new knowledge and his existing knowledge of sharks, or
- attempt to implement the new knowledge (for example, simulate an underwater environment by making a diorama of sharks and their habitat, as one of my students did).

Or the student can undertake many other activities that cause him to grapple with the new knowledge and integrate it into his existing schema. As we all know, precious little new knowledge will be absorbed passively.

Provide sufficient and timely feedback

Feedback is a long-standing precept of teaching and learning (Lipnevich & Panadero, 2021) and it has been more recently expanded as part of the formative assessment, a process in which teachers note what students say and write and then offer guidance to improve their thinking. From the dialogues of Socrates to the answers included in programmed instruction, feedback has long been a central component of instruction. In the years before school, young children get a great deal of immediate, positive feedback—fussing brings a bottle; a smile, a lot of attention; and saying *ball*, a round object to play with. During these same years, young children also receive a good deal of immediate, negative feedback—too much fussing may bring only a closed door, a smile at the television set produces no response, and begging once too often to take the iPad to the restaurant may lead to no iPad.

Once in school, students continue to receive feedback, although with one teacher managing perhaps 25 students, individual feedback isn't as easily available as it was at home. However, such feedback remains just as important. Feedback helps students refine how they identify new words or infer characters' motives in a novel. This principle applies whether the material is the sound represented by the letter *m*, the pronunciation of the word *rabbit*, or the central theme of a story. Sometimes, feedback can be part of the learning experience and doesn't require a response from someone else. Reading itself offers feedback. When a child successfully decodes the word *pint*, the rest of the sentence confirms they decoded it correctly. For example, in the sentence "John drank a pint of sour milk and he felt bad," the words drank and milk provide context for evaluating the decoding of pint. At other times, peers can give feedback; for example, a group of fifth-graders reading a novel might agree that *the* theme is the importance of friendship. However, much of the time—such as when learning letter-sound correspondences—the feedback must come from the teacher. Figuring out how to provide timely, meaningful, and supportive feedback for about 25 students is a major challenge for a classroom teacher.

The concept of formative assessment (we will expand on this idea in Chapter 5) has given a structure to the feedback process. According to Black and Wiliam's (2009) seminal work on formative assessment, the teacher and the students first discuss and clarify the learning task and criteria for success. Then, the students engage in the tasks that elicit evidence of the students' proficiency. The teacher next provides feedback on their efforts, and the students are encouraged to give each other feedback. The feedback tells the students how to modify their thinking. In Mrs. Mowry's classroom, the formative assessment process is employed as students move from an initial explanation of character traits to partner practice and then to individual work. At each step, the teacher and the students can provide feedback on the students' thinking about this new concept—character traits.

Distinguish between instruction and practice

Effective teaching requires both instruction and practice, but the two need to be clearly distinguished. Practice involves asking students to do something they already know how to do or are just beginning to learn. Instruction consists in showing or telling students how to do something that they do not yet know how to do. Simply asking students to do something does not constitute teaching them how to do it. Practice is appropriate *after* students have learned whatever it is they are to practice. Practice is a type of implicit instruction. Much of what children learn about reading, they learn while they are reading. It takes a considerable volume of reading to practice word recognition skills and learn the letter-sound patterns that are not explicitly taught. It takes a large volume of reading to learn the vocabulary needed to read at a high school level (Graves, 2022; Nagy et al., 1985). It takes a great deal of reading of texts to become a fluent reader. It takes even more reading to acquire the sort of deep and broad knowledge that leads to understanding out world.

The rich instruction we have been describing does not always take place, and many factors influence instruction in the classroom, including the reading program the district purchased and the instructional model the district and the principal endorse.

Reflect and Apply

5. Think back as far as you can in your schooling—to elementary school, if possible, or to secondary school—and jot down a list of tasks you completed that you think were academically relevant and a list of tasks you completed that you think were not academically relevant. Then write about what does and does not constitute an academically relevant task.

6. If you have the opportunity to observe in a school, classify what you see into academically relevant tasks and what you see as busy work. Also try to classify what you see as instruction versus practice.

A Cognitive–Constructivist Perspective on Instruction

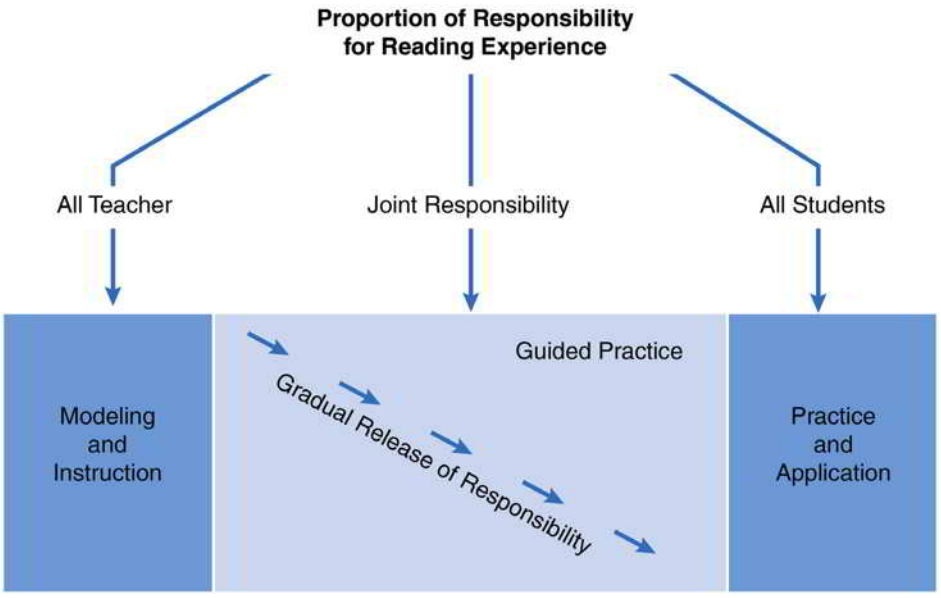
The cognitive–constructive orientation underlying this book requires us to use several terms and concepts to describe instruction because these will take us deeper into a cognitive approach. In a nutshell, the cognitive–constructive orientation makes the process of instruction more explicit. It outlines a process of learning that begins with direct instruction and ends with students using what has been taught in an effective independent manner. In the sections that follow we will describe these principles based on our cognitive orientation. These principles are:

- the gradual release of responsibility model,
- the zone of proximal development,
- teaching for transfer, and
- teaching for understanding.

The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model

The gradual release of responsibility model depicts an entire instructional cycle during which students learn new skills and knowledge and gradually assume increased responsibility for learning. Within this model are several interrelated concepts—*direct explanation*, *cognitive modeling*, *scaffolding and cooperative learning*, and *contextualized review and practice*. A particularly informative visual representation of the model developed by Pearson and Gallagher (1983) is shown in **Figure 2.4**. While the model is forty years old, it has been reaffirmed by recent research (Webb et al., 2019) and applied to the teaching of many comprehension strategies like the use of text structure (Bogaerds-Hazenberg et al., 2021), self-questioning (Joseph et al., 2016), and inferential reasoning (Elleman, 2017).

FIGURE 2.4
The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model



Based on Pearson, P. D., & Gallagher, M. C., "The Instruction of Reading Comprehension," Contemporary Educational Psychology, 8, 317–344.

The model depicts a temporal sequence in which students gradually progress from situations in which the teacher takes responsibility for completing a reading task (in other words, does most of the work for them) to situations in which students assume increasing responsibility for reading tasks and finally to situations in which students take total or nearly total responsibility for reading tasks. This model can play out over a week, a month, or a full school year. For some skills like decoding in the fourth grade, the students should be fully independent, needing little or no assistance from the teacher. At the same time, they might just be starting to learn how to determine the author's purposes, and the teacher will assume full responsibility for explaining and modeling their thinking as one step in teaching this concept.

As is typical in education, the gradual release of responsibility model has been adopted by other educators but with a new name: "I do it, we do it, you do it" (Fisher & Frey, 2007). This simplified language helps explain the learning process to students, but it loses the original terminology's explicitness and depth. We prefer that you keep the original model firmly in mind as a guide to instruction but use the simple language when talking to your students. They don't need to hear terms like *direct explanation* or *cognitive modeling*.

As an example of this model, suppose a teacher decides that students need to learn to summarize what they have read. The teacher begins by explaining what a summary is and how to construct one, trying to be as explicit as possible. Next, the teacher models the process and lets students observe their thinking as they create a summary. Then the teacher and students work to develop a summary together in a phase called *guided practice*. During guided practice, the teacher might write a summary using a document camera or Smart Board. then asks their students questions ("Does our summary contain just the important ideas?"), provides hints ("Look for topic sentences."), and models the process again if students need it. After considerable guided practice, students are ready to try it out on their own. This instructional cycle may play out over days or weeks. The gradual release of responsibility model typically begins with whole-class instruction, but it will continue as small-group instruction to provide support for students who need it.

Use direct explanation

We use *direct explanation* to mean the first stage of the gradual release of responsibility model.

When a strategy is first introduced, the teacher provides:

- an explicit description of the strategy—what the students are going to learn to do,
- an explanation of the procedure or process for executing the strategy—how to do it,
- clear statements about why the strategy is essential and when to use it, and
- modeling of the strategy with multiple pieces of text.

Your goal is to illuminate for students the thinking that underlies the strategy. Strategies are used to solve problems when we read, and the teacher needs to point out these problems and how they can be solved. Being clear and explicit is not easy because experienced readers are rarely aware of how they determine a word's meaning, find a main idea, or make an inference. For the expert reader, these processes are largely automatic. Effective teacher reach into their own thinking as they model for students. Telling students when and why to do something provides motivation and helps the students understand how one particular strategy is related to the larger act of reading.

Engage in cognitive modeling

After an explanation, modeling is the next step in the gradual release model, but modeling should continue whenever students need greater understanding. When teachers model a task, they actually *do* something, rather than just tell students how to do it. A specific sort of modeling, cognitive modeling, is beneficial in teaching

students complex concepts and strategies. In cognitive modeling, teachers use explicit instructional talk to reveal their thought processes as they perform the tasks that students will be asked to perform. For example, a teacher might model the mental process of determining the meaning of an unknown word in context, as shown in *Teaching Tool 2.1*.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.5

Teachers should think aloud demonstrating how they comprehend a text, commenting on how they read and solve problems.

Teaching Tool 2.1

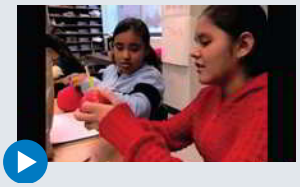
Cognitive Modeling

Teacher: Suppose I'm reading along and I come to this sentence: "It was raining heavily, and water was standing in the street, so before he left for work Mr. Nelson put on his raincoat, buckled on his galoshes over his shoes, and picked up his umbrella." Let me see—g-a-l-o-s-h-e-s. I don't think I know that word. Let me think about this. It's raining, and Mr. Nelson picks up his raincoat and umbrella and buckles something over his shoes. Galoshes must be some sort of waterproof boots that go over shoes. I can't be certain of that, but it makes sense in the sentence; and I don't think I need to look it up right now.

Cognitive modeling provides a window into the teacher's mind and constitutes one of the most powerful tools for showing children how to reason as they seek to understand a text. As we have stated, cognitive modeling is not easy. Duffy's *Explaining Reading* (2026) provides some strong examples for how to model many reading strategies. After the teacher models the strategy, the students should try it, and the teacher provides help as the students require it.

Scaffold instruction and use cooperative learning when appropriate

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.6



Concentrate on the teachers in this video and notice how pairing students supports their language development. How might students who work in pairs encourage and support their oral language skills?

As students try out new tasks and new strategies, the teacher provides support by scaffolding their efforts. We believe that the term *scaffolding* was first used in its educational sense by David Wood and his colleagues (Wood et al., 1976), who used it to characterize mothers' verbal interactions when reading to their young children. In these interactions, mothers gently yet supportively guide their children toward successful literacy experiences. Thus, for example, in sharing a picture book and attempting to assist the child in reading the words that label the pictures, a mother might at first page through the book, familiarizing the child with the pictures and the general content of the book. Then, she might focus on a single picture and ask the child what it is. After this, she might point to the word below the picture, tell the child that the word names the picture, ask the child what the word is, and provide feedback on the correctness of the answer. The important point to note here is that the mother has neither told the child the word nor asked him to say it. Instead, she has built an instructional structure, a scaffold that assists the child in learning. Scaffolding, as Wood and his colleagues have aptly put it, is "a process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts."

Teachers scaffold student learning in many different ways. Most frequently, the language of the teacher guides the student through the process. If the student is stuck trying to determine the main idea of a passage, the teacher might remind her to reread the heading and look at the bold print, what we call "moment-to-moment verbal support." In another setting, the teacher might use a graphic organizer to support or scaffold the student. A story map reminds the reader to look for the critical elements of a narrative—setting, character, problem, and so forth. Even a stack of Post-it notes can remind students to jot down questions while they read—scaffolding a self-questioning strategy. Finally, a teacher might have two students work together on a task, with each student supporting the other. *In the Classroom 2.3* expands on the idea of small-group scaffolding for English learners. In each of these cases, the teacher is assisting students in doing something that they might not otherwise be

able to do. Much of Chapters 11 and 12 describes ways to build supportive scaffolds for the many different types of reading students do.

One form of scaffolding is cooperative learning, a set of procedures that can be used during the guided and independent phase of the gradual release of responsibility model. Cooperative learning is an older idea that still has value today. David and Roger Johnson define *cooperative learning* as "the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning" (Johnson et al., 1994). Robert Slavin defines it as "instructional methods in which students at all performance levels work together toward a group goal" (1987). As the Johnsons have repeatedly said, "None of us is as smart as all of us." Groups of students working together have the potential to achieve well beyond what a student working alone can do. Moreover, working in cooperative groups can produce multiple benefits, such as improving students' achievement, effort to succeed, critical thinking, attitudes toward the subjects studied, psychological adjustment, and self-esteem. Cooperative learning can also foster students' interpersonal relationships, improving their ability to work with others and build relationships among diverse racial, ethnic, and social groups. Additionally, as John Seely Brown and his colleagues note (Brown et al., 1989), group learning offers learners opportunities for displaying and recognizing the multiple roles that are often required to solve real-world problems and to recognize and confront their own and others' ineffective strategies and misconceptions. The *In the Classroom 2.3* feature describes how cooperative learning can be very beneficial for English learners.

In the Classroom 2.3

Scaffolding Small-Group Instruction for English Learners

Scaffolding student learning is accomplished most easily during small-group instruction. This is especially true for English language learners. We suggest that you bring together fluent speakers of English with students who are just learning English. The students who are stronger in English act as models for the English learners and help to support them. Pair up these students, and after you ask a question, have them engage in pair-and-share activities: The two students take a moment to discuss the question and formulate an answer. Then one of the students shares the answer with another pair of students. Through this process of pair and share, the English learner learns how to formulate a response before taking a risk in front of the whole class.

The key to successful small-group instruction is thinking through how you will assist the students. Much of this assistance comes from moment-to-moment verbal support. Be prepared to ask some of the following questions that scaffold students' use of a main idea strategy. Be sure to provide pair-and-share time before students begin responding.

- Can someone retell what we have learned? (Retelling)
- What was difficult to understand in this section? (Clarifying)
- Did the title or the headings give you a clue to the main idea? (Text structure)
- How did you find the main idea?
- How did what you already know help you determine the main idea? (Prior knowledge)
- Which text features helped you determine the main idea?

Another way to support English learners is to gear the response you expect to the language level of the students. For students with limited speaking skills, you can formulate very structured questions, "Is Marty the main character?" Then follow up with a question that could expand their response, "Why is Marty the main character?" For students with greater English proficiency, you can start by asking them to retell the story.

Cooperative learning is consistent with many constructivist and sociocultural principles that we have mentioned. It relies on the belief that the best learning is often social, giving students an opportunity to scaffold one another's work and putting them in a position to respond to, and elaborate on, one another's thinking. Because of its great potential, throughout this book we frequently suggest group activities for elementary students, and many of our Reflect and Apply sections suggest group work.

Contextualize, review, and practice what is learned

The gradual release of responsibility model produces deep and lasting learning if students use their newly learned strategies in authentic contexts. Students need many opportunities to practice the strategies and make them their own. Although review and practice are traditional instructional activities, the importance of contextualizing students' learning is absolutely vital to real and long-lasting learning, and thus we have decided to discuss all three practices in this section. The concepts are simple, but they must be heeded. If, for example, students learn the strategy of summarizing as part of reading instruction, they must be given opportunities and encouragement to use summarizing when they are working with social studies or science material or when they are gathering information in the library or studying at home. In fact, it is the content of the reading, the topics, and the subject matter that provide most of the motivation for internalizing and making use of strategies. Moreover, students need many opportunities to use the strategy in these authentic contexts.

A literature circle is another example (Daniels, 2002; Mills & Jennings, 2011) of contextualizing learning. A literature circle is a group of students who have read the same book and meet to discuss it. Each student has a specific task. One summarizes what they have read, another ies difficult vocabulary words, and others make inferences and predict what will happen next. The structure of a literature circle reminds and prompts the students to use comprehension strategies, and if the teacher detects problems, she can review the strategies and, if necessary, provide more modeling and scaffolding. As students work in literature circles throughout the year, they are regularly reviewing and practicing strategies in a natural context.

Zone of Proximal Development

To select learning tasks and activities, it is essential to consider the students' zone of proximal development. Lev Vygotsky (1978), a Russian psychologist, proposed the concept of the zone of proximal development, which emphasizes that learning is a very social phenomenon; in fact, we acquire much of what we learn through our social interactions with others. According to Vygotsky, at any particular point in time, children have a circumscribed zone of development, a range within which they can learn. At one end of this range are tasks they can complete independently; at the other end are tasks they cannot complete, even with assistance. Between these two extremes lies the zone most productive for learning, the range of tasks children can achieve when assisted by a more knowledgeable or more competent other.

If left alone, many third-graders might learn very little from a *National Geographic World* article on the formation of thunderstorms. Conversely, with your help—by engaging their interest in the topic, focusing their attention, pre-teaching key concepts like the effects of rising heat, and organizing small groups to discuss and answer questions about certain parts of the article—these students could learn a lot from it. However, with other topics and texts—for example, a chapter on gravity from a high school physics book—no amount of outside help, or at least no reasonable amount, will significantly enhance learning for these third-graders. The topic of gravity and how it's presented in the high school text are simply outside their zone of proximal development. The zone of proximal development is a helpful concept because it encourages you to consider the difficulty of the text and task and find ways to adjust them to suit your students' abilities.

Teaching for Transfer

Transfer involves applying knowledge or skills learned in one situation to a different one. It occurs at the end of the gradual release of responsibility model. After the teacher explains, models, and guides students' practice, the students should be able to independently use the strategy or concept in new contexts. The well-known Chinese proverb "Give a man a fish, and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish, and you feed him for a lifetime" highlights the significant importance of transfer. Knowledge and skills that transfer become lifelong tools for students, transfer is the main goal of education; schools focus on preparing students for the future. We aim for students to transfer knowledge from early grades to later ones, and even more critically, to apply what they learn in school to the outside world.

Given the obvious centrality of transfer to schooling, it may shock you to learn that schools have often been unsuccessful in promoting it. Transfer is one of the oldest topics in educational research, and the repeated finding is that students very frequently fail to use their school learning outside of school. The student who adds and subtracts quite competently during math class fails when she tries to calculate how much allowance she has left. The student who writes a competent letter of complaint as a class exercise never thinks of emailing Apple when his iPad has a problem. As British philosopher Alfred North Whitehead (1929) aptly put it over 70 years ago, the knowledge students have gained in school has all too frequently been *inert*—fragile, tip-of-the-iceberg knowledge that might enable them to choose a correct answer on a multiple-choice test but does not last or serve much purpose in the real world.

Teaching for transfer requires careful and intentional instruction. The teacher must design learning tasks that promote transfer and remind students to apply their new skills (Dewitz & Graves, 2014). Transfer can be achieved by following the gradual release of responsibility model. In fact, this model guides students to apply and transfer what the teacher has explained and demonstrated. During the guided practice stage of the model, students begin to transfer what has been taught, but the teacher continues to offer some support. In the independent phase, students transfer what they have learned. Helping a student transfer decoding or comprehension strategies modeled by the teacher involves using texts where these strategies can be applied and providing support, or scaffolding, to the student when they struggle.

Teaching for Understanding: Knowledge and Strategies

In the last few years, the most significant shift in thinking about reading has been the ascendance of knowledge and the downplaying of strategies as the key factor in reading comprehension (Dewitz & Graves, 2024). Forty years ago, researchers argued that knowledge was critical to understanding and persuaded teachers to link ideas in the text to what students knew (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). Ten years later, the focus shifted to teaching comprehension and metacognitive strategies. Students were taught to set a purpose for reading, self-question, make inferences, monitor their developing understanding, and fix up misunderstandings when they occurred. A decade later strategies became suspect, and knowledge was again seen as singularly important (McKeown et al., 2009; Willingham, 2006a, b). Our firm position is that both knowledge and strategies are essential to be an effective reader. A knowledge-rich curriculum which promotes deep understanding is the perfect vehicle for developing students' knowledge as well as their reading proficiency.

Today, educators are increasingly realizing the value of teaching for understanding—dealing with fewer topics but teaching them in such a way that students not only learn the content itself thoroughly but also appreciate the reasons for learning it and retain it in a form that makes it usable. As Harvard psychologist David Perkins (2004) noted, teaching for understanding promotes three basic goals of education: understanding of knowledge, retention of knowledge, and active use of knowledge. Perkins anticipated much of the thinking behind the CCSS by 25 years.

We believe that teaching for understanding is terribly important; we address this topic especially in the comprehension Chapters 11 and 12. Relying heavily on the work of Perkins and his colleagues (Blythe, 1998; Wiske, 1998), in those chapters we examine teaching for understanding in detail. The key to teaching for understanding is teaching fewer topics and revisiting these topics across the grades building depth of knowledge. Whether the new reading programs, that put a premium on knowledge development, such a *Wit and Wisdom*, *Core Knowledge,* or English Learner education effectively embody Perkins's principles remains to be seen. However, evidence from one kindergarten study indicates that a knowledge-rich curriculum does build greater language comprehension (Cabell & Hwang, 2020). The following Reading Corner lists texts that lead students to think critically.

The Reading Corner

Informational Books That Give Students Opportunities to Make Critical Responses

One extremely relevant academic task is making critical responses to informational texts. The books listed here—science and social studies books about the world we live in—are interesting and involving and provide extended opportunities for students to make critical responses.

Henny Admoni. Illustrated by Amy Grimes. *Robots: Explore the World of Robotics and AI.* Neon Squid, 2024. Written by an assistant professor in the Robotics Institute at Carnegie Mellon University, this nonfiction book showcases the real-world application of robots, from driverless cars to life-saving machines in hospitals and can stimulate thinking about the impact on society and potential to transform the future. 80 pages.

Susannah Buhrman-Deever. Illustrated by Matthew Trueman. *If You Take Away the Otter.* Candlewick Press, 2020. A beautifully illustrated and written account of what happens when the removal of a single element, in this case the sea otter that was hunted almost to extinction, affects an entire habitat. 32 pages.

Valerie Fisher. Illustrated by the author. *Now You Know What You Eat.* Orchard Books, 2019. A deep dive into the science of what we eat and where the ingredients comes from by exploring what happens behind the scenes of kids' favorite foods like popcorn, pizza, and peanut butter. 40 pages.

Maria Gianferrari. Illustrated by Diana Sudyka. *Fungi Grow.* Beach Lane/Simon, 2023. Beautifully illustrated, this poetically written nonfiction book discloses when, how, where, and why fungi grow and the incredible work they do for humans and the forest. 48 pages.

Deborah Hopkinson. Illustrated by Nik Henderson. *Evidence: How Dr. John Snow Solved the Mystery of Cholera.* Knopf, 2024. This nonfiction book tells the story of a simple community doctor who wanted to solve a mystery and traced London's 1846–1860 cholera outbreak to a single water pump and went on to save countless lives through his groundbreaking research. 40 pages.

Charlene Rocha & Mary Beth Leatherdale. Illustrated by Drew Shannon. *You Can Be an Activist: How to Use Your Strengths and Passions to Make a Difference.* Kids Can, 2024. Using colorful graphics, charts, and informational sections, the authors have created an approachable and useful guide to empower kids to turn their frustrations with injustice into action. 112 pages.

Aida Salazar. Illustrated by Molly Mendoza. *Jovita Wore Pants: The Story of a Mexican Freedom Fighter.* Scholastic, 2023. A mesmerizing biography of Mexican revolutionary Jovita Valdovinos, who took up the cause of religious freedom dressed as a boy and who became known as Mexico's Joan of Arc. 48 pages.

Linda Skeers. Illustrated by Marta Alvarez Miguéns. *Dinosaur Lady: The Daring Discoveries of Mary Anning, the First Paleontologist.* Sourcebooks Explore, 2020. An

engaging picture book biography of female scientist Mary Anning who discovered dinosaur bones on beach near her home in England in the early 19th century and helped create the field of study—paleontology. 40 pages.

Christina Soontornvat. *All Thirteen: The Incredible Cave Rescue of the Thai Boys' Soccer Team.* Candlewick, 2020. Winner of several prestigious medals, *All Thirteen* tells the harrowing story of the miraculous and heroic rescue of a youth soccer team and their coach trapped by flood waters for 17 days in a northern Thailand cave. 288 pages.

Asa Stall. Illustrated by Carly Allen-Fletcher. *The Big Bang Book.* Creston Books, 2020. Written by an astrophysicist, *The Big Bang Book* presents the mystery of how the universe began in understandable language. 32 pages.

Carole Boston Weatherford. *Freedom on the Menu: The Greensboro Sit-ins.* Puffin Books, 2007. As seen through the eyes of a young southern African American girl, this book offers a unique perspective on the 1960 Civil Rights sit-ins at the Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina. 32 pages.

Reflect and Apply

7. The gradual release of responsibility model is frequently associated with developing students' reading comprehension. In what other areas of the curriculum can the model be applied?
8. Identify a strategy you use while you are reading. You might stop to make inferences, summarize, or reread. Now plan how you might model your thinking as you use this strategy with students.

IMPLICIT LEARNING AND INSTRUCTION

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.7

As you tour this third-grade classroom, note how many ways written language is used in the classroom and how it supports the development of reading.

Much of what students learn about language and reading is not directly taught; they learn from reading, listening, speaking, and writing. This is implicit, not explicit instruction. David Share (1995) called implicit instruction *self-teaching* and others used the less transparent phrase *statistical learning* (Seidenberg & MacDonald, 2018). Implicit instruction is what we learn about language while we are using it. Through implicit instruction, students learn letter-sound patterns that are not taught, infer the meaning of new words that are not taught, and build their comprehension by learning new concepts. While some students need a great deal of explicit instruction, other students need far less. However, every student needs time to read, write, listen, and speak.

As described by Share's self-teaching hypothesis, when students encounter new words while reading, they use their knowledge of letter-sounds correspondences and other orthographic patterns to crack the code and pronounce these new words. Share demonstrated that when second-graders encountered new words while reading, they learned their spellings and pronunciations quickly. Self-teaching occurs when students read a considerable volume of text. Books, articles, magazines, and the internet provide the raw material for self-teaching to take place.

Statistical learning goes one step beyond self-teaching and describes how the process takes place. Humans are excellent at pattern recognition. The job of the beginning reader is to learn how the orthographic code, the spelling of words, relates to the spoken word. You demonstrate your awareness of the statistical properties of language when you recognize that *glurck* could be an English word, but *ckurgl* cannot (note that we reversed the positions of *ck* and *gl*). You simply cannot start an English word with *ck* or end it in *gl*. Statistical learning is essential for learning the many patterns of English writing system and, many patterns that are not taught. For example, without instruction most first-graders eventually determine that *c* takes the hard sound when followed by *a, u,* and *o* as in *cat*, *cut*, and *cope*, but takes the soft

sound when followed by *e, i,* or *y* as in *cent*, *city*, or *cymbal*. Sometimes, when statistical learning does not help, direct instruction is necessary, but there is no way that teachers can teach all the patterns of the English writing system that students must eventually learn.

Most words are learned by reading (Nagy et al., 1985), and books play a vital role in that process (Nation et al., 2022). Books contain more words and more unique words than oral language. When listening to *Jumanji* (Van Allsburg, 1981) in just the first three pages, children are exposed to words such as *peer, slouched, unfolded, revealing, designed,* and *restless*. In books, children are also exposed to more complex grammatical structures, which aid their comprehension when they reencounter those patterns. Teachers rarely plan to teach relative pronouns, but exposure through read-alouds provides opportunities to learn and to unravel the meaning of complex sentences. *In the Classroom 2.4* presents an example of implicit learning and instruction.

It is key that teachers provide time and create experiences where implicit learning can take place. Teachers cannot teach everything students need to know to become good readers. "Reading is the primary means by which linguistic knowledge expands through the life span" (Seidenberg & MacDonald, 2018, p. 66). Teachers must create the time and the space for children to read. You must create a sense of excitement about reading so that reading will continue outside of school, not an easy task with screens of every size dominating our lives.

The last 70 years of books, reports, articles, and podcasts was not just a debate between phonics and whole language or balanced literacy. It was also a debate between advocates of explicit and implicit instruction. Some advocates of explicit instruction argue that everything—phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension—must be explicitly taught, and they leave little room in the school day for implicit learning. Some students will need a great deal of explicit instruction, especially in the early stages of learning to read, and others will not. Everyone benefits from implicit instruction because all students must read.

In the Classroom 2.4

Implicit Learning: Mrs. Jackson's Third Grade Builds Word Knowledge

Mrs. Jackson has a well-developed independent reading system and uses it to build her students' vocabulary. She reads to her students every day, sharing interesting books and expanding their knowledge of literary genres, nonfiction topics, and engaging authors. She encourages her students to share the books and authors that they enjoy. She keeps a bestseller list in her room. She enlists the school librarian to promote an interest in the latest potboilers and new authors.

Because she nurtures her students' interests, they read every day. Mrs. Jackson has her students collect words while they read (Baumann et al., 2007). Each week, students complete a Word Finder chart, essentially a large bookmark where students record the new words they found in a book. During the week, they find and record words, and at the end of the week each student decides to study two of the words in-depth. They write definitions and then write sentences demonstrating proper usage of these two words. At the end of the week, each student shares one word, which is added to the class word wall. By early February, there were over 220 words on the wall.

This activity proved to be very popular and almost competitive. Students love to share their words and see who could find the most unusual word. Eventually Mrs. Jackson had to draw some boundaries and exclude some highly technical words like *streptococcus* and *hematology*.

The students were encouraged to use the word wall in a number of ways. Students could add definitions to the words by placing a sticky-note on the word card. Students were encouraged to use the words in their writing or in their daily discussion. "Today we are going to make *scamp* the word of the day and use it as often as possible," said Mrs. Jackson.

Name Samatha Jones	
Book Title: The War with Grandpa	
Word Finder	
Find words that are interesting, unusual	**My Words**
gloom	**Word:** Cunning
sentimental	**Definition:** to be clever,
depressed	to trick someone and
conceal	get things done.
cunning	**Sentence:** Hiding
spoiled	Mom's cellphone was
retaliate	not cunning, it was
revenge	wrong.
conflict	
dashing	

At the end of the year, Mrs. Jackson created a vocabulary test. She randomly selected 20 words from the wall and constructed a multiple-choice test. On average, students knew 75% of the words on the wall, and many students were using the words in their writing.

This was not explicit instruction, but the activity encouraged students to engage in implicit learning. The activity was structured and motivating. It continued throughout most of the third grade.

Reflect and Apply

9. In this section we presented two broad concepts: the gradual release of responsibility model a form of explicit instruction and implicit instruction. How much time do you think students should spend in implicit versus explicit instruction?
10. What does the concept of teaching for understanding suggest about the organization of a reading curriculum. Should teachers follow a sequence or skills, or should the curriculum be organized around ideas and books?

MAJOR APPROACHES TO READING INSTRUCTION

Since the rise of the science of reading movement, it has become more challenging to define or distinguish separate or distinct approaches to reading instruction. Various approaches tend to borrow elements from each other. Teachers who use scripted core reading programs might pause the program to teach a novel. An advocate of guided reading could go out and buy a supplemental program for explicit phonics instruction.

We cannot tell how frequently schools and teachers use particular approaches to reading instruction because we don't have an adequate picture of what goes on in our schools. However, recent surveys indicate that between 44% (EdReports, 2024) and 48% (Doan et al., 2023) of teachers used a published core reading program aligned with state standards when the surveys were taken. And in the last two years, legislation in 34 states prompted state departments of education to create lists of approved core reading programs, and in nine of those states, districts must purchase programs from those lists. Since 2015, 47 states have enacted or are considering legislation about reading instruction and most require a phonics program (Reinking et al., 2023). These data suggest that the use of core reading programs is on the rise. Just because a district purchases a core program does not mean teachers follow the programs instructional scripts as written.

With the influence of the Common Core State Standards and the science of reading movement, core reading programs can be classified into two types. There are legacy publishers such as *Into Reading* (HMH), *Wonders* (McGraw-Hill), and *MyView* (Savvas) that build their programs around the reading of relatively short texts organized into meaningful units of study. All of these programs have robust phonics instruction. A second group of publishers also embraces a knowledge-building curriculum, but does so by having students read complete texts—novels, nonfiction trade books, articles, poems, and, in one case, artworks. In this group are *Wit and Wisdom* (Great Minds), *The Read Side by Side Reading Program,* and *Imagine Learning* (EL Education). These programs do not have a phonics component because they are exclusive for grades 3 through 6.

The influence of the science of reading and particularly the podcasts of Emily Hanford seriously questioned the efficacy of three other approaches to reading instruction: balanced literacy (Pressley et al., 2023), guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, 2001), and the reader's/writer's workshop (Calkins, 1983). Balanced literacy was supposed to put an end to the *reading wars* and create a balance between explicit skill instruction and meaning centered experiences built around interesting texts (Pressley, 1998). Unfortunately that balance may not have been achieved.

In the guided reading classroom, the teacher begins by sharing authentic literature to build vocabulary and model reading strategies. She then guides students through leveled texts by working with small groups of students and provides skills instruction as needed; there is no scope and sequence. Students spend the rest of their time reading and writing independently. Teachers also create learning stations where students can practice word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

The reader's/writer's workshop offers even less instructional guidance. Students choose what they read with guidance from the teacher. They read independently with skill instruction delivered through whole-class lessons when the teacher detects a need. In the workshop setting, the students read independently, they confer with the teacher, and occasionally the teacher pulls a group together for a guided lesson. The research suggests that explicit instruction is effective for some children and guided reading is a better fit for others (Castles et al., 2018; Connor et al., 2004). For primary-grade students who learn to recognize words easily, a workshop approach seems appropriate. They can spend their time reading and writing, working in pairs or in small groups, meeting occasionally with the teacher to solve problems. Other students in the same classroom need explicit instruction in phonics carefully directed by the teacher as suggested by balanced literacy. Many teachers, especially those just beginning to teach, benefit from curriculum structure of a core reading program.

When you visit schools or talk to teachers, you are apt to see a variety of approaches to reading instruction. In many schools, you are likely to find a hybrid approach in which teachers use elements of a core reading program, small-group guided reading, and the reader's workshop. While some educators advocate using core reading programs with fidelity, we recognize that the situations teachers face are complex and require them to used their knowledge of their students and make many instructional decisions (Dewitz & Jones, 2013; Piasta et al., 2009).

Whole-Class Instruction

In almost all classrooms, you will find a time when the teacher works with the whole class. If the school is following a core reading program, the teacher uses this time to read aloud to the students to develop knowledge of genres and teach vocabulary. Phonemic awareness and phonics instruction are also delivered to the whole class. In a core reading program, instruction centers on a primary anthology selection, with a shorter follow-up text. Frequently, these are introduced, read, and discussed with the whole class. Teachers using a core reading program are directed to devote much of their instructional time to teach the entire class, leaving less time for small-group instruction and independent reading.

Guided reading and the reader's workshop model usually include a whole-class activity called shared reading. During shared reading, students and teachers read a common text that might be difficult for students to read on their own. Teachers use this time to introduce a new concept, strategy, or vocabulary. According to Fountas and Pinnell (2001), shared reading experiences are used best for short texts, dramatic stories, or poems. When the whole class gathers in the workshop setup, typically for 10–15 minutes, the teacher conducts a lesson. Some educators have called these kinds of lessons, mini-lessons, which can be misleading. The lesson's length depends on the complexity of the material, students' attention spans, and the teacher's motivational skills. The whole class is often used for students to share their reading progress. They give brief reports on what they're reading, on where they are in the book, and to explain something about their book.

Small-Group Instruction

Small-group instruction is central to the guided reading approach and is more peripheral to core reading programs and the reader's workshop. Guided reading takes its name from the guided reading period during which students are organized into leveled reading groups and read a text as the teacher guides them through it. The guided reading period might consume 30 to 90 minutes of the reading block. A teacher might have three to five guided reading groups and meet with them from two to five times a week. The teacher works with the students to apply decoding strategies, build vocabulary, and apply comprehension strategies. When not meeting with the teacher, the students read independently, write, or complete learning station activities.

Core reading programs have incorporated small-group reading into their instructional design. Most basal programs come with, decodable texts that repeat phonics patterns, and books leveled for students reading above, on, and below grade level. All of these texts share the same topic or theme as the anthology selection. The key vocabulary words, introduced in the main selection, are reviewed in the leveled books. In most core reading programs, the guided reading portion of the program takes place two days a week, with whole-group instruction dominating during the rest of the week.

Within the reader's workshop approach, small-group instruction is an option. Teachers might bring together a group of students who are reading in a similar genre to discuss the genre's characteristics. The teacher might also create guided reading groups with students reading at the same level. This practice blurs the lines between guided reading and reader's workshop. These small group lessons are opportunistic, with the teacher pulling together students who need help.

Independent Reading and Independent Work

Independent reading defines the reader's workshop approach, is part of guided reading, and is rarer in core reading programs (Dewitz et al., 2026). Within the workshop approach, students read individually every day, often for 30 minutes or more, selecting a comfortable place in the room to read. Students read texts at their independent reading level. During reading time, students should read, not select books or wander in the classroom. A well-stocked classroom library is essential to the success of the

workshop. The teacher confers with her students weekly to assess their comprehension, note difficulties they might be having with reading strategies, plan their next book, and hold them accountable. While reading, students are encouraged to *talk back* to the book by using sticky-notes or a reading journal to record their thoughts.

Independent reading is one of the activities in the guided reading setup. When students are not participating in small-group guided reading, they are expected to read and write independently or with a partner. In a typical guided reading classroom, you'll find several centers—areas where students can read, write, work on an art project, make scientific observations and record results, or play a language game. These centers are designed to promote open-ended inquiry. Naturally, the classroom library with comfortable seating remains a vital center in a guided reading classroom.

Within core reading programs, independent reading, but not independent work, takes a backseat to whole-group work, small-group instruction, and skill work in learning centers. In most core programs, the teacher is directed to spend most of her time working with the whole class and meeting with some students for small-group instruction. Phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, spelling, grammar, and writing are typically taught to the whole class, leaving little time for independent reading.

As we noted in Chapter 1 and have repeated in this chapter, we believe that phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension are vital parts of a reading program. But as we also noted, most other reading educators and we believe firmly that these five elements constitute only part of a comprehensive reading program that can lead all students to the sophisticated level of literacy necessary in the 21st century. A comprehensive reading program also requires a strong focus on motivation and building knowledge. It is important that children read frequently and widely. It is vital that children learn to read and want to read. But achieving these goals is not easy, particularly when all of us are teaching into the headwinds of social media, iPhones, tablets, video games, and other seductive technologies.

Reflect and Apply

11. Core reading programs, guided reading, and the reader's workshop each have their champions. Consider how the three approaches differ in terms of the teacher's role and the students' activities in the classroom.

12. Locate the teacher's manual from a core reading program and analyze how comprehension skills are taught. Does the lesson provide for direct explanation, gradual release of responsibility, scaffolding, and contextualized practice?

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, we discussed four topics: First, we considered the history of reading instruction, specifically the last 70 years of renewed debate between phonics-first advocates and those who stress an approach that balances phonics with meaning by building vocabulary, comprehension, and motivation. Second, we took you inside successful classrooms and looked at effective teachers. Third, we discussed traditional principles of instruction and newer cognitive constructivist perspectives on instruction. Fourth, we highlighted how reading is currently taught using various approaches.

The history of reading instruction in the United States indicates that various approaches to reading have come and gone, that we have learned a lot and come to much agreement in recent years, but that tensions continue to exist. Recently, the science of reading movement has rekindled the phonics debate, and it should have. Phonics is an important part of effective reading instruction, but it is only a part. The most effective approach to instruction, the one most likely to lead the most children to a high level of literacy is a comprehensive approach.

It is also important to realize that effective instruction differs for different parts of the reading curriculum, as students become increasingly competent readers. For example, most children will have

mastered most of what they need to know about phonics and decoding by the end of second grade, and thus these elements constitute a small part of the literacy curriculum after that time except for children who continue to have difficulty. Conversely, all children should receive instruction in vocabulary and various facets of comprehension beginning in kindergarten and continuing throughout their years of school.

Traditional instructional principles, such as active teaching, fostering active learning and providing sufficient and timely feedback are still vital concepts that all educators should understand and employ. The newer concepts underlying cognitive constructivist instruction take us deeper in the characteristics of effective teaching (Carlisle et al., 2011). Powerful instruction includes clear explanation, cognitive modeling, and scaffolding so that students can learn to use new strategies and concepts. Fostering implicit learning is necessary because everything students must know about language and reading cannot be taught.

Finally, surveys suggest that many states and districts are embracing published core reading programs, and a few states are mandating them. These programs differ in how reading is taught and the texts that students read. The efficacy of these programs is difficult to establish (Dewitz et al., 2026; Nietzel, 2019), and the research indicates that teacher knowledge is vital whether you are using a published program or a school is crafting their own (Piasta et al., 2009; Taylor & Pearson, 2005). Our goal is to help you build your knowledge of effective reading instruction. Instruction is not good simply because it represents an idea that has been around a long time or because it represents a new trendy idea. Instruction is good because it is motivated by solid theory, backed by research, and able to be used by real teachers in real classrooms.

Extending Learning

As we noted in Chapter 1, in this section we suggest activities that take you beyond this book to observe and work with schools, teachers, and parents and to access various sources of information that can help you more fully understand and appreciate your role in fostering students' literacy.

1. Identify a simple skill that you have mastered but that many of your classmates probably have not. Choose something specific that can be learned relatively easily, such as tying a square knot. Review the traditional and constructivist/sociocultural principles of instruction—active teaching, active learning, scaffolding, gradual release, feedback, and the like—and decide which can be incorporated into your instruction. Next, write out a specific plan for teaching your skill—a lesson plan—noting just what you are going to do and indicating which principles you are following at each point. Rehearse your instruction, with a partner if possible; then teach a small group of your classmates the skill. If possible, have a classmate who is not part of the group observe you. Finally, sit down with your classmates—both the learners and the observer—and critique your instruction, being sure to attend to how well people learned the skill, what did and did not go well, how you might improve the lesson, what instructional principles you followed, and what additional instructional principles you might incorporate to improve learning.
2. Identify two really excellent elementary teachers. These could be teachers who have been formally recognized as outstanding, teachers you know of from friends or colleagues, teachers you actually had, or teachers recommended by a principal or one of your professors. Make up an observation sheet listing the characteristics of teachers who produce outstanding achievement in reading. Go back to the section Highly Effective Teachers and Schools to develop your list. Then, observe the two teachers, and make notes on the extent to which they demonstrate each of the characteristics on the list. Plan on at least three observations, but do more if you can. For each characteristic that the teachers demonstrate, jot down a specific example or two of how they do so. Once you are finished with your observation, write a summary statement on the extent to which the teachers did and did not demonstrate the characteristics and a statement about the extent to which you expect to incorporate the characteristics into your teaching. Finally, discuss your observations and conclusions with a classmate.

Children's Literature

These works were cited in the chapter.

Byars, B. C. (2002). *Keeper of the Doves*. Viking. In this story set in the late 19th century in Kentucky, the precocious Amie McBee searches for her place in the family and discovers a talent of her own, writing poetry. 112 pages

DiCamillo, K. (2015). *The Tale of Despereaux*. Candlewick. This is the story of Desperaux Tilling, a mouse in love with music, stories, and a princess named Pea. 277 pages.

Inns, C. (2004). *Help!* Frances Lincoln. Doctor Hopper (a rabbit) and Nurse Rex Barker (a dog) zoom around to cure sick toys in this witty picture book. 32 pages.

Juster, N. (2005). *The Hello, Goodbye Window*. Hyperion. A little girl visits her grandparents' house and finds a magic gateway in the kitchen window that leads her on a voyage of discovery 32 pages.

Kehret, P. (1996). *Earthquake Terror*. Puffin. A family is camping when an earthquake hits leaving the old boy to help his disabled sister while his parents go for help.

McDonald, A. (2001). *No More Nasty*. Farrar, Straus and Giroux. Fifth grade becomes more than a bit embarrassing and challenging for Simon when his favorite, but eccentric, 74-year-old aunt becomes the substitute teacher in his unruly class. 172 pages.

National Geographic World. National Geographic Society. This richly illustrated monthly periodical is designed for intermediate-grade students.

Morpurgo, M. (1999). *Kensuke's Kingdom*. Scholastic. Washed up on an island in the Pacific with his dog, Michael a young teenager, struggles to survive on his own. 172 pages.

Paulsen, G. (1987). *Hatchet*. Simon and Schuster. Brian, a fourteen year old boy is trapped in the Canadian wilderness after the plane he is riding in crashes. Weeks of difficult challenges lie ahead. 181 pages.

Sachar, L. (2008). *Holes*. Macmillan. 225 pages.

Simon, S. (1995). *Sharks*. HarperCollins. With full-color photos and engaging text that describes fascinating details about 350 different kinds of sharks, Simon demystifies this greatly feared predatory fish. Unnumbered. 45 pages.

Tarshis, L. (2011). *I Survived Hurricane Katrina*. Scholastic. A family must cope with the terror of a hurricane and the city flooding around them. 145 pages.

Van Allsburg, C. (1981). *Jumanji*. Children play an adventure game that soon gets out of hand. 32 pages.

CHAPTER 3

MOTIVATION, ENGAGEMENT, AND EMOTIONAL SUPPORT

Classroom Vignette

Last year, Cynthia Sanchez, who had spent five years working predominantly with inner-city Hispanic students, switched from teaching first grade to fifth grade, and her first year as a fifth-grade teacher was not an easy one. "What a difference four years make," she sometimes sighed to herself. Of course, she had to learn to teach very different aspects of reading than she had taught in first grade. Only a few of her students needed help with phonics, and most read fluently. She also had to learn to teach fairly sophisticated lessons in social studies, science, math, and other subjects. What turned out to be much more of a challenge than learning how to teach new material was motivating students. Cynthia's first-graders had come to school enthusiastic about their opportunities, excited about learning, confident that they could learn, and ready to put their best efforts into whatever subject they were studying. Some of her fifth-graders displayed very different attitudes. They were not enthusiastic about school or excited about learning. Nor were they confident about learning or prepared to put in their best efforts.

Cynthia soon decided that motivating and engaging students was her number one priority. As the year progressed, she talked regularly with her grade-level colleagues, who had many more years of experience in fifth grade. One colleague stressed that the key to motivation was selecting and reading the right books. She felt that her daily read-alouds from authors like Sandra Cisneros, Gary Soto, and Angela Dominguez would capture her students' imaginations. Another colleague urged her to incorporate Accelerated Reader software into her literacy program. She felt that students liked the computer-based assessments and that competing for points kept them motivated. Still another colleague felt that the secret to motivating these students was the projects she developed for her class. Each year they studied the tide pools along the Pacific shore, the Spanish heritage in California, and space science, including a trip to Mt. Wilson observatory. These lengthy reading and writing tasks gave her students concrete goals and a reason to dive into books, articles, and the Internet. A final colleague felt that, while motivation is critical to students' success in school, so too are other social and emotional factors such as self-awareness and their relationships with their peers.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 3.1 Understand why motivation and the creation of a literate environment are top priorities in any classroom.

LO 3.2 Describe the components of intrinsic motivation and make decisions about how to implement these factors in the classroom.

LO 3.3 Understand the limits of extrinsic motivation but indicate how and when extrinsic motivation might be deployed in the classroom.

LO 3.4 Recognize the variety of social and emotional factors that affect students' motivation, their performance in school, and their lives beyond the classroom and consider how being aware of these will affect your teaching.

LO 3.5 Assess students' motivation to read and use the results to craft a program to boost motivation in your classroom.

MAKING MOTIVATION A TOP PRIORITY

As you will see in this chapter, Cynthia is not alone in realizing that motivation should be a top priority. Other teachers, reading authorities, researchers, and policy makers are increasingly realizing that motivation is essential to learning (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2024; Clark et al., 2023). Patricia Alexander properly focused on the role of motivation when she wrote

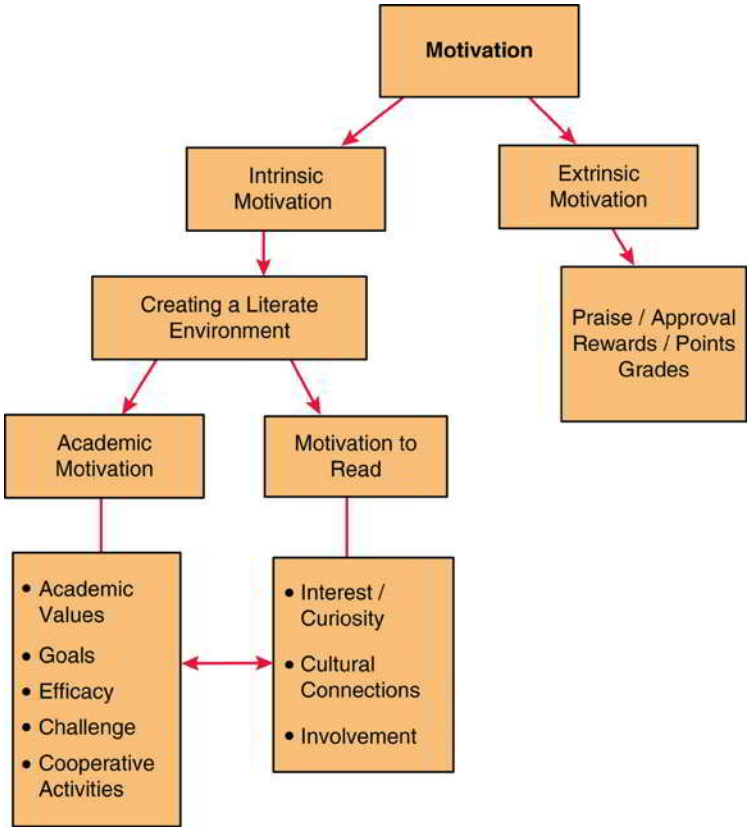
> *Reading is an emotional domain, not a coldly cognitive enterprise. Reader motivation and affect are powerful forces in this journey toward competence. We may be able to move individuals into low levels of competence by attending only to their knowledge or strategic needs, but they will not have the personal interest to continue this journey especially as the demands of text-based learning become greater and the text more complex, less predictable.* (Alexander, 2003, p. 45)

Just as we developed a theory of instruction that should guide your instructional decision making, we now turn to developing a theory of motivation that should help you shape your students' experience in school. Motivation is complex and not all students are enthused and enticed by the same activities. In order for substantive learning to occur, students must have positive attitudes about themselves as learners, about their ability to succeed in school, and about the instructional goals they, their teachers, and their schools set. Students' reading abilities will grow in proportion to the extent to which they see reading as enjoyable, worthwhile, and valuable as a tool for learning. At the same time, success in reading is likely to build motivation (Toste et al., 2020).

Figure 3.1 presents a graphic view of motivation in the classroom. The two main branches are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Children who have an intrinsic motivation to read do so "because the activity is satisfying and rewarding in its own right" (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016, p. 429). Extrinsically motivated readers read to get a positive outcome—points, praise, and better grades. To foster intrinsic motivation, teachers must create a literate environment, a physical and emotional space where literacy is valued, encouraged, and practiced. From this branch, teachers have two major but interconnected goals: creating exciting and stimulating academic tasks that promote learning and motivating children to read as a lifelong pursuit. Academic motivation is fostered by interesting tasks, personal goals, a sense of efficacy, choice, challenge, and cooperative activities. These factors, plus personal interest, cultural connections, and involvement with stories or informational text, also promote motivation to read. The other branch of the tree is extrinsic motivation: the praise, approval, grades, and points we award to keep children moving forward although they are not substitutes for longer term intrinsic motivation.

Much of the work in your classroom should revolve around interesting, gripping projects like studying a favorite author or a currently popular genre like fantasy. Alternately, you might focus for some time on a science topic such as global warming or a social studies topic such as immigration. An extended project like this must capture the interests of your students. The student must value this project and see it as an attainable goal. These projects then give you the doorway to introduce the reading strategies students need for success with the project. This is the logic

FIGURE 3.1
Some Components of Motivation



of Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI, Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Reading Rockets, 2024) that has produced significant growth in reading achievement.

Beyond completing academic projects, your students should become readers, individuals who value reading for enjoyment, escape, information, and enlightenment. The students' goal and your goal is not to reach the next reading level, be it a 40 on the Developmental Reading Assessment, or Q on the Fountas and Pinnell scales. Your goals are to foster literate students who read for information and pleasure. In the sections that follow, we discuss the motivational principles necessary for students to become lifelong readers who succeed with academic projects.

A dominant thought underlying not just this section of the chapter, but the whole of this book is the overwhelming importance of success. Research has repeatedly verified that if students are going to be motivated and engaged in school and learn from their schoolwork, they need to succeed at the majority of tasks they undertake. Students realize success when they gain a sense of efficacy after completing a challenging activity. This, of course, applies to reading just as it does to other schoolwork. Moreover, if students are to become not only proficient readers but also avid readers—children and adults who voluntarily seek out reading as a path to information, enjoyment, and personal fulfillment—then successful reading experiences are even more important.

A successful reading experience has at least three features. First, and most important, a successful reading experience is one in which the reader understands what they have read. Understanding may take more than one reading, it may require your assistance or that of other students, and it will often require the reader to actively manipulate the ideas in the text. Second, a successful reading experience is one that the reader finds enjoyable, entertaining, informative, or thought-provoking. Finally, a successful reading experience is often a means to a larger goal—to learn about galaxies or live in the fantasy world of the Hobbit.

Creating a Literate Environment

The term *literate environment* describes the sort of classroom, school, and home in which literacy is fostered, nurtured, and necessary (Gambrell & Mazzoni, 1999; Goodman, 1986). In a literate environment, people read to themselves and to others. They write to others and to themselves. They read and write on paper and on screens. They read and write to manage their daily lives. In a literate environment, print surrounds us. There is print on our bookshelves, on our tables, hanging on our refrigerators and bulletin boards. Our laptops and tablets are filled with informational texts, novels, short stories, and news stories. Imagine managing your life without print. You could not send an email, a text, or a tweet. You could not locate a used car, find a good restaurant, or create a shopping list. For all students but particularly for students who do not come from a literate environment, we must create one in their classroom.

Modeling

Probably the most important component of a literate environment is the modeling done by people children respect and love. In the best possible literate environment, children's teachers, principals, parents, brothers and sisters, and friends read a lot and openly display the pleasure reading gives them. These adults regularly demonstrate the fact that reading opens up a world of information and imagination from which they gain knowledge, insight, and joy. Unfortunately, many children come from homes where little or no reading takes place, and schools must be their literate environment (Heath, 1985). According to the most recent Pew Research Center survey (2022), 25 percent of U.S. adults had not read a book in the previous year.

To be most effective, modeling should occur not just once but repeatedly—all the time, really. Modeling should include both repeated demonstrations during shared and guided reading, your looking up on the Internet an answer to a question children have, and direct testimonials—"Wow! What a story." "I never knew what fun river rafting could be till I read this article; I sure wish I'd read it sooner." "Sometimes I think the library is just about my favorite place."

Third-grade teacher Mary Lou Flicker has her own testimonial to the power of modeling.

> *I never realized the importance of modeling the kinds of behaviors I would like my students to emulate until one rainy day in March. Normally, the kids eat outdoors on picnic tables, but during this unusual California downpour we were forced inside for lunch. After the kids finished eating, I told them they could play games together quietly, draw on the chalkboard, read, whatever.*
>
> *Instead of doing paperwork or watching the kids, I decided to read a book that a young friend had recommended, one of Aaron Blabey's The Bad Guys books, The Serpent and the Beast (2024). It turned out to be an extremely funny book that I thought my third graders, especially the boys, would enjoy. After I finished, I looked around the room. To my amazement, there in the library corner sat Ramon, one of my least-motivated readers, a kid who hardly ever read by choice, fully absorbed in a The Bad Guys book. Later in the day, when I told Ramon I was so pleased to see him reading, he said, "Well, you looked like you were having such a great time reading that The Bad Guys book, I just had to find out why!"*
>
> —Mary Lou Flicker, third-grade teacher

Several aspects of this experience were motivating to students. First, Ms. Flicker modeled engaged reading. Second, she showed students how much she valued reading by spending class time on reading. Third, she shared her enjoyment. Fourth, she praised one of her student's good behavior.

Reading aloud to students is another way to demonstrate how much you value reading, and it also becomes an opportunity to teach students about the rewards that reading brings. What you choose to read aloud can serve to entice students to

broaden the scope of their reading interests. It allows you to introduce new authors, new genres, new vocabulary, and new ideas. All readers need to experience the power of a well-written story, poem, or piece of nonfiction so that they can remember the reward that reading can bring. Reading aloud offers you the opportunity to talk about writing in a way that is concrete and engaging; students enjoy learning about how writing works when they are engaged with a text.

Modeling literate behavior is not limited to reading aloud. We model literate behavior when we write a language experience story in first grade, when we record the number of students selecting pizza versus peanut butter and jelly for lunch, when we record what we have learned about snakes on a science chart, and when we write the new words we are learning on the word wall. In many classrooms, the first literate activity after the read-aloud is the teacher's use of a notebook to record what students say and do during a reading lesson. When children observe adults using written language, they begin to understand that written language is a powerful tool for recording, remembering, and planning life.

A Print-Rich Classroom

Three kinds of print should fill your classroom—books and shorter texts, print you create, and print created by your students. Hoffman and his colleagues studied literary environments and found that they could link the amount and quality of print in the room to the growth in students' reading comprehension (Hoffman et al., 2004). In the best possible literate environment, the classroom is filled with books, books that are readily accessible for students to read in school or take home. Remember, in many schools, children go to the library only once a week. Certainly, some books will be in your classroom because they're part of the curriculum. Other materials should be selected so that students have a wide variety of topics, reading levels, and genres to choose from. Still other books should be chosen to reflect the diversity of your classroom—the range of abilities, interests, and cultural, linguistic, and social backgrounds of your students—as well as the diversity of the larger society outside your classroom. Reading should become a tool students use to learn more about topics and ideas they are interested in, supplementing their understanding of the required curriculum.

Digital texts also have an important role in the classroom. How much digital text and ebooks promote motivation is an open question, but the use of digital text is definitely growing. Elementary and middle school students spend three to six hours a day on screens but only a small proportion of that time is extended reading (Common Sense Media, 2025). Results from a 2023 study in Britain indicate that elementary school students do about a third of their reading in digital texts (Clark et al., 2023). Clearly, teachers need to incorporate digital resources as they build a literate environment.

In order to provide all students with appropriate texts and to match individual students with texts, it's important that you assess your students' attitudes toward reading and their reading interests. *Teaching Tool 3.1* presents an idea for building interest in books.

Finding out about your students as readers is vital to being an effective, motivating teacher. You can find books that will appeal to your students in the following annotated lists:

- The Children's Choices and Teacher's Choices lists, which can be found by searching Children's Choices and Teacher's Choices on the International Literacy Association website www.literacyworldwide.org
- The Notable Social Studies Trade Books for Young People. Notable lists from 2000 to 2019 are available online, open access, at www.socialstudies.org/notable/trade-books. The books that appear in these annotated book lists were evaluated and selected by a Book Review Committee appointed by National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) and assembled in cooperation with the

Children's Book Council (CBC) cbc.org. NCSS and CBC have cooperated on this annual bibliography since 1972. Books selected for this bibliography are written primarily for children in grades K–12.

- What Kids Are Reading lists of the most popular print and digital books assembled by Renaissance Learning. Uniquely, these lists show popularity by state as well as nationally. They are available at https://www.renaissance.com/resources/what-kids-are-reading/
- The Outstanding Science Trade Books for Children. Notable lists are available online at nstc.org/outstanding-science-trade-books-students-k-12. A joint project of the National Science Teachers Association (NSTA) and the Children's Book Counsel (CBC) cbc.org since 1973, Outstanding Science Trade Books for Students K–12 represents the year's best science books, chosen by science educators.

Teaching Tool 3.1

Creating a Book Review File

Only a few students might read a book because you, the teacher, told them it was good, but most students will read a book that a peer has recommended. Kathy, a third-grade teacher who has a way of maximizing her efforts, developed a quick and effective book review system that deliberately used note cards rather than electronic media to give students a more concrete experience. When a student finished reading a book, she went to the file (a small box of 5-by-8-inch index cards) and looked it up by the author's name. If someone else had read it, there was a card on file; if not, the student created a card with the author's last name, the author's first name, and the book title. Then, either on a new card or below the comments of others on an existing card, the student wrote a one- or two-sentence opinion of the book. This file became a favorite aid when students were looking for new books for independent reading and often sparked impromptu conversations between students who had read the same book. It was also an opportunity for students to learn the difference between writing an opinion with a supporting reason and writing a brief summary. Summaries weren't allowed in the file.

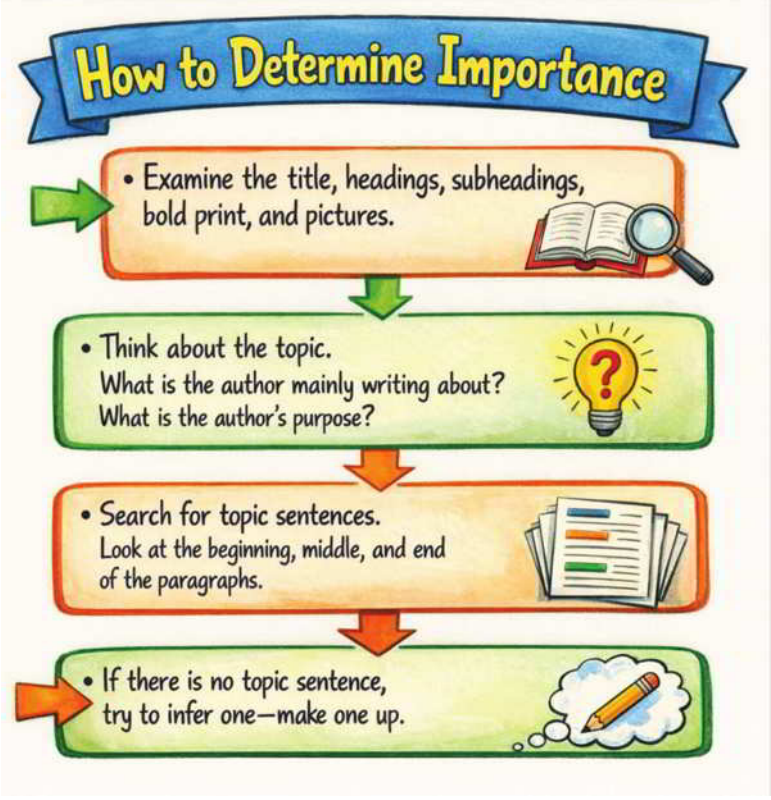
Another effective strategy for identifying books that your students might enjoy is to talk with your school media specialist or the librarians at a local library. Librarians track the books that children read and check out. They have access to the American Library Association's resources and can give you lists of books that librarians have identified as interesting to readers of various ages and levels of proficiency. A third way to identify exciting books is to watch the kids. Just like adults, children have their own *bestsellers*. Right now, second-graders like the *Dory Fantasmagory* series. The latest installment is *Can't Live Without You* (Hanlon, 2024). Third-grade boys are reading Dav Pilkey, of *Captain Underpants* fame, from his *Dog Man* series, *Big Jim Begins* (Pilkey, 2024); and fourth-graders are still into the ever-popular *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* series, latest installment is #19, *Hot Mess* (Kinney, 2024). Although the literary quality of some books may be questionable, teachers must first help students develop the reading habit; then they can refine taste.

The social, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds of your students and of the greater society constitute yet another important factor in selecting books. Readers shape their views of themselves and of the world partly through what they read. Recognizing yourself in a book is a powerful affirmation that you are part of the human endeavor—and the world of books. Recognizing the humanity of others who might seem different from ourselves is an important part of becoming a citizen of the world.

Good books can act as both a mirror and a window for readers, reflecting their own lives and offering them a chance to understand the lives of others. Perhaps the best books offer an experience that is similar to looking through a window at twilight. At first you can see through the window into another place, but, as the light gradually fades, you end up seeing yourself (Galda, 1998; Galda & Cullinan, 2016). Thinking and talking about experiences like this can help students develop an understanding of themselves and others. And reading books from many cultures exposes students to many wonderful authors. The Reading Corner provides some books that reflect a variety of cultural experiences.

Beyond books, teachers can and should create print for their classrooms that informs, guides, and reflects learning. The posters, anchor charts, and graphic organizers a teacher creates are far more powerful than the ones bought at the teacher supply store. Those are just wallpaper. If students are studying how to determine the main ideas, teachers should create a chart that reflects the rules and procedures that underlie this strategy. **Figure 3.2** is an example of such an anchor chart created by the teacher and students in a fourth-grade classroom. This chart is powerful because the students' thoughts and ideas, guided by the teacher, make up the essence of the strategy. The students' thinking is then preserved as a reminder of how to find main ideas and the students can refer to the chart when they are stumped in the midst of a reading task. You and your students should create all sorts of instructional charts—charts that capture the essence of a strategy or charts that reflect what has been learned—such as a timeline of the American Revolution—or charts that serve as a model for good writing—the tall tale created by the class. The very act of creating a chart and hanging it on the wall stresses the importance of the strategy or the concept being taught.

FIGURE 3.2
Main Idea Anchor Chart Developed by Fourth-Graders



Source: © Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

The Reading Corner

Books About Food and Families in Many Cultures

Alliah Agostini, with chef Taffy Elrod. *The Juneteenth Cookbook: Recipes and Activities for Kids and Families to Celebrate.* Becker&Mayer! Kids, 2024. Introduces the history of Juneteenth through a collection of recipes, activities, and games that are drawn from Black American cultural traditions. 70 pages.

Stephen Briseño. *The Notebook Keeper: A Story of Kindness from the Border.* Random House Studio, 2022. Noemi and her mother, who are denied entry into the United States from Mexico, add their names to the notebook, an unofficial list of those waiting to cross the border. The notebook keeper inspires hope in Noemi's heart. Unpaged.

Judy Campbell-Smith. *Ice Cream Everywhere: Sweet Stories from Around the World.* Sleeping Bear, 2024. From sundaes to Syrian bouza, this book shows how in myriad ways people around the globe enjoy ice cream. 32 pages.

Tami Charles. *Freedom Soup.* Solon, Ohio: Findaway World, LLC., 2020. Every year, Haitians all over the world ring in the new year by eating a special soup, a tradition dating back to the Haitian Revolution. This year, Ti Gran is teaching Belle how to make the soup—Freedom Soup—just like she was taught when she was a little girl. Readers learn the history of this soup, Ti's family, and their Haitian roots. 32 pages.

Karina Nicole Gonzáles. *The Coquíes Still Sing: A Story of Home, Hope, and Rebuilding.* Roaring Brook, 2020. Tribute to Puerto Rico's survival and one family's resilience following devastation caused by Hurricane Maria in 2017. Unpaged.

Padma Lakshmi. *Tomatoes for Neela.* Viking, 2021. As Neela and her mother cook together, they find a way for Neela's grandmother, who lives in India, to share in both the love and the flavors of the day. Includes tomato facts. Author Lakshmi is a cookbook author and TV host. 32 pages.

Areli Morales. *Areli Is a Dreamer.* Random House Studio, 2021. Morales, a DACA (Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals) dreamer, tells the story of her journey as an undocumented immigrant at age 6 from the quiet town of Pueblo, Mexico to the bustling metropolis of New York City. Simultaneously published in English and Spanish. Unpaged.

Felicita Sala. *What's Cooking at 10 Garden Street?: Recipes for Kids from Around the World.* Prestel Junior, 2019. Multicultural meals prepared by the residents of an old apartment building on Garden Street that everyone gathers to enjoy. Recipes included. Unpaged.

Lisa Shulman. *The Matzo Ball Boy.* Puffin Books, 2007. In this Jewish version of the *Gingerbread Man*, a lonely old bubbe makes a matzo ball boy in her chicken soup so he can join her for the Passover Seder. 32 pages.

Abigail Wheatley. *World Kitchen: Family Recipes From Around the World.* Usborne Publishing, 2023. A collection of recipes contributed by families around the world. Each recipe has an introduction featuring the family who contributed it. Also includes illustrated, step-by-step instructions. 64 pages.

Janet S. Wong. *Apple Pie 4th of July.* Clarion Books, 2006. After a young Chinese American girl frets that no one will come to her parents' market to buy Chinese food on the 4th of July, she is happily proven wrong. 40 pages.

Organizing Physical Space

The layout of your room influences students' literate behaviors. You need a table at which to meet with small groups. You need desks, arranged in groups for students to work together, and places to hold the computers and print resources that are essential for writing and inquiry. One of the most important areas is the classroom library. It should be large enough, with comfortable seating, so that several children can relax and get lost in books. If at all possible, the classroom library should have at least six

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 3.1

In this video, a second-grade teacher describes her classroom and some of the changes she plans to implement in the coming year.

www.youtube.com/watch?v=452QQE1ylal

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 3.2

In this video, a sixth-grade English Language Arts (ELA) teacher gives a tour of her classroom.

www.youtube.com/watch?v=EmBPtI_1gow

to eight books for every child in the room organized by reading level, by genre, and by topic. Some of the books should be displayed with the cover forward to attract the attention of the students. Posters, puppets, beanbag chairs, and an old pole lamp help to set a mood. Rotate the books regularly so that there are always new books to discover. When you introduce new books or a new author, make sure that you call students' attention to these books. Several teachers we know let the students organize the classroom library. This is an excellent way for them to take ownership, and as they categorize the books they will learn more about genres and authors. If you want more ideas about how to merchandise books, visit a local bookstore and see how they display books to capture the interest of customers.

Choice

Of course, students need to have choices about what they read and how they respond to their reading. This does not mean that you never assign selections for students to read or prescribe tasks for them to complete after they have read. It does mean that you structure regular opportunities for students to choose their own reading materials and to also choose their own response mode. Allowing students some choice often helps motivate them to spend time reading. In one classroom we observed, the teacher started a literature circle by giving each group a choice of two or three books. The students considered the three selections and then decided which book they wanted to read. This is minimal choice, but enough for the students to exert control and to have their say in the curriculum. Too much choice, as in the expanded types of Oreo cookies or cranberry juices in your local supermarket, is overwhelming.

Independent reading provides one opportunity for students to choose. Although students, especially those who are struggling readers as well as many English learners, need support and guidance in selecting books that they can and will want to read, whenever possible students should choose their own books for independent reading. Some teachers insist that students choose only from the classroom or school library. We suggest that, if reading is the goal, students ought to be able to read all kinds of texts, print and digital, including newspapers, comic books, and magazines. If we want students to spend time reading, we must allow them to choose from a broad set of materials including culturally diverse materials. **Figure 3.3** will help you find and evaluate culturally diverse books for your students, and *In the Classroom 3.1* offers a suggestion for helping students develop an interest in poetry by making use of by making use of several motivating elements—including time for browsing through books, something that often looks unproductive but has been found to be important.

Classroom Climate

In a literate environment, everything that happens in the classroom sends the message that reading—including learning from what you read, having personal responses to what you read, talking about what you read, and writing about what you read—is fantastic! In such a classroom, students are given plenty of time to read, they are given ample opportunities to share the information they learn and their responses to what they have read with each other, they are taught to listen to and respect the ideas of others, and they learn that others will listen to and respect their ideas. A literate atmosphere is a thoughtful atmosphere in which values and ideas are respected, especially the values and ideas of others.

This kind of climate is developed when teachers, in a positive and supportive manner, help students learn how to engage in discussions and other forms of sharing what they have read. One way students learn to do this is through watching you modeling how to be positive and supportive as you scaffold students' reading experiences. Even when students' responses are wrong, try to find something in their responses that you can compliment them on. Modeling and directly teaching students ways to conduct themselves in the classroom, coming up with an agreed-on set of rules for discourse in the classroom, and prominently displaying the rules will also

FIGURE 3.3
Resources for Finding and Evaluating Culturally Diverse Books

Some basic questions to ask yourself as you are selecting culturally diverse literature:

- Does the book qualify as good literature?
- Is the culture accurately portrayed, demonstrating diversity within as well as across cultures if appropriate and avoiding stereotypes?
- Is the book a positive contribution to an understanding of the culture portrayed? (Galda & Cullinan, 2016)

As you are learning to evaluate literature in terms of literary excellence and cultural authenticity, here are some sources worth considering.

A valuable resource today for identifying books that represent diverse cultures is, of course, the internet. One such reliable source is the School Library Journal (slj.org) and another Colorín Colorado! (colorincolorado.org) a bilingual site for educators and families of English language learners and a treasure trove of information on multicultural books and how to select them; we found the article *How to Find Diverse Books* particularly useful.

You might also consult the online catalogs from publishers of multicultural books such as Lee and Low; Make Me a World imprint from Random House; Mango and Marigold Press featuring stories about the South Asian experience, Salaam Reads imprint from Simon & Schuster publishes books about Muslim life; Versify, a Harper-Collins imprint featuring multicultural children's experiences; Latina Publishing; Beach House Publishing, a Hawaiian based publisher and Agate Bolden featuring books about African Americans.

Additionally, awards lists are a good way to identify some of the best multicultural literature. Here are some of them:

- Notable Books for a Global Society, from International Literacy Association (ila.org) Special Interest Group honors outstanding multicultural books and their authors and illustrators
- Coretta Scott King Awards (ala.org) for outstanding African American authors and illustrators
- Pura Belpré Award (ala.org) recognizes outstanding Latino/Latina writers and illustrators
- Mildred Batchelder Award (ala.org) awarded to an American publisher for outstanding children's book originating in country other than the United States
- American Indian Youth Literature Award recognizes the best writing and illustrating by and about American Indians
- Asian/Pacific American Award for Literature recognizes individual work about Asian/Pacific Americans and their heritage
- Arab American Book Award honors books written about Arab Americans
- CABA: Children's Africana Book Award for outstanding books about Africa
- Sydney Taylor Book Award for outstanding books for children and teens that authentically portray the Jewish experience

help set the right tone. Trust, respect, and responsibility are important ideas in a safe and supportive classroom, and talking about these concepts and how the successful operation of the class rests on them is crucial, especially at the beginning of the year.

In the Classroom 3.1

Poetry Browsing to Create Interest

Teacher lore has it that it is often difficult to get upper-elementary students engaged in poetry. Whatever the reasons, upper-elementary readers tend to avoid poetry, unless it is humorous verse by authors such as Jack Prelutsky and Mo Williams. But this doesn't always have to be the case. As McClure and her colleagues (McClure et al., 1990) learned, given time and choice, upper-elementary students can learn to really enjoy poetry, even selecting books of poetry for independent reading. After assembling a collection of poetry that might interest their students, McClure and her colleagues added it to

the classroom library, displaying it so that students were tempted to look at the books. Then they gave students time to browse—to dip in and out of a variety of poetry books, finding poems they enjoyed and wanted to read to their buddies and then moving on. Over time, this freedom to simply enjoy and sample a lot of poetry without any task being assigned broke down the negative attitudes that students began with.

Grouping Students for Instruction

One of the most important decisions you make in your classroom, and one that will have a huge effect on motivation and engagement, is how to group students. Students can be grouped in a variety of ways for a variety of purposes, yet in all too many cases grouping has not been used effectively and has had a negative effect on many students, specifically those students placed in the low-ability groups.

A typical class of 20 to 25 students brings with it 20 to 25 different sets of interests, abilities, attention spans, and reading skills; and it is very difficult to attend to each of these when working with the class as a whole. When teaching the entire class as a single group, teachers tend to teach to an imaginary mean; that is, they gear their instruction to what they perceive to be the middle range of interest, attention span, and ability. Such instruction does not meet the needs of those who are not in this range. In large-group situations, the teacher must work hard to ensure that all students participate.

Dividing students into smaller groups is often helpful for a number of reasons. Keeping smaller groups on task is generally easier than keeping larger groups on task. It is easier to manage the engagement of students in small groups than the whole class. Smaller groups allow you to differentiate instruction to meet the needs of specific students. Especially in the primary grades, the amount of time students spend in small-groups has been linked to growth in reading achievement (Taylor et al., 2000). The more time spent in small-group instruction, the more students grew. Finally, smaller groups allow more students to be actively involved in discussions. In a group of six, for example, it is possible for each student to respond to a question and for you to deliver individual feedback.

Given these advantages, it is not surprising that students have often been grouped for reading instruction. But grouping has its downside and requires diligence. Grouping has typically been based on reading ability or reading level, leading to disadvantages, particularly for students in low-ability groups. As compared to students in other groups, in the past students in low-ability groups were often given less time to read, spent more time on worksheets, spent less time being actively instructed, and were asked fewer higher-order questions (Allington, 1983). None of this is ordained. As we discuss in Chapter 4, ability grouping can be effective and is particularly important in the primary grades. But teachers need to work hard to ensure that students in low groups have plenty of time to read, work with higher-order questions, and do not spend a lot of time with worksheets. Additionally, the negative impact of being in the low group can be overcome by teaching students the skills and strategies they need to become more able readers and regrouping the students when they have made progress. Periodically teachers should ask themselves, "How many students from my low group have moved to the middle group and how many from the middle group have moved to the high group?"

Recently, we have become slaves to putting students in the just-right reading level, ignoring students' interests and the knowledge they bring to the book (Hoffman, 2017). Many children can read books above their level, especially if they are interested in the topic. Groups should not be permanent; students in the low-ability group in kindergarten and first grade should not stay in that group throughout the elementary school years (Juel, 1990). Effective teachers change their instruction as students grow in reading ability (Juel & Minden-Cupp, 2000). *In the Classroom 3.2* illustrates one way for small groups of students of different reading levels to learn about genre.

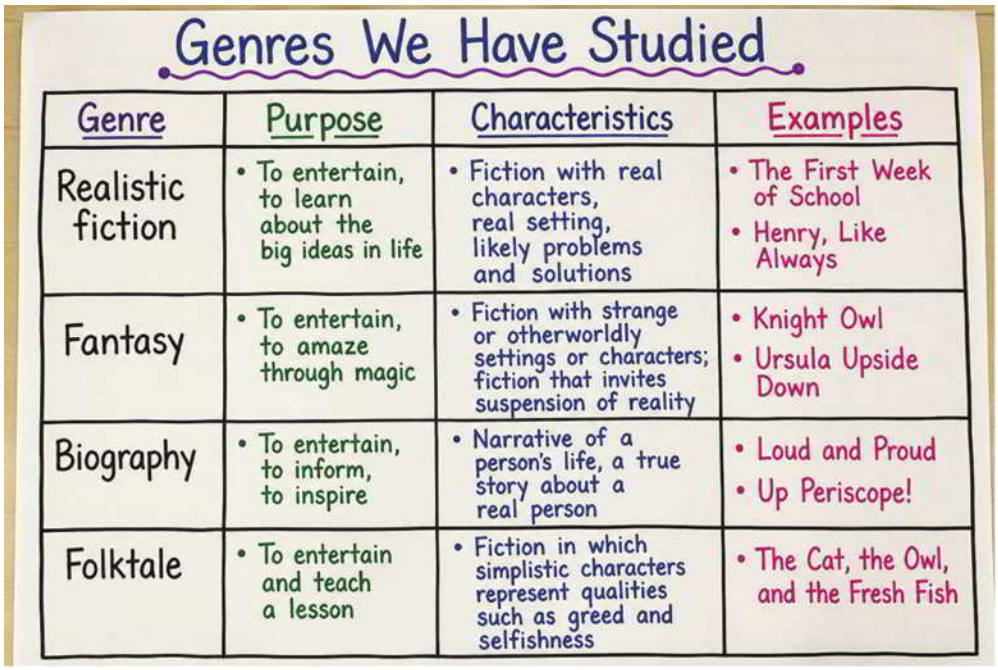
In the Classroom 3.2

Heterogeneous Small Groups Learn About Genre

Early each year Ms. Weiss sets the goal of helping her second-graders learn to work in groups and, at the same time, discover the books and genres in the classroom library. She begins with a short whole-class lesson and reads to the students a fantasy (*Knight Owl*, Denise, 2022), a biography (*Loud and Proud: The Life of Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm*, Cline-Ransome, 2023), a realistic fiction story (*The First Week of School*, Beckmeyer, 2024), and a folktale (*The Cat, the Owl, and the Fresh Fish*, Robert, 2023). She also discusses the characteristics and purpose of each genre and lists them on the board. The results are recorded on a genre chart that the class will maintain for the next few months. The chart will be kept up in the room and new titles added over the coming weeks and months as new books are read aloud. The accompanying genre chart is in its early stages. More genres and titles will be added as the students read and discuss more books.

Students are then assigned heterogeneously to separate tables and each group is handed a stack of 10 to 12 library books and four large cards labeled Fantasy, Biography, Realistic Fiction, and FolkTale. The students sort the books into genres by reading a bit of each book and noting the kinds of illustrations or photographs it includes. Because the teacher has organized each stack of books to have at least a few of each genre at a variety of reading levels, all of the students in the group will be able to read some of the books. As the students begin the work, the teacher circulates around the room and provides help as needed, agreeing, for example, with a group that discovers that it is difficult to distinguish a folktale from a fantasy. When the students have finished their sorting, each group picks one book from each pile and shares it with the class. Students learn about some interesting books, they begin to understand genre, and the classroom library gets a necessary clean-up.

Genre Chart



Genres We Have Studied

Genre	Purpose	Characteristics	Examples
Realistic fiction	• To entertain, to learn about the big ideas in life	• Fiction with real characters, real setting, likely problems and solutions	• The First Week of School • Henry, Like Always
Fantasy	• To entertain, to amaze through magic	• Fiction with strange or otherworldly settings or characters; fiction that invites suspension of reality	• Knight Owl • Ursula Upside Down
Biography	• To entertain, to inform, to inspire	• Narrative of a person's life, a true story about a real person	• Loud and Proud • Up Periscope!
Folktale	• To entertain and teach a lesson	• Fiction in which simplistic characters represent qualities such as greed and selfishness	• The Cat, the Owl, and the Fresh Fish

Source: © Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

Reflect and Apply

1. Think back to a time, probably high school, when you had an unsuccessful reading experience. What could your teacher have done to make the unsuccessful one more successful?
2. Think about how you choose the books you read as an adult. How do you choose your books? Do you have favorite authors, topics, genres? Do you follow the recommendations of friends? Do you read book reviews or best-seller lists? How could you share these approaches with your students and motivate your students to consider using them?

READING AND LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM—INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Students who are intrinsically motivated to read and learn do so because they expect positive and successful experiences. They do not expect praise or points (Schiefele & Loweke, 2018). Intrinsic motivation has been linked to the amount of reading, students' successful use of comprehension strategies, and their growing sense of competence (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016). Several factors promote students' intrinsic motivation in the classroom: first and foremost is interest. However, interest alone is not enough. The day the bunny escaped from Mrs. Greenwich's classroom was downright enthralling, but it promoted little learning. To promote learning students must have meaningful tasks, value the tasks they are assigned, have personal goals, and have confidence in their ability to meet those goals and, for many, working with others makes the tasks easier and engaging.

Interest

Pearson eTextbook
Video Example 3.3

What motivates students to want to read?

Interest is the liking of a topic, genre, and author and the willingness to engage with that topic or read a book about it. Interest has been shown to influence a student's attention (Hidi, 2001), goals (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002), and levels of learning (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). Interest is not easily distinguished from background knowledge. When a child has a deep interest in skateboards, video games, or Marvel comics, they are also knowledgeable about the topics. At some initial point, knowledge was meager, and curiosity led the child to the topic or author. As knowledge grew, so did interest. As the student explores a topic and builds knowledge, the payoff is psychological satisfaction.

Psychologists distinguish between personal interests and situational interests. Personal interests are intrinsic and endure over time, while situational interests can be content specific and activated by the teacher or other students. The escaped bunny mentioned just above prompted situational interest. Teachers tend to think that students either have or do not have an interest in a topic or genre, because we view interests as either on or off. I like basketball, broccoli, and jazz, and dislike soccer, carrots, and chamber music. But interests come and go, and can be strong, weak, or somewhere in between. Interest can be built.

Our goal as educators is to consider how to create a situational interest and turn that into a personal or enduring interest. Hidi and Renninger (2006) suggest a four-phase model for doing so. We will explore the steps in that model.

1. *Triggered Situational Interest*. A situational interest can be triggered by personal identification with a character in a story or a topic. For example, the teacher decides to read aloud, *Chains* (2008) by Laurie Halse Anderson. In some students this sparks an interest in the American Revolution, in others slavery, and still others want to try another book in Anderson's trilogy—*Forge* (2010) or *Ashes* (2016).

2. *Maintained Situational Interest*. The situational interest develops and is nurtured by persistent work with a book, or books, or a topic. The reader is gently hooked. Many instructional conditions can deepen this situational interest, including cooperative group work, project-based learning, or literature circles. The teacher might suggest other exciting books on the American Revolution or read one aloud to the class. The more meaningful the task the more students' interest develops.
3. *Emerging Individual Interest*. After working with a book, a genre, or a topic for some time, the student begins to embrace the author or topic. If given a choice, they are likely to read more books by the same author or on the same topic. They become curious and seek answers when new issues arise. This emerging individual interest is supported by the teacher or other students who might suggest new books or articles on a topic.
4. *Well-Developed Individual Interest*. Having a well-developed personal interest means that the student has very positive feelings for the topic, genre, or author and considerable knowledge about it. Think of the people you know who became passionate about Harry Potter. At this point, interest, knowledge, and value are all linked. A well-developed individual interest is only sometimes self-generated. Often a librarian, a classroom teacher, or another student supports that interest through modeling, providing resources, and discussions.

Making Connections to Students' Cultures and Lives Outside of School

It is not at all surprising that students are more engaged and motivated to learn if they feel that what they are learning is related to their out-of-school lives. Although not every topic in the curriculum is going to be connected to students' home lives and cultures, many of them certainly can be and should be. One of the easiest ways to do this is to carefully select the reading material for your classroom so that it reflects the issues, concerns, and cultures of your students. At the same time, however, we must admit that assuring cultural matches is easier said than done.

For example, Mr. Augustus, a sixth-grade teacher, had developed a differentiated literature unit around the theme of survival. One group of boys was reading *The Upstairs Room* (Reiss, 2019), two other groups were reading *The Voyage of the Frog* (Paulsen, 2023), and a few were reading *Baseball Saved Us* (Mochizuki, 2018). Five African American boys were giving up on *The Upstairs Room*, a story about three young Jewish girls hiding in a closet in Holland to escape the Nazis. The boys complained that they just didn't get the book. "Who cares about some girls living 75 years ago." "What does that have to do with me?" Mr. Augustus began to discuss the boys' lives and wondered if they had ever experienced any persecution or discrimination. The boys acknowledged that they and their parents had. The teacher led them from their own experience to that of their parents and grandparents under Jim Crow, the Civil Rights movement, and finally back to life under slavery. With these facts in mind, Mr. Augustus helped the boys make connections with discrimination and persecution in different times and places. The boys made a connection, and the plight of Annie, Sini, and Rachel hiding in that closet in Holland became important.

Helping students connect to literature requires selecting the right books and making deliberate efforts to link those books to students' lives. Your students all come from families and communities that have as Moll (1992) describes it *funds of knowledge*. It is up to you to tap into that knowledge. Well-crafted book talks can move that process along. Teachers should regularly give book talks, perhaps two or three times a week, that discuss the genre, theme, and characters of new books. The book talk should make an obvious attempt to relate the book to the students' lives and interests. Although a culturally diverse classroom and school libraries are important no matter whom you teach, it's also important to think about the universals that engage

all students. Reading fiction that explores topics such as family, friends, and issues of growing up (such as Bonnie Graves's middle-grade historical novel *Catch Me When I Fall*, 2019), nonfiction about the wonders of the natural world (such as *Fungi Grow* by Maria Gianferrari, 2023), and inspirational biographies (such as *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*, Rappaport, 2023) can draw your students into the world of reading and help them realize that reading, even the reading they do in school, often relates to their lives outside of school.

Class projects can also help students connect home and school. Rather than researching and writing about a topic that has little connection to their community, students can choose to pursue a topic that has relevance to their lives. For example, a group of sixth-grade students in the Pacific Northwest spent a year doing research and writing about how pollution had destroyed the salmon stream that ran by their school. They read, discussed, and wrote while they also cleaned up the stream. The result was a cleaner stream, heightened community awareness of issues of pollution, and a book, *Come Back, Salmon!*, that chronicled their project. Eventually, the salmon even came back.

English learners experience particular success when they can make connections between what they already know and what they are learning to do. One way to do this is to have children create an identity text. An identity text is one that is grounded in and reflective of children's lives. When completed, these texts "hold a mirror up to students in which their identities are reflected back in a positive light" (Cummins, 2001, p. 219). One way to do this is to have children create memoirs. Memoirs are necessarily grounded in and reflective of children's lives. Every child in the classroom can create a memoir. The children who are English learners can create memoirs that are dual-language texts. On each page, sentences are first written in the child's home language. Then they are written in English, one language on top of the other.

Promoting Academic Values and Goals

Ultimately, motivation and engagement are intrapersonal values, and it is the students themselves who must become motivated and engaged—with school and schooling. The fact is that a good deal of schoolwork is just that—work—and we need to find ways to help students truly value that work. Students typically approach an assignment by asking themselves a question like this: "How hard do I want to work given my interest of the task and the likely payoff?" Most worksheets are boring and there are many of them, so students place little value on completing them. In contrast, reading about aerodynamics to construct paper airplanes that will be launched from the roof of the school to win a trophy might create intrinsic interest and be a powerful goal for some students.

Most school days should start with a very short discussion about what we are going to do and why it is important. Students need to think about school not as a set of activities that they dutifully complete, but as important tasks chosen by the teacher and the students to build their skills and knowledge. In this short introduction to the day, you can plant a sense of anticipation and give students something to look forward to—perhaps, a video from the Internet, a new read-aloud, or an experiment in science. Much as the news teases us with an upcoming segment, we can keep the students engaged by previewing upcoming activities. As the day comes to an end, it is often appropriate to review and celebrate what the class accomplished and what they learned during the day.

Keep in mind that students have different goals when they enter your classroom. Some are looking forward to the book you are reading aloud or the topic they are studying. The intrinsic interest drives them. Others work hard because they want a good grade and because all A's and B's on their report card will make them and their parents proud. Others are willing to work if they can work with others and on topics that interest them. Still others are not interested in school, and it will take all of your knowledge and skills to convince them of the value of academic goals. Keep these different goal orientations in mind as you interact with different students.

Efficacy and Positive Attributions

Students' self-perceptions influence their motivation, their performance, and especially their sense of efficacy or confidence. Educators and psychologists who study motivation know that the way people view their successes and failures, what has come to be called their *attributions*, has a powerful effect on motivation. Students should enter a new task or open a new book with the sense that they will succeed. If they do succeed, their sense of efficacy grows as does their motivation. If they fail to succeed repeatedly, they acquire a sense of learned helplessness. Students need appropriate challenges, and they need to learn how to interpret their success and failures.

Attribution theory helps to explain and underscore the importance of success to student motivation and engagement. Attribution theory deals with students' perceptions of the causes of their successes and failures in learning. As Wittrock (1986) explains, in deciding why they succeed or fail in reading tasks, students can attribute their performance to ability, effort, luck, the difficulty of the reading task, or the kindness of teachers. All too often, children who have repeatedly failed in reading attribute their failure to factors that are unchangeable and beyond their control—such as their perceived innate inability. One student we knew simply stated, "I can't read; I have dyslexia." Once children develop such an attitude, they are likely to lose their motivation to read and to doubt their ability to learn. From the children's perspective, there is no reason to try because there is nothing they can do about it. Moreover, as long as they do not try, they cannot fail; you cannot lose a race if you do not enter it.

LEARNED HELPLESSNESS

As Johnston and Winograd (1985) have pointed out, one long-term outcome of children's repeatedly attributing failure in reading to forces beyond their control is the learned helplessness syndrome. Children who exhibit learned helplessness in reading are apt to be nervous, withdrawn, and discouraged when they are faced with reading tasks. They are unlikely to be actively engaged in reading, to have goals and plans when they read, to monitor themselves when they are reading to see if the reading makes sense, or to check themselves after reading to see if they have accomplished their reading goal.

Obviously, we need to avoid this debilitating cycle of negative attributions and learned helplessness. Second-grade teacher Jerry Costello suggests four approaches:

> The first, and almost certainly the most powerful, way I have found to help students understand that they are in control of their learning is something I hear stressed over and over again by my colleagues and in the literature: Make students' reading experiences successful ones; make them so frequently successful for students that they will be compelled to realize that it is they themselves and not some outside force that is responsible for their success.
>
> Second, I tell students that their efforts *make a difference*, and when they are successful in a reading task, I talk to them about the activities they engaged in to make them successful. Teaching specific strategies is critical. If students learn to predict and reread and their performance on a test or project improves, I can help them attribute their success to these very specific actions. If they understand that their success stems from specific strategies they can control, then they can alter their attributions. I usually confer with individual students and help them understand how their efforts and their strategies made a difference. This gives them a sense of control.
>
> Third, I avoid competitive situations in which students compare how well they read a selection to how well others read it and instead focus students' attention on what they personally gained from the selection.
>
> Finally, I try to provide a number of reading activities in which the goal is simply to enjoy reading, have fun, learn something, and experience something interesting and exciting rather than only offering reading activities that are followed by answering questions or some other sort of external accountability.
>
> —Jerry Costello, second-grade teacher

The Importance of Appropriate Challenges

All readers need to undertake some challenging tasks. Unless they are willing to take some risks and make some uncertain attempts, there is little room or reason for learning to take place (Taylor et al., 2002). As Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) learned from three decades of research on what makes people's lives happier and more meaningful, facing and meeting significant challenges is one of the most self-fulfilling and rewarding experiences we can have. However, when we present students with challenges, we need to be certain that they clearly understand the goals toward which they are working, to give them challenges appropriate for their skills, and to provide them with whatever support they need to meet these challenges. This is, of course, true for all students, but it is particularly true for those students who have often found school difficult. *In the Classroom 3.3*, which is based on a lesson one of us observed, shows how one teacher managed this balancing act. About half way through the lesson, the teacher and I looked at each other and nodded, acknowledging the fact that the students were so engrossed that there was little for any adult to do.

In the Classroom 3.3

Providing Both Challenges and Supports

Mrs. Montano's goal is to teach her second-graders how to read informational text. For one of her groups she has selected the book *Snakes for Kids: A Junior Scientist's Guide to Venom, Scales, and Life in the Wild* (Starkey, 2022)—an intriguing topic. She starts the lesson by discussing the features of informational texts and their purpose. She points out the title and asks the students why a book has a title. "To tell what it is about." "So you can decide if you want to read it." These ideas are recorded on the chart. Next, the students consider the purpose of the table of contents, index, headings, bold print words, charts, graphs, pictures, and captions. Each feature is noted on the chart and its purpose is described. Mrs. Montano explains how the students will use these features to help them understand what they are reading and to locate information. She models this briefly with a book about spiders.

Below is the chart the class came up with.

Chart for Exploring the Features of Informational Text

Text Conventions	Purposes
Title	Identifies topic or subject, creates interest
Table of contents	Helps to locate specific topics
Headings	Identify the topic or purpose of a section
Subheadings	Identify the topic or purpose of a paragraph or more
Bold print	Highlights important concepts that demand attention and understanding
Picture	Helps us understand more about the text
Caption	Explains a picture or a chart
Index	Helps to locate specific information

The class then moves to their reading groups, and one group of nine students begins to work with the teacher. In addition to *Snakes for Kids*, the teacher has brought from the library 25 additional books about snakes at various reading levels. Mrs. Montano presents the Anticipation Guide shown here. The students' task before they read the book is to guess, based on their knowledge, the truth of each statement about snakes. Working independently, the students ponder and complete the guide. Then the teacher explains that they are to work with a partner and read *Snakes for Kids* to determine which of their guesses are correct. If they can't find the information in the book, they are free to read in any of the other books from the library.

The students begin to work. They read, they search, they argue. Some answers are found and others are not. The students grab other books and turn to the index or the table of contents to locate information about statements they have not yet verified. Note how the Structure of Informational Text chart used at the beginning of the lesson helped the students locate the information they needed. There is a very high level of engagement in the group. Some students begin to argue with each other and point to books to substantiate their claims. The students talk almost exclusively to each other and the teacher is largely ignored. Occasionally, Mrs. Montano has to quiet the group, but otherwise they continue to work. Students complete the Anticipation Guide quickly, but they continue to read the library books.

Anticipation Guide for *Snakes for Kids*

Before Reading	Statement	After Reading
1. True/False	Farmers do not like to have snakes on their farms.	1. True/False
2. True/False	The more colorful a snake is, the more dangerous it is.	2. True/False
3. True/False	Most snakes are harmless, but some are very dangerous.	3. True/False
4. True/False	Most snakes' skin is slimy to the touch.	4. True/False
5. True/False	Some people have snakes as pets.	5. True/False
6. True/False	Most U.S. states outlaw keeping snakes as pets.	6. True/False
7. True/False	If you see a snake, you should run.	7. True/False

Can you see how the lesson in *In the Classroom 3.3* appropriately challenged the students? The anticipation guide provided a task that all of the students could complete. It also created a sense of intrigue or mystery. The students wanted to see if they were right or wrong. They wanted to solve the puzzle. The original book, *Snakes for Kids*, was at the students' reading level and the initial instruction on text features helped the students navigate the text. The library books provided additional information, and because these books came from a variety of reading levels, all students could find additional books they could read. Even difficult texts could be used because the students knew how to locate information. Finally, the students worked with a partner. This provided additional support; if one could not locate the necessary information, the two working together might be able to.

Using Cooperative Activities to Ensure Active Participation

Students are a lot more motivated when actively engaged in learning. This is true for elementary students and for college students; if you are using this book as part of a college class, we hope you are engaged in active learning as part of your class. Such activities include constructing models, role-playing teaching situations, doing experiments, creating examples, and observing in classrooms and reporting back to your peers. Students in one study (Boaler, 2002), for example, noted that "you learn more by doing something on your own," "you feel more proud of the projects when you've done them yourself," and "because you had to work out for yourself what was going on, you had to use your own ideas."

Cooperative learning is another form of active learning that is very widely used, and it offers significant benefits. Importantly, the advantages of cooperative learning have been found to occur in a variety of domains (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Students in cooperative groups showed superior performance in academic achievement, displayed more self-esteem, accommodated better to mainstreamed students, showed more positive attitudes toward school, and generally displayed better overall psychological health. Students in cooperative groups also displayed better interpersonal relationships; and these improved interpersonal relationships held regardless of differences in ability, sex, ethnicity, or social class. Moreover, cooperative learning has been shown to be successful in teaching students how to resolve conflicts (Johnson & Johnson, 2002). Finally, cooperative learning can create a classroom in which students share the responsibility for each other's learning rather than compete with each other—a very positive situation. This reduces the alienation of students who often do not do well in school and often on their own perform more poorly than their classmates (Cohen, 1994). For some students, the social nature of school—that's where their friends are—is more important than the academic tasks. Working in groups satisfies their social needs while they learn new content and skills.

A number of authors (Abramczyk & Jurkowski, 2020; Cohen, 1994; Johnson et al., 1994; Slavin, 1987) have described approaches to cooperative learning, and using more than one approach can provide variety and accomplish somewhat different purposes. Moreover, as the title of this section suggests, variety itself tends to be motivating and engaging for students. No one likes to do the same thing in the same way all the time, and sometimes adding variety just to add variety makes good sense.

To close this section, we want to reiterate that you have two goals: (1) engaging students in motivating academic tasks and (2) motivating students to read. Similar factors underlie each goal. Choice, challenge, and efficacy are essential for deep involvement in academic tasks and for turning reluctant readers into avid readers. Interest and tasks that students value motivate them to work on a project or read a book.

MOTIVATING STUDENTS EXTRINSICALLY

Extrinsic motivation is frequently employed by teachers and parents. They are using it when a child earns points for reading a book, praise for completing an assignment, or when a class receives a pizza party at the end of the year for reading 500 books. Even earning an A in reading can be considered an extrinsic reward. Extrinsically motivated readers strive to attain some goal that is outside the book or the task (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Extrinsic motivators such as grades, competition, and social recognition seem unrelated to how much students choose to read or to their development of reading fluency and comprehension (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016). But extrinsic motivators are not all bad, especially when students see the value of an activity and how it relates to them (Ryan & Deci, 2020).

Praise and Points

Praise can be an effective motivator, and it is certainly a widely used tool. Nevertheless, praise is not without its potential drawbacks. Most importantly, it must be honest, and students must perceive it as honest. According to Guthrie and Wigfield (2000), effective praise is given only in response to students' efforts and achievements, specifies just what students have accomplished to earn the praise, and helps students better appreciate their work. I like that you corrected three reading errors today. Correcting your errors means you are becoming a better reader. Guthrie and Wigfield also note that effective praise makes it clear to students that they should attribute their success to effort and to the strategies that they used to accomplish the task for which they are being praised.

Before we can praise, we have to help students set goals. Students who set goals are more motivated to learn than students who do not. Teachers who work with their students to set appropriate learning goals are helping to foster students' long-term engagement and learning (Ames, 1992; Maehr & Midgley, 1996). Once the goals are set, we should help students understand how they are progressing in meeting those goals. Praise has a positive effect once students recognize their own achievements.

Grades

Grades are an essential extrinsic motivation tool. It is hard to imagine a school without some system for reporting achievement and progress to students and parents. Like most extrinsic tools, grades have little effect on the students' motivation to read, but they can be useful to motivate some learning activities. For students whose goals are earning good grades, the inducement of a higher grade can spur them on to work harder on a project. Other students might be motivated by the interest in the project and the possibility of public recognition at the school-wide science fair. As you get to know your students, you can tailor your motivational messages to each individual. Grades seem to have more effect on the motivation to read and on reading achievement for some students while others are more motivated by the project or the activity itself (Schiefele et al., 2012).

Rewards other than praise—points, stars, books, pizzas—can sometimes be effective in the short run. However, one of the most consistent and strongest cautions in the literature on motivation is that extrinsic rewards can undermine motivation in the long run (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; National Research Council, 2004; Stipek, 2002). When students become accustomed to getting extrinsic rewards for reading, they may begin reading solely to get the extrinsic reward and actually discontinue reading when the extrinsic rewards are no longer available. Our goal should always be to demonstrate to students that reading is worthwhile for its own sake—for the learning, enjoyment, and satisfaction that it brings. Our greatest tools in accomplishing this goal are giving students good books and other materials to read and scaffolding their efforts so that they can successfully comprehend them.

Technology

One computer-based program, Accelerated Reader (Renaissance Learning), is widely used to promote reading and provide motivation. This program was designed to motivate reading, promote increased time for reading, assess comprehension with computer-based tests, and reward students with points when they have successfully read a book and passed a test. Many teachers and schools believe that this program is at the core of their efforts to motivate students. However, the program has its pitfalls—some students don't like to read for points, and many books are not yet on the system. Yet the largest problem is that points or other extrinsic rewards do not build a long-term love of reading (Krashen, 2004). Students who enthusiastically use the program in school have no increased motivation to read on their own.

Factors That Undermine Motivation

In order to understand just what something is, it is often useful to understand what it is not. Although we certainly do not want to dwell on the negative, we do want to list some factors that undermine motivation. Pressley and his colleagues (Bogner et al., 2002; Dolezal et al., 2003; Pressley et al., 2003) have identified a number of these factors. A few of them are listed in **Figure 3.4**. Pressley et al. (2003) provide a much longer list. Most unfortunately, when Pressley and his colleagues (2003) observed primary-grade classrooms, they found many of these factors present.

Reflect and Apply

3. Explain two or three things you might do to help a shy second-grader who tends to lack confidence in her ability develop a more positive attitude toward herself as a learner.
4. Now explain two or three things you would not do so that you do not further undermine her attitude toward herself as a learner.
5. Suppose you want to convince your fourth-graders that (1) although schoolwork can be challenging, it is worth doing well and (2) doing their schoolwork well will give them a sense of accomplishment and pride. Jot down what you might say to them.

FIGURE 3.4
Some Factors That Undermine Motivation

Physical Environment

- Few examples of students' work and accomplishments are shown on the walls.
- The room is sparsely decorated, with few posters, pictures, or other elements to make it more attractive and inviting.

Psychological Environment

- The teacher does not have or communicate to students that she has high expectations for their learning.
- The atmosphere fostered by the teacher is not cooperative, and no sense of community and students helping and respecting each other is developed.
- The teacher communicates to students that getting the right answers and high grades are the most important part of school.
- The teacher gives students very little praise.

Classroom Instruction

- The teacher does not check for understanding before moving on.
- The teacher does not use opportunities to connect lessons to other concepts in the curriculum, to previous learning experiences, or to the world outside of school.
- The teacher does not give students time to process questions and think about answers before calling on them.
- The teacher is not fully prepared for the day's lessons.

Classroom Management

- The teacher does not check students' progress as they work and fails to notice students' confusion or off-task behavior.
- The teacher uses negative, punishing techniques to maintain order in the classroom.

Source: Based on Pressley, M., Dolezal, S. E., Raphael, L., Mohan, L., Bogner, K., & Roehrig, A. (2003). *Motivating primary grade students*. Guilford Press.

NANCY MASTERS, A SUPERSTAR AT MOTIVATING STUDENTS

Nancy Masters is a truly outstanding teacher who was observed by Pressley and his colleagues as part of their in-depth studies of motivation in primary-grade classes (Bogner et al., 2002; Pressley et al., 2003). Here is a description of her efforts.

> On a typical day, Nancy Masters used more than 40 different positive motivational mechanisms to inspire and engage her students. Her classroom was filled to overflowing with motivating activities and a positive tone. Cooperation was emphasized consistently during both whole-group and small-group instruction. Thus, when students read books with partners, Ms. Masters reminded them that, "The point is, you're supposed to help your partner." She provided reassurance and interesting scaffolding when students took on challenging activities. Thus, before a test requiring application of phonics skills, Ms. Masters reminded her students of the phonics they had been learning and emphasized that they should apply what they knew about phonics on the upcoming test.
>
> Ms. Masters emphasized depth in her teaching, covering mature and interesting ideas. For example, during Black History Month, students not only completed detailed group book reports about five prominent Black leaders, but she also led a discussion about the Jim Crow laws, one in which the students participated enthusiastically, demonstrating they had learned a great deal about discrimination during the month. During this conversation, Ms. Masters talked about different ways that people can affect social change, covering civil disobedience, disobeying unjust laws, and working within the system to change such laws. She and the first-grade students discussed equality and inequality, with student comments reflecting their grasp of some very difficult concepts.
>
> Nancy Masters's teaching connected across the curriculum and community, between school and home. During the first month of the school year, she took her class to visit the kindergarten room. In doing so, she began to become acquainted with her future students while forging connections across grade levels for the kindergarten and grade-1 students. Her students wrote in their journals about this visit. When they wrote stories a few weeks later, Ms. Masters held out as a carrot another visit to the kindergarten room. She told her grade-1 students, "Maybe we'll show the kindergarten [your stories]." Nancy also pointed out times when students' home experience connected with school. Thus, when a student read the word *little* very quickly, Ms. Masters commented, "Have you been working at home with your Mom? I'm so proud of you!" In doing so, she simultaneously emphasized the importance of effort and homework while connecting to the student's home life. Ms. Masters also hosted a career day during which parents talked about and demonstrated their professional skills. After the visits, the students wrote in journals and did an at-home art project about their favorite profession. This special home assignment complemented the regular homework, which consisted of reading 15 minutes a night, doing a short math worksheet, and practicing spelling words.
>
> Nancy Masters gave many opportunistic mini-lessons. In-class assignments seemed appropriately challenging and engaging (i.e., students could not finish them quickly, and they seemed interested in them). Her emphasis on good literature, the writing process, and comprehension was apparent during every class visit. Also, the class constructed many products, which were tangible evidence of accomplishment, including big books that were displayed prominently in the classroom and discussed often. Ms. Masters promised the class that each one of them would be able to take home one class-constructed book at the end of the year. She made many across-curriculum connections for her students (e.g., having students use the Internet and the library to find material about Black History Month, material then used in writing an essay).
>
> Ms. Masters expressively communicated with students. As she read to students, she modeled her interest and enthusiasm, and reflected her curiosity about what would happen next in a story, often creating a sense of suspense about the events in a reading. When the class received a new basal reader, she opened it and said, "A brand new book!! It's like a present. I know you want to open it and look inside. Go ahead and look inside. See anything interesting? Anything you've read?"
>
> Ms. Masters provided clear learning objectives and goals. Thus, at the beginning of the school year, she had the students copy stories she had written on the board, explaining they were copying stories so that "You can see what good writing looks like." Similarly, when she taught strategies during writing workshop, Ms. Masters emphasized that the use of the strategies would help students write as they needed to write by the end of grade [1].
>
> Nancy Masters emphasized effort attributions. Thus, on the day report cards were distributed to students, she told the students twice that their most important grade was their grade for

effort. She and her students often used the term *personal best* to describe how they were doing.

Nancy Masters monitored the students well. She often said, "When I come around, I want to hear you reading or helping your partner or discussing the story." During her walk-arounds, she provided help to students who were struggling.

Of course, Ms. Masters's efforts to motivate her students paid off. There was consistently high engagement in her class. The pace was always quick. The assignments were always interesting. She excited her students about their work. Her students were always engaged in productive work!

[1]From "Nancy Masters' Teaching," in *Reading Instruction That Works: The Case for Balanced Teaching* by Michael Pressley. Copyright © 2005 by Guilford Publications, Inc. Reproduced with permission of Guilford Publications, Inc., via Copyright Clearance Center.

Reflect and Apply

6. Reread the description of Nancy Masters's motivational activities in her first-grade class and pick out five activities that would work just as well with fourth- or fifth-graders. Now look back at the description and see if you can find any activities that would be inappropriate for fourth- or fifth-graders. How many did you find? What does this suggest about the extent to which motivational principles are applicable across grade levels?
7. Because grouping can have such a strong effect on students' learning, it is important that you fully understand its possible effects. Toward this end, get together with a small group of your classmates, generate a list of positive and negative effects of grouping, and brainstorm a list of ways in which you can maximize the positive effects of grouping and minimize the negative ones.

SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING

Over the last 30 years, a concern and a movement that has been termed social emotional learning (SEL) has steadily grown. The concern of the movement is that in addition to considering students' academic strengths and weaknesses and their motivation to read and succeed in school, schools need to consider a broad range of social and emotional conditions that students face, both in and out of school. The movement deals with schooling generally and is much broader than the focus of this book. However, its importance to reading instruction was brought to our attention by a number of widely respected reading researchers (Pearson et al., 2024). The researchers' response argued for a broad understanding of the science of reading, one much like that in this book, and went beyond that to stress as their first priority the importance of social and emotional learning. There are many factors that need to be considered in planning reading instruction, and we do not want to suggest that social and emotional learning is the preeminent priority, but we certainly agree that it is an important one and a factor that has often received less attention than it deserves.

The majority of the SEL programs that have been developed and tested over the past 30 years have been whole-school projects designed to promote growth in children's social and emotional learning, competence, and behavior in a number of areas. As indicated in the framework developed by the Collaborative for Academic,

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 3.4

What are the core competencies and key settings for social emotional learning?

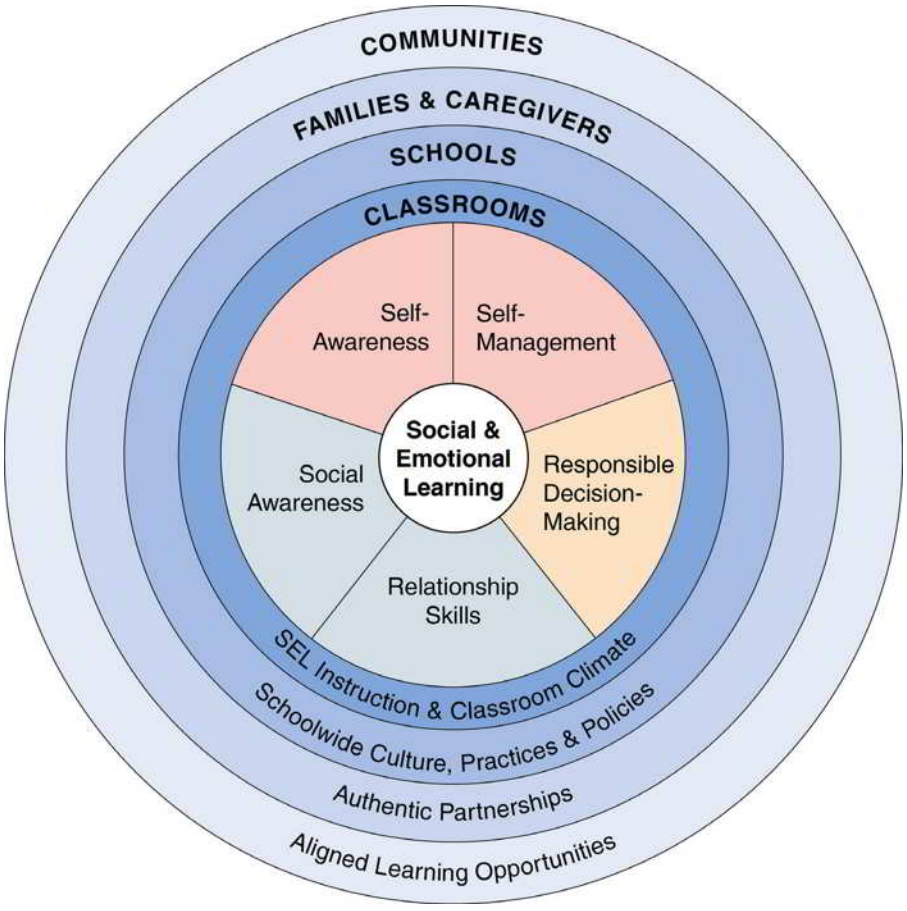
www.youtube.com/watch?v=ouXhi_CfBVg&t=2s

Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL), the most widely recognized SEL organization, SEL programs should focus on five outcomes. The CASEL framework is shown in **Figure 3.5**. As shown in the figure, these outcomes are Self-Awareness, Social Awareness, Self-Management, Relationship Skills, and Responsible Decision-Making. The CASEL framework defines each of these in some detail. Here is the brief definition of each of them taken from the CASEL website (https//.www.casel.org), a rich source of information on SEL: As you read this section of the chapter, you will see that there is a good deal of overlap between what we have said about motivation and engagement and the concerns of the SEL movement. This is not surprising, since concerns about motivation and engagement and SEL concerns are primarily affective considerations.

The five CASEL outcomes can be related to aspects of motivation that we have discussed and instructional activities. **Figure 3.6** lists these outcomes and pairs them with some aspects of reading instruction.

As also shown in Figure 3.6, these outcomes are influenced by children's experiences in four different but interrelated settings: Classrooms, Schools, Families and Caregivers, and Communities. While we recognize that each of these settings is important, we are concerned with SEL in Classrooms. Before we move on, however, we should note that schoolwide SEL programs have produced some notable results.

FIGURE 3.5
The CASEL Framework



Source: © "Used with permission from What Is the CASEL Framework?", CASEL at https://casel.org/fundamentals-of-sel/what-is-the-casel-framework/"

FIGURE 3.6
The Five CASEL Outcomes

The Five CASEL Outcomes	CASEL Outcomes within the Classroom
SELF-AWARENESS: The abilities to understand one's own emotions, thoughts, and values and how they influence behavior across contexts. This includes capacities to recognize one's strengths and limitations with a well-grounded sense of confidence and purpose.	We have discussed efficacy and positive attributions. This is how students see themselves. When you confer with students ask them to evaluate their work. If they succeeded, ask why they did. Guide them to consider that their effort, their use of strategies, and their value influenced your success. "See how much that summarizing strategy helped you complete your report."
SELF-MANAGEMENT: The abilities to manage one's emotions, thoughts, and behaviors effectively in different situations and to achieve goals and aspirations. This includes the capacities to delay gratification, manage stress, and feel motivation and agency to accomplish personal/collective goals.	Schooling requires students to manage many tasks over days and weeks and teachers should help. Teachers can explicitly state goals, identify due dates, help students keep agendas or schedules for assignments. Each morning teachers can review goals for the day, help students decide what they will accomplish during independent work time and empathize with those who find tasks onerous. Individual conferences may help those who procrastinate or rush.
SOCIAL AWARENESS: The abilities to understand the perspectives of and empathize with others, including those from diverse backgrounds, cultures, and contexts. This includes the capacities to feel compassion for others, understand broader historical and social norms for behavior in different settings, and recognize family, school, and community resources and supports.	Often during the reading/language block students work together in small groups discussing books or working on projects. Key to successful small group work is helping students learn the social norms of a success group. Teachers can work with students to follow social rules. Listen to others, share ideas, ask questions, encourage others to respond, and keep the discussion moving.
RELATIONSHIP SKILLS: The abilities to establish and maintain healthy and supportive relationships and to effectively navigate settings with diverse individuals and groups. This includes the capacities to communicate clearly, listen actively, cooperate, work collaboratively to problem solve and negotiate conflict constructively, navigate settings with differing social and cultural demands and opportunities, provide leadership, and seek or offer help when needed.	Throughout the day students work with each other in student- managed small groups, like the literature circles discussed in Chapter 11 or in paired reading activities that build oral reading fluency, a topic discussed in Chapter 9. When any of these activities is introduced, it is important for teachers to review social rules, model appropriate and successful behavior, and coach students through their initial attempts at working together.
RESPONSIBLE DECISION-MAKING: The abilities to make caring and constructive choices about personal behavior and social interactions across diverse situations. This includes the capacities to consider ethical standards and safety concerns, and to evaluate the benefits and consequences of various actions for personal, social, and collective well-being.	At the beginning of the school year teachers routinely discuss the class rules. These span rules for entering and leaving the room, going to lunch and recess, behavior on the playground, in the classroom and what to do when problems arise, and the teacher is busy. These rules should be developed with the students, so they understand the common classroom expectations and the benefits of abiding by the rules.

Source: © "Used with permission from CASEL'S SEL FRAMEWORK: What Are the Core Competence Areas and Where Are They Promoted? CASEL at https://casel.org/casel-sel-framework-11-2020/?view=1"

A recent meta-analyses of 90 SEL studies in the United States indicated that students who participated in SEL programs showed significantly improved "academic achievement, school functioning, social and emotional skills, attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of school climate and safety" (Cipriano et al., 2024, p. 1). A companion meta-analyses involving 424 studies in 53 countries produced similar results (Cipriano et al., 2023). And a recent review of SEL programs in 12 other meta-analyses showed positive effects of SEL programs on the development of social and emotional competencies, prosocial behaviors, reduction of disruptive behavior, and fostering

academic performance (Greenberg, 2023). For more information about SEL, including the various settings in which it can and needs to be fostered, we recommend the CASEL website, https://www.casel.org.

Our message about SEL as it relates to supporting students' reading development in classrooms is simple: As teachers, we must realize that our students have lives, interests, challenges, concerns, achievements, and disappointments outside of our classrooms. All of these social and emotional factors influence our students' academic learning in the classroom, and we need to take this into account as we plan instruction and classroom activities. Probably the first step in doing so is to know the students and let them know that we know them and care about them. *In the Classroom 3.4* illustrates one teacher's musings as she thinks about getting to know a new group of students at the beginning of the year.

In the Classroom 3.4

Getting to Know Students and Letting Them Know You Care

It's August and Alice Rodriguez is busy planning for the upcoming year. Ms. Rodriguez teaches first grade in a Texas school not far from the Mexican border. Although she does not yet know just which students will be enrolled in her class, she knows that many of them will be English learners and that some of them will be newcomers, children who not only speak little English but for whom school will be a new, and perhaps threatening experience. As a result, Ms. Rodriguez gives a good deal of attention to how she can make the classroom welcoming and her students comfortable and confident. One important step toward doing so is learning students' names, getting to know each student, and letting each student know that she cares. Unfortunately, Ms. Rodriguez is not good at learning names, and she knows this. So her plan for the first day of class includes assigning students seats, telling students why she is assigning seats (because she wants to learn their names and is not very good at doing so), taking a picture of the class with students in their assigned seats, and labeling each picture with the student's name. She will spend some of the evening following the first day learning each student's name.

The second day of class, Ms. Rodriguez will greet students at the door, calling as many of them as she can by name. She will be greeting each of them at the door each day and offers them some choices of how they would like to greet her. The options she gives them include smiles, high fives, fist bumps, pinky shakes, and little dances. After class that day, Ms. Rodriguez will put up some posters just outside the classroom door so that students can point to the type of greeting they would like to use.

Ms. Rodriguez realizes that besides learning students' names, there are many other ways for teachers to make their classrooms safe, inviting, and supportive environments for learning. Some of these are listed as follows:

- Getting to know students: Their likes and dislikes, their strengths and weaknesses, some things about their families, meeting their parents or caregivers, learning some things about their backgrounds.
- Understanding their relationship with other students: Do they have friends in the classroom or do they seem to lack friends, are they leaders or followers, do they seem to struggle to make friends and to fit in, do they seem to know their place in the social hierarchy of the classroom?
- Assessing their self-awareness and self-management: Do they seem to understand their strengths and weaknesses academically and socially, do they recognize when they need help and when they do not, can they decide what they need to do to succeed at various tasks or do they need a good deal of guidance?

- Considering their skills at responsible decision making: Do they make responsible decisions, ones that will lead to academic success, social acceptance, and feelings of accomplishment? Or do they repeatedly make poor decisions, ones that lead them toward academic failure, rejection and feelings of failure?
- Learning what types of books and other materials they like to read and can succeed with: Do they prefer books or shorter materials? Do they prefer fiction of nonfiction? Are there certain topics of genre that they prefer, for example, sports, animals, mysteries, coming of age stories? Do they prefer challenging material or material they can read easily?

The more you know about your students, the better equipped you will be to create classrooms that help students learn and grow academically, socially, and emotionally, both in the classroom and in their lives outside of the classroom. The Reading Corner presents some books that can foster social and emotional learning.

The Reading Corner

Books That Foster Social and Emotional Learning

Stories that highlight diverse ways of being in the world, the value of mistakes, missteps, and moments of defeat—things we all experience in different ways—are valuable for fostering social and emotional well-being. By reading stories that portray and illuminate social and emotional issues, students can learn to empathize with people different from themselves as well as characters similar to themselves and realize that, no matter who we are or where we come from, everybody experiences challenges of one sort or another, and it's how we deal with these challenges that defines us.

Christine Baldacchino, illustrated by Isabelle Malenfant. *Morris Micklewhite and the Tangerine Dress*, Groundwood Books, 2014. Morris is a little boy who loves to wear an orange-colored dress from his classroom's dress-up center. At first, the other kids tease him. But when Morris builds a spaceship, the other children want to join in. A picture book about fostering inclusion and acceptance. 32 pages.

Rachel Funez, illustrated by Kelly Kennedy. *Sonia and the Super-Duper Disaster.* Free Spirit Publishing, 2024. When Sonia forgets her mother's birthday, she's determined to make up for this mistake by making her mom breakfast. But her ADHD gets in the way, and her anxiety multiplies as the breakfast spirals out of control. Relying on strategies such as deep breathing and self-talk ("I'm capable. I've got this"), Sonia manages to save the breakfast in the end. 40 pages. Back matter expands on the book's theme, discussing ADHD, anxiety, and the strategies that Sonia uses to cope in more detail.

Ashley Granillo. *Cruzita and the Mariacheros*, Carolrhoda, April 2024. Cruzita, who feels misunderstood by her family, dreams of becoming a pop star, but for now she must help at her family's bakery, while she's also mourning the recent death of her beloved uncle. Caught between two worlds, she finds a sense of community in mariachi music, which helps her connect with her family and heritage. 252 pages.

Bonnie Graves. *Catch Me When I Fall,* Fitzroy, 2019. Thinking her father might be the famous Filippo the Flying Wonder, Emma lands a job at a traveling circus in search of the father she never knew defying her mother's strict orders not to go near the circus. The story highlights the fractures that can occur in family relationships when secrets are held and communication breaks down, but how courage, determination, resilience, and love can lead to reparations in broken relationships. 122 pages.

Harold Green III, illustrated by Andrea Pippins. *Words Are My Superpower: A Kid's Guide to Affirmations, Mantras, and Positive Thinking,* Running Press, 2024. Practical advice on how words have the power to change lives and deal with

some of the most powerful villains in young readers' lives such as anxiety, fear, disappointment, and failure. By providing strategies to articulate and cope with challenging emotions, the book equips tweens with the tools to navigate their inner worlds with confidence. 112 pages.

Shari Green. *Game Face*, Groundwood Books, 2023. 13-year-old Jonah learns to manage his anxiety as his hockey team's goalie. Written in free verse that is both varied and effective, *Game Face* is a story that will resonate with any young person who has faced a personal challenge and overcome it with courage and determination. 376 pages.

Thao Lam. *Happy Birthday to Me*, Groundwood Books, 2023. As a young girl waits for her birthday party, she experiences a wide range of emotions: excitement, nervousness, impatience, and feeling overwhelmed. This is a good book for helping young children understand their various feelings. 44 pages.

Stephanie V. W. Lucianovic, illustrated by Chris Park. *Touch the Sky*, Carolrhoda, 2024. Vern wants nothing more than to swing on the playground, but he struggles with pumping his legs. When he meets a girl named Gretchen, she teaches him how to do this correctly. Finally able to *touch the sky*, Vern then passes his newfound skill on to another child who's having trouble swinging. Models self-awareness, self-management, and relationship skills for children in grades K–3. 32 pages.

Kyle Lukoff, illustrated by Julie Kwon. *I'm Sorry You Got Mad*, Dial, 2024. This delightful picture book models how to write a sincere apology at a young age. When Jack knocks over Zoe's block castle, his teacher has him write an apology note. The book's title is Jack's poor first attempt. As he continues to revise his apology, his teacher provides feedback on how to try again. Jack eventually nails the apology—sincere, no excuses, seeking to make amends—and repairs his friendship with Zoe. 32 pages.

Mayu Murata, translated by Amanda Haley. *Honey Lemon Soda*, Yen Press, 2023. Uka Ishimori has one dream in life: to have fun in high school. As a self-avowed introvert who spent all her time in middle school steeling herself against a daily barrage of bullying, she finds that breaking out of her shell is easier said than done. Luckily, Uka is not alone. With the help of new friend Kai Miura, a classmate whose blonde hair reminds her of the lemon soda he so enjoys, she learns to become more confident. Intended for readers ages 13 and up, this book is an example of *shojo* manga. First volume in the series. 192 pages.

Divya Srinivasan. *What I Am*, Viking, 2021. A young narrator describes herself: a girl, a granddaughter, Indian, and American. Soon, we see the young girl as a plethora of things: selfish and generous, mean and kind, brave and mischievous. While many of these qualities oppose each other, the context and illustrations make it abundantly clear that she speaks the truth. She is a walking contradiction, and that is precisely what makes her both a unique individual and an essential piece of the greater world around her. Divya Srinivasan shows what makes us human and proud to be who we are. 40 pages.

Reflect and Apply

8. Think back to your elementary years, all the way to kindergarten or first grade if possible, and list some of the things that most concerned you. We suspect that learning to read was one priority you had. But we also suspect that making new friends and fitting in with the group were other ones. List as many as you can.
9. Select a grade level you would like to teach and describe one activity you could use on the first day of class to show students you care about them as individuals. Also, describe an approach you could routinely use to help students believe in their ability to do the work you assign them.

ASSESSING STUDENTS' MOTIVATION

Spend a few minutes in an elementary classroom and it becomes relatively obvious who are the readers and who are not. The readers have books on their desks, often more than one. The non-readers do not, or often the book they hold is beyond their reading level or mostly pictures with captions. During free time, readers read and non-readers wander the room looking for a book. During the weekly visit to the library, readers easily find the next book, while non-readers need considerable guidance. Your observations in the classroom and the library yield many insights about students' reading motivation. Simply asking students about the book on their desk will tell you more than the Accelerated Reader report that your printer spits out. *In the Classroom 3.5* gives you another way to assess your students' motivation.

Beyond classroom observations, there are a number of tools that teachers can use to gain a deeper understanding of students' reading motivation. McKenna and his colleagues (1995, 2012) developed a survey tool that helps to quantify a student's motivation for reading at home, recreational reading, and their motivation to read in school with either print or digital sources. The students respond to questions like, "How do you feel about reading news online?" or "How do you feel about reading anything printed?" on a six-point scale—Very Good (6) to Very Bad (1). **Figure 3.7** presents some examples of the survey. The results of this survey could help you understand students' attitudes toward reading in school versus reading at home with different types of text.

In the Classroom 3.5

Assessing Students' Reading Attitudes and Interests

It's important that you get to know your students as readers early in the academic year. You can find out about their reading habits and preferences by having a one-on-one book conference with each of them, and with primary-grade children, that's what you need to do. But with older students, a faster and more efficient way to get the information you need is to have them fill out a brief written survey. You can easily create a set of questions that will give you the information you need, such as the following:

- Do you like to read? Why or why not?
- Are you reading anything for fun at this time? What is it? Why do you like it?
- Do you have any favorite authors or titles? Why are these your favorites?
- Is there a certain kind of text that you prefer—books, magazines, fiction, nonfiction, or some other format?
- How do you choose what to read when you go to a library or bookstore?
- What do you do if what you are reading is too hard or too easy for you?
- What makes a good reader?

If you want to deepen your exploration of students' motivation, you could use the Reading Motivation Questionnaire (RMQ) that looks at six factors of reading motivation (Schiefle & Schaffner, 2016). A copy of the complete RMQ can be found in *Appendix A*. Curiosity, involvement, and emotional regulation are aspects of intrinsic motivation. Grades, competition, and social recognition are part of extrinsic motivation. In **Figure 3.8**, we present a sample of items from each category.

The information from the RMQ could help you design your classroom motivational program. If a new class is highly motivated to read for intrinsic reasons, you might spend less time on developing interest yourself and let the students inform one

FIGURE 3.7
Assessing Home and School Preferences for Reading Print and Digital Text

	Academic Reading	Recreational Reading
Digital	• How do you feel about reading news online for class? • How do you feel about reading a book online for class?	• How do you feel about texting your friends in your free time? • How do you feel about being on a social website like Facebook?
Print	• How do you feel about reading a textbook? • How do you feel about reading a novel for class?	• How do you feel about reading a book in your free time? • How do you feel about getting a book or magazine as a present?

Source: Based on McKenna, M. C., Conradi, K., Lawrence, C., Jang, B. G., & Meyer, J. P. (2012). Reading attitudes of middle school students: Results of a U.S. survey. *Reading Research Quarterly, 47*(3), 283–306.

FIGURE 3.8
Assessing Reading Motivation from the Reading Motivation Questionnaire

Intrinsic Factors	Extrinsic Factors
I read…	*I read…*
Curiosity	**Grades**
because I can learn more about things of interest to me.	*Because it helps me get better in school.*
Involvement	**Competition**
because some stories stimulate my imagination.	*because it helps me perform better in school than my classmates.*
Emotional regulation	**Social recognition**
because it helps me when I am sad.	*because it is important for me to be among the best students.*

Source: Based on Schiefele, U., & Schaffner, E. (2016). Factorial and construct validity of a new instrument for the assessment of reading motivation. *Reading Research Quarterly, 51*(2), 221–237.

another. Sharing books would be an excellent idea. A troubled student who is high on emotional regulation might find solace in a book that addresses personal issues similar to their own. Knowing that a student reads for mainly extrinsic reasons might guide you to stimulate a student's curiosity or heighten their involvement through the selection of very compelling books. The RMQ could also be used to evaluate your success in building reading motivation over the year.

Concluding Remarks

Creating a motivating, engaging, and caring classroom means creating a literate environment—a space, a collection of texts, and an atmosphere—where reading and learning thrive. In motivating, engaging, and caring classrooms, students learn to attribute their successes and failures to factors under their control and to avoid learned helplessness. And in motivating, engaging, and caring classrooms, teachers employ myriad approaches to motivating students—including but not limited to ensuring student success, fostering higher-order thinking, employing meaningful tasks, making connections to students' cultures and lives outside of school, and recognizing the importance of their social and emotional learning.

We close the chapter with two sets of recommendations, found in **Figure 3.9**, for motivating students.

The first is a set that Pressley and his colleagues (2003) gleaned from the work of Brophy (1987), recommendations originally made nearly 40 years ago. The second is a set that we have gleaned from the work of Pressley and his colleagues (Bogner et al., 2002; Dolezal et al., 2003; Pressley et al., 2003) and from that on social and emotional learning (CASEL https://www.casel.org; Greenberg, 2023; Pearson et al., 2024). As you read them, you will notice two points. First, the two sets of recommendations overlap a good deal. Second, both sets overlap a good deal with the recommendations we make in this chapter. Our point is this: We have learned a great deal about how to motivate and engage students; our task is to put this knowledge into action. In the remainder of this book and in our day-to-day teaching in our own classrooms, we keep these recommendations at the center of our thinking. We encourage you to do the same.

FIGURE 3.9
Research-Based Motivational Strategies

Motivational Strategies Gleaned from Brophy

- Model interest in learning: Communicate to students that there is good reason to be enthusiastic about what goes on in school. The message should be that what is presented in school deserves intense attention, with the teacher doing all that is possible to focus students' attention on important academic matters.
- What is being taught, in fact, should be worth learning!
- Keep anxiety down in the classroom. Learning should be emphasized rather than testing.
- Induce curiosity and suspense, for example, by having students make predictions about what they are about to learn.
- Make abstract material more concrete and understandable.
- Let students know the learning objectives so that it is very clear what is to be learned.
- Provide informative feedback, especially praise when students deserve it.
- Give assignments that provide feedback (to your students and to yourself).
- Adapt academic tasks to students' interests and provide novel content as much as possible. (Do not cover material students already know just because it is the mandated curriculum.)
- Give students choices between alternative tasks (for example, selecting one of several books to read).
- Allow students as much autonomy as is possible in doing tasks. Thus, to the extent students can do it on their own, let them do it.
- Design tasks to contain an engaging activity (for example, role playing), product (for example, a class-composed book), or game (for example, riddles).

Motivational Strategies Gleaned from Pressley and His Colleagues and the Work on Social and Emotional Learning

- Demonstrate your deep concern for students.
- Do everything possible to ensure students' success.
- Scaffold students' learning.
- Present appropriate challenges.
- Support risk taking and help students realize that failures will sometimes occur.
- Encourage students to attribute their successes to their efforts and realize that additional effort can help avoid failures.
- Encourage cooperative activities and discourage competition.
- Favor depth of coverage over breadth of coverage.
- Communicate to students that many academic tasks require and deserve intense attention and effort.
- Recognize the importance of students' social and emotional learning
- Guide students in learning to manage their emotions, thoughts, and behaviors.
- Help students learn to empathize with others, build healthy relationships, and make caring and constructive decisions as they interact with their classmates.

Source: Based on Pressley, M., Dolezal, S. E., Raphael, L., Mohan, L., Bogner, K., & Roehrig, A. (2003). Motivating primary grade students. Guilford Press.

Extending Learning

1. Spend some time observing a classroom at a grade level you find particularly interesting. Take notes on what you see. What opportunities for engaging in literacy activities are present? How welcoming is the physical setting? What materials are available? Then watch how the teacher and students interact in the classroom. Is the atmosphere safe and supportive? Does the teacher seem to know the students well, treat them as individuals, and encourage all to participate in classroom activities? Are students enthusiastic and engaged? Finally, create a list of things to do and a list of things to avoid doing in order to best motivate students and support their social and emotional learning.

2. The notes that you created in activity 1 represent your judgment based on your observation. There are other sources of information that deserve to be considered. One is the teacher you observed. Talk to the teacher and get their perceptions on what motivates students and which specific things they do to motivate them. The other source is, of course, students. Talk to a half dozen or so students and get their perceptions of what is and is not motivating in their classrooms. Once you have the teacher's and some students' perspectives, compare them to your notes and revise or fine-tune your notes as seems appropriate.

Children's Literature

These works were cited in the chapter.

Anderson, L. H. (2008). *Chains*. Atheneum. The author explores the themes of slavery and power during the American Revolution. This is the first in a trilogy followed by *Forge* and *Ashes*. 301 pages.

Bailey, J. (2023). *Henry, Like Always*. Chronicle Books. In this beginning chapter book, Henry, a first-grader on the autism spectrum, learns to deal with sudden changes in the classroom routine, like a parade instead of share time. 48 pages.

Blabey, A. (2024). *The Serpent and the Beast*. Scholastic. The 19th hilarious book in *The Bad Guys* series, *a New York Times* bestselling illustrated series about wannabe heroes who may look like bad guys but are really doers of good deeds. 192 pages.

Beckmeyer, D. (2024). *The First Week of School*. Atheneum. An ensemble cast of students in one classroom, experiences the first week of school, including one unexpected visitor. 48 pages.

Cline-Ransome, L. (2023). *Loud and Proud: The Life of Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm*. Paula Wiseman. A biography of the first African American woman in Congress, trailblazer Shirley Chisholm, who also, in 1972, was the first woman and African American to seek the nomination for president from one of the two major political parties. 48 pages.

Denise, C. (2022). *Knight owl*. Christy Ottaviano Books. A determined owl builds strength and confidence in this medieval picture book about the real mettle of a hero: wits, humor, and heart. 48 pages.

Gianferrari, M. (2023). *Fungi Grow*. Beach Lane Books. This poetic nonfiction book illustrates the fascinating array of mushrooms, how they grow and multiply, and their value to humans and the forest. 48 pages.

Graves, B. (2019). *Catch Me When I Fall*. Fitzroy Books. Set in Racine, Wisconsin in 1932, plucky 12-year-old Emma, suspecting the famous Filippo the Flying Wonder is the father she never knew, masquerades as a boy to land a job at the circus and find him. 122 pages.

Hanlon, A. (2024). *Dory Fantasmagory*: *Can't Live Without You*. Dial Books. In this sixth book in the popular *Dory Fantasmagory* series, Dory, after losing her mom in a hardware store, turns her separation anxiety into a goofy, ghostly escapade. 160 pages.

Kinney, J. (2024). *Hot Mess (Diary of a Wimpy Kid Book 19)*. Amulet Books. Protagonist wimpy kid Greg Heffley discovers mixing family, a tiny beach house, and blistering hot weather is a recipe for disaster. 224 pages.

Mochizuki, K., and Lee, D. (2018). *Baseball Saved Us*. Lee & Low Books. Picture book that honestly portrays the story of a Japanese American boy in an internment camp during World War II. 32 pages.

Paulsen, G. (2023). *The Voyage of the Frog*. Doubleday Dell. A boy, grieving for his uncle, inherits his sailboat and learns to survive when caught in a dangerous storm. 160 pages.

Pilkey, D. (2024). *Dog Man*: *Big Jim Begins*. Grafix. The 13th installment of this very popular graphic novel from the creator of Captain Underpants. Characters from the *Dog Man* series join forces to stop the Space Cuties from destroying the city. 224 pages.

Rappaport, D. (2023). *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*. Little, Brown. Inspirational biography of Ellen Ochoa, the first Latina in space and director of Johnson Space Center. 48 pages.

Reiss, J. (2019). *The Upstairs Room*. HarperCollins. Two sisters must hide in a small room when the Nazis invade Holland during World War II. 196 pages.

Robert, N. (2023). *The Cat, the Owl, and the Fresh Fish*. Milky Way Picture Books. An original parable in which brains in the end outsmart greed. 36 pages.

Swanson, J. (2024). *Up Periscope!: How Engineer Raye Montague Revolutionized Shipbuilding*. Boston: Little, Brown. This picture book biography for grades 1–5 tells the story of Raye Montague (1935–2019) who overcame many obstacles because of being Black and a girl to reach her goal of becoming an engineer who designed ships—battleships, aircraft carriers, and submarines. 40 pages.

Tabor, C. R. (2024). Blazer & Bray. *Ursula Upside Down*. Ursula, a catfish who swims upside down, travels a journey of discovery—what's right, left, right, wrong, and which way is even up? 40 pages.

CHAPTER 4

ORGANIZING INSTRUCTION SO ALL WILL SUCCEED

Classroom Vignette

Mrs. Wright is concerned. It is the beginning of her second year as the principal of Pearson Elementary, a small 325-student elementary school in Virginia. Her school is in a rural area where the population is diverse—40% are White, 35% are Black, and 24% are Latinx. Twelve percent of the students are in a special education program. Her concerns are triggered by test scores, not the high-stakes scores that schools live and die by in this era of accountability, but informal assessments of beginning reading skills that were conducted at the end of first grade and again at the beginning of second grade. This test, the Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening (PALS, Invernizzi et al., 2015), is used throughout the state to assess skills like letter-name knowledge, letter-sound knowledge, phonemic awareness, spelling, and word and passage reading ability. She has just reviewed the assessments on her entering second-grade students, and many of them appear to have word and passage reading skills at or below a first-grade level. That means 25 of her 72 entering second-grade students are struggling with reading. Eight students are already in special education, and another seven students are reading at the same level as the special education students. Mrs. Wright has decided that she, the three second-grade teachers, the school's reading teacher, and the special education teacher need to talk about the problem and devise a plan for accelerating the reading growth of their second-grade students.

Three days later, at the second-grade team meeting, the teachers and Mrs. Wright began to offer ideas and suggestions. It is the district policy to group students heterogeneously into classrooms, so one option—homogeneous classrooms—is off the table. That means each teacher is likely to have students reading from a beginning first-grade reading level to a fourth-grade level. The teachers offer various suggestions; one suggests purchasing a new phonics program that would help the students catch up. Another suggests a focus on reading fluency, while others think they need more leveled texts. Some want to enlist parent volunteers to work in the classrooms and read with the students. Another suggests that the high school students who must complete community service projects can work a few hours a week with the struggling students. All agree that their current core program offers few ideas for teaching such a wide range of students in a classroom.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 4.1 Compare and contrast the reasons why some children have difficulty learning to read and others do not.

LO 4.2 Describe how you might organize space and time in a classroom to create a strong reading program that enables all students to read and love reading.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century

Seventh Edition

Motivating All Learners

Peter Dewitz • Michael F. Graves • Bonnie B. Graves

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century

Motivating All Learners

Seventh Edition

Peter Dewitz
Educational Consultant and Researcher

Michael F. Graves
University of Minnesota

Bonnie B. Graves
Children's Author

Pearson

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Content Development: Linda Bishop
Content Production: Shruti Joshi
Product Management: Brooke Nethers
Product Marketing: Krista Clark
Rights and Permissions: Ritika Akhil

Please contact www.AskPearsonSupport.com with any queries on this content.

Pearson puts care into the creation of our products. Our learning materials undergo content reviews to minimize bias and ensure the content is inclusive, accurate, and relevant. Please use this link to report instances of bias and inaccuracies: https://www.pearson.com/report-bias.html

You can learn more about Pearson's commitment to accessibility at https://www.pearson.com/us/accessibility.html

Cover Image by: © JGI/Jamie Grill/Tetra images/Getty Images

Copyright © 2027, 2020, 2016 by Pearson Education, Inc. or its affiliates, 221 River Street, Hoboken, NJ 07030. All Rights Reserved. Manufactured in the United States of America. This publication is protected by copyright, and permission should be obtained from the publisher prior to any prohibited reproduction, storage in a retrieval system, or transmission in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise. For information regarding permissions, request forms, and the appropriate contacts within the Pearson Education Global Rights and Permissions department, please visit https://www.pearson.com/global-permission-granting.html.

Acknowledgments of third-party content appear on the appropriate page within the text.

PEARSON, Revel, MyLab, and Pearson+ are exclusive trademarks owned by Pearson Education, Inc. or its affiliates in the U.S. and/or other countries.

Unless otherwise indicated herein, any third-party trademarks, logos, or icons that may appear in this work are the property of their respective owners, and any references to third-party trademarks, logos, icons, or other trade dress are for demonstrative or descriptive purposes only. Such references are not intended to imply any sponsorship, endorsement, authorization, or promotion of Pearson's products by the owners of such marks, or any relationship between the owner and Pearson Education, Inc., or its affiliates, authors, licensees, or distributors.

Library of Congress Control Number: 2026948257

$PrintCode

ISBN 10: 0-13-545645-2
ISBN 13: 978-0-13-545645-3

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Dedication

This text is dedicated to my wife, Pam Dewitz, who provided continual support and encouragement and dealt with undeserved neglect as this new edition was being written.

We continue to dedicate this text to Michael Graves' sister, Susan Jones, who in her 35 years of teaching led well over a thousand second-graders toward the high level of literacy they needed to succeed in the 21st century.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Preface

Welcome to the seventh edition of *Teaching Reading in the 21st Century*. In this edition, we reaffirm the values that set our text apart. We believe motivation underlies everything we do in school. Technology and efficiency can take us only so far in fostering a new generation of students who read avidly for enjoyment, knowledge, and enlightenment. Motivation leads children to read widely and deeply, and with that, their fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension grow. Every chapter of this book focuses on developing students who *will* read and, therefore, *can* read. We believe this is especially vital in the digital age that dominates our lives.

When the sixth edition of this book was published in 2020, we were assessing the impact of the Common Core State Standards on curriculum, instruction, and assessment. These new standards pressed schools and educational publishers to create rigorous reading curricula that built knowledge and required an equal focus on fiction and nonfiction. Educators were urged to raise the rigor of the texts that children read. Instructionally, the Common Core advocated close reading, a style in which short texts were read deeply to uncover meaning and students wrote about the ideas in the texts. Assessments followed suit: students took complex tests at the end of the year and were rigorously screened and monitored throughout the year, making teaching and learning more precise and efficient.

As educators were digesting the impact of the Common Core State Standards, a new movement, the Science of Reading, began to significantly influence reading instruction. The Science of Reading is not a method of teaching reading but a phrase that represents 50 years of reading research that form the foundation, walls, roof, and interior of our textbook. For some, the Science of Reading is about teaching children to recognize words; it is about phonics instruction. For us, the Science of Reading is about phonics as well as the development of fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, and motivation. For us, the Science of Reading is about fitting all this instruction into classrooms when your school district allocates 90 minutes a day for reading instruction and when students have different needs.

While these educational trends shape what and how we teach, the digital world is playing an increasingly prominent role in our classrooms and homes, as our lives move from paper to screens. In the previous edition, we presented new research on teaching students to read, write, revise, and take tests online. The Internet makes new demands on our students. They must know how to search for information, evaluate its truthfulness, and synthesize what they read. Not an easy task for an adult, let alone an elementary or middle school student. In this edition of the book, we consider how artificial intelligence (AI) will affect your life as well as that of your students. We want to help teachers and their students use these new technologies effectively and carefully.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

NEW TO THIS EDITION

This new edition of *Teaching Reading in the 21st Century* is a significant update of the previous edition. We listened to the reviewers, considered how the research was evolving, and anticipated the needs of classroom teachers who are new to the profession. Since our text was already well aligned with the Science of Reading, we wanted to incorporate recent research findings into our discussion and highlight instructional routines that are supported by research. Each of our chapters has been updated to consider new ideas, and a few stand out.

- **Crisis and reform.** We live in an era where politicians, policy experts, and journalists see literacy in crisis. In the first chapter, we carefully review how well children read and declare that literacy is not in crisis. At the same time, we identify some pressing problems, and the balance of the book provides solutions. Some children have trouble with basic word recognition, and many need help with comprehension. The solutions include better phonics instruction, curricula that build knowledge, teaching a select set of strategies well, and comprehensive vocabulary development programs. Educators, parents, and legislators need to consider that literacy problems require changes in the classroom and in how children spend their time outside of school.
- **Explicit instruction and implicit learning.** The Science of Reading has stressed the importance of explicit instruction in word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Yet reading is also a self-teaching process. Through wide reading, students learn phonics patterns, build fluency and vocabulary, and develop the knowledge that enables comprehension. Throughout the book, we emphasize why students should read widely, share techniques for increasing reading volume in your classroom, and provide many lists of children's books to entice your students.
- **Building knowledge and reading comprehension.** Many educators and policy experts argue that building knowledge is the key to reading comprehension. Knowledge enables comprehension, but it is only part of the equation. In our text, we share how to create a curriculum that builds knowledge. Second, we share instructional techniques that help students apply what they know throughout the reading process. Finally, we strike a proper balance among all elements that support comprehension—vocabulary, background knowledge, inferential thinking, comprehension strategies, and discussion.
- **Digital text, the Internet, and AI.** Reading informational text continued to move from the pages of trade and reference books to the Internet. Throughout the book, we have provided information and research on how to help elementary and middle school students learn to use Internet resources effectively and critically. We have provided strategies for finding trustworthy, useful, and readable websites, learning from those sites and critically evaluating what is learned. AI is the newest technology to influence reading instruction. We don't believe AI can directly help children and young adolescents learn to read and write, but it can assist teachers in doing so. Throughout the book, we explore ways AI can be used to design reading lessons and develop instructional materials.
- **Commercial core reading programs.** Since the previous edition of our text, commercially developed core reading programs have become more prominent and, in many states and school districts, they are mandatory. Therefore, we have provided an overview of these programs, and in most chapters, we have provided guidelines for using them effectively. These programs are tools that require your knowledge and judgment to use them well.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

KEY CONTENT UPDATES BY CHAPTER

- **Chapter 1: Reading and Learning to Read.** How well do students in the United States read? Better than in most countries, but not as well as we would like. Because some see the literacy glass as half empty, we begin with a survey of the many efforts to reform reading instruction, including the current focus on the Science of Reading. Like the Science of Reading advocates, we stress explicit instruction in word recognition but acknowledge that reading involves more than pronouncing words. We remain committed to the belief that if teachers understand the reading process, they will provide the best instruction for their students.
- **Chapter 2: Reading Instruction.** Reading is a constructive act, and through explicit instruction and careful guidance, all students can learn to read. Most children need explicit instruction in word recognition, vocabulary, comprehension, and writing. Equally important, every student needs ample opportunities to read and write. In the rewrite to this chapter, we stressed implicit learning, what readers learn about words, language, and the world as they read and write.
- **Chapter 3: Motivation, Engagement, and Emotional Support.** The increasing impact of digital devices on children in the United States makes a focus on motivation vital. The data are clear; our children are reading less. We have added to this chapter ideas on how to create and foster in children a love of reading and learning. We have also added consideration of social and emotional learning, a key component of motivation and of students' lives that is often neglected.
- **Chapter 4: Organizing Instruction So All Will Succeed.** The chapter will help you organize your classroom's space and time. We believe, and the evidence suggests, that many learning problems can be handled in the general education classroom before the students need to go down the hall for extra help. You need space to meet with small groups of children and the time to do so. We added information on interventions for English learners and students with learning problems.
- **Chapter 5: Classroom Assessment.** Since the last edition of our text, publishers have created more assessment tools to measure students' progress. We review these tools, assess their usefulness, and provide guidance on using them in your classroom. We still believe that classroom teachers, through formative assessment can assess their students' needs through their written work and oral responses, We doubt that high-stakes tests have improved teaching and learning, but we believe you need to prepare your students for them. The best preparation is strong reading instruction.
- **Chapter 6: Choosing Texts for Reading Instruction.** Texts matter, and you will need a variety of texts to teach children to read. Students in the primary grades need texts that support decoding, word recognition, and comprehension. Students in the upper grades need sets of texts that build background knowledge, vocabulary, and comprehension. Because we believe engaging texts are vital, we have updated our children's literature recommendations to include new, exciting books while retaining the classic titles that still grab young readers.
- **Chapter 7: Emergent Literacy.** Emergent readers have not changed much over the years, but the curriculum standards for children have risen. We expect

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

more of young learners than we did 20 years ago. In this chapter, we continue to stress that an equal focus on words and language is essential for young children. We have placed more emphasis on vocabulary as a driving force and on how it influences other components of the process.

- **Chapter 8: Word Recognition.** We anticipated the Science of Reading movement, which advocates explicit, systematic instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics. With new research findings, we place phonemic awareness instruction within the process of teaching children to recognize words, rather than as a stand-alone skill that extends beyond the first stages of learning to read. We stress that every student needs a different dose of phonics instruction. We have updated this chapter to include more information on linking word identification and vocabulary.
- **Chapter 9: Fluency and Independent Reading.** Fluency bridges word recognition and reading comprehension. Some students will need explicit instruction to develop their reading fluency, while others will not. All students benefit from reading widely. The volume of reading matters because reading more exposes students to more words. If your school closely follows a core reading program, we provide instructional techniques to improve fluency instruction.
- **Chapter 10: Vocabulary Development.** We continued our focus on a four-pronged approach to developing students' vocabulary and provided new material on selecting words for instruction and activities for teaching word learning strategies. We recognize newer research that suggest it is more efficient for children to learn words from reading than it is for teachers to teach all that children need. Yet it is still important to teach individual words, to help students develop powerful strategies for learning words on their own and to make words intriguing and exciting.
- **Chapter 11: Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text.** In this chapter, we introduce the components of reading comprehension—vocabulary, background knowledge, inferential thinking, and comprehension strategies—and discuss how these components are integrated across various curricular structures. We focus on how teaching narrative, in an era that emphasizes knowledge and informational texts, is vital for developing a love of reading and for understanding the values that make us human.
- **Chapter 12: Comprehending Informational Text.** New to this chapter is research on how to create a curriculum that builds knowledge where each text provides the concepts to comprehend the next text. Additionally, much informational reading has shifted from books and periodicals to the Internet. The knowledge, strategies, and motivation students need to read online for information, an often untrustworthy medium, differ from those required for print. Teachers must equip students to search the Web, critically evaluate websites, learn new information, and integrate information from multiple websites.
- **Chapter 13: Writing and Reading.** Writing improves reading comprehension, and in this chapter, we describe short and long form writing tasks that improve students' comprehension. Writing pushes students to think critically about what they read and to integrate new ideas. In this chapter, we have added some new ideas on the integration of reading and writing. We have also described how teaching writing can improve students' reading comprehension.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

- **Chapter 14: Reading Instruction for English Learners.** The number of English learners in schools is rising, and it is increasingly important for teachers to understand which instructional approaches work best and how to adapt instruction to meet of students whose first language is not English. We have chosen to call the students English learners rather than the newer term "multilingual learners" because "English learners" refers specifically to students learning English as a second language. This is the group the chapter is concerned with.

SPECIAL FEATURES

This text has a number of features designed to make understanding our sometimes-complex ideas easier. We have included different features for the print and the digital versions of the text.

In the print and digital versions:

- We start each chapter with a set of **Learning Objectives** that list our purpose in writing each chapter. Each major section of the chapter addresses one of the learning objectives.
- Within each chapter, we have provided **In the Classroom** examples of teaching students to recognize words, build fluency, learn vocabulary, and construct meaning. These examples are designed to illustrate the interactions between teachers and students.
- *NEW!* We have added a feature called **Teaching Tools**. These tools are word lists, websites, or the prompts you need to get ChatGPT to generate a word list, test questions, or graphic organizers.
- *NEW!* In Chapters 7 through 14, we have added **Instructional Routines**. These procedures for teaching words, building fluency, and comprehension *come directly from research studies*. One or more studies have tested the efficacy of these approaches. In the Assessment chapter, we call these features **Assessment Routines**. Also, research-based, these features provide you concrete guidance for diagnosing where your students are in reading—their progress and their challenges—and monitor their ongoing progress to ensure they are developing the skills and strategies they need to become motivated, strong readers.
- *NEW!* There is a website that supports our text: https://www.teachingreading21stcentury.com In our website you will find additional activities, our thoughts on new instructional approaches, and commentary on emerging literacy issues.
- The **Reading Corner** in each chapter offers an updated list of children's books that can be used for specific curriculum goals. Some lists are focused on a genre, some on topics, and some reflect a range of text complexity.
- Within each chapter, we provide **Reflect and Apply** questions and activities that we hope will help you think through the ideas and issues within each section of the chapter.
- We also provide useful **Appendices** for this book. Which include lesson plans, assessment measures, and other documents for your classroom instruction. You can download these directly from the eTextbook or copy them from the print edition.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

PEARSON ETEXTBOOK

The Pearson eTextbook is a simple-to-use, mobile-optimized, personalized reading experience. It allows you to easily highlight, take notes, and review key vocabulary all in one place—even when offline. Seamlessly integrated videos and other rich media will engage you and give you access to the help you need when you need it. To gain access or to sign in to your Pearson eTextbook, visit https://www.pearson.com/pearson-etext. Also included are:

Video Examples Videos can extend your knowledge and illustrate the use of various assessments and instructional strategies. Throughout each chapter, you will find videos of classroom instruction, opinions of other experts and several of the author, Peter Dewitz, who is shown teaching comprehension strategies to third- and fifth-grade students.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.5

Instruction in phonemic awareness needs to be explicit, with the teacher directly explaining and modeling a language concept. How does the teacher make phonemic awareness explicit?

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.5

Concentrate on the teachers in this video and notice how pairing students supports their language development. How might students who work in pairs encourage and support their oral language skills?

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 11.3

In this video, the author (Peter) introduces the process of making inferences to a group of fifth-graders. What do students already understand about inferential thinking, and what is new to them?

SUPPORT FOR INSTRUCTORS

LMS-Compatible Assessment Bank

With this new edition, all assessment types—quizzes, application exercises, and chapter tests—are included in LMS-compatible banks for the following learning management systems: Blackboard, Canvas, D2L, and Moodle. These packaged files allow maximum flexibility to instructors when it comes to importing, assigning, and grading. Assessment types include:

Chapter Quizzes An understanding of the chapter learning objectives are measured with *Learning Objective Quizzes* available for instructors to assign through their Learning Management System. Learning objectives serve as an organizational framework for each chapter and identify what you will learn and be able to accomplish when teaching. Higher-order, multiple-choice questions in each quiz will evaluate your understanding of chapter content, direct the expectations for your

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

learning, and inform the applications of your new knowledge. When used in the LMS environment, these multiple-choice questions are automatically graded and include feedback on the correct answer and on each distractor to help guide your learning.

Application Exercises Each chapter provides opportunities to apply what you have learned through *Application Exercises*. These exercises are usually in short-answer format and are often based on Pearson Textbook Video Examples that depict student activity and responses and include student work and student assessment samples. These exercises give you an opportunity to analyze and propose what to do so that you are better prepared when you step into your own classrooms. When the exercises are used in the LMS environment, a model response written by experts is provided after you submit the exercise. This feedback helps monitor your learning and can assist your instructor in grading.

Test Bank In addition to other LMS assessment options, a chapter-by-chapter test bank includes test items in the following formats: true/false, multiple choice, and short answer/essay.

Instructor's Manual

The Instructor's Manual is provided as a Word document and includes resources to assist professors in planning their course.

PowerPoint® Slides

PowerPoint® slides are provided for each chapter and highlight key concepts and summarize the content of the text to make it more meaningful for students. Oftentimes, these slides also include questions and problems designed to stimulate discussion and to encourage students to elaborate and deepen their understanding of chapter topics.

Note: All instructor resources—LMS-compatible assessment bank, instructor's manual, and PowerPoint slides—are available for download at www.pearsonhighered.com. Use one of the following methods:

- From the main page, use the search function to look up the lead author. Select the desired search result, then access the "Resources" tab to view and download all available resources.
- From the main page, use the search function to look up the ISBN (provided above) of the specific instructor resource you would like to download. When the product page loads, access the "Downloadable Resources" tab.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Acknowledgments

Clearly, *Teaching Reading in the 21st Century* continues to change and evolve. With each new edition, we have built on the combined expertise of many colleagues throughout the country who are dedicated to literacy education. To you, we extend a special thank you for your valuable feedback and assistance.

- Our editors, Brooke Nethers and Linda Bishop, who assisted us throughout the revision process; our content producer, Shurti Joshi, and production manager, Usharani Arumugam.
- The many people who granted us permission to cite their work and reproduce their materials in this text.
- The reviewers: Carol L. Butterfield, Central Washington University; Deborah A. Farrer, California University of Pennsylvania; Marie A. Fero, Eastern Illinois University; Kitty Y. Hazler, Morehead State University; Susan Hendricks, University of Nevada, Las Vegas; Kimberlee Sharp, Morehead State University; Maureen Siera, St. Martin's University; Linda Skroback-Heisler, University of Nevada, Las Vegas; and Christina D. Walton, Morehead State University.
- The reviewers of previous editions, who have been so helpful in shaping this text: Pamela Myette, Bridgewater State University; Jenna Cline, Iowa State University; Laura Keisler, CSU Fullerton; and Miranda Fitzgerald, University of North Carolina at Charlotte.
- The teachers, researchers, and students whose names you will see mentioned on nearly every page of this text, especially Michael Crusco, Sarah Collinge, Bethany Robinson, Jonni Wolskee, Babs Mowry, Alison Montano, Cheri Cooke, Lauren Liang, and Cheryl Peterson, who wrote outstanding lesson plans; Presley Williams and Cole Williams who lent us their thoughtful school work; Raymond Philippot, who assisted us with many of the other chapters; as well as Mark Aulls, Ann Beecher, Barbara Brunetti, Jerry Brunetti, David Carberry, Michael Crusco, Jim Hoffman, Susan Jones, Stephen Koziol, Anita Meinbach, Judy Peacock, Lynn Richards, Randall Ryder, Wayne Slater, Margo Sorenson, Kelly Spies, and Diann Stone. All lent their time and very special talents to this project.
- Our colleagues at the University of Minnesota and Stanford University, with special thanks to Lee Galda, Barbara Taylor, and Susan Watts, whose scholarship and dedication to the profession are without equal.
- Our students and teachers from kindergarten through graduate school, who over the years have inspired our thinking and contributed significantly to the ideas you will read about in this text.
- Our friends and family, especially my wife Pamela Dewitz, who listened, encouraged, and sustained me throughout this lengthy revision, and especially our accomplished, supportive children, Julie, Erin (Michael and Bonnie Graves), Rachel, David, and Erica, Presley and Cole (Peter and Pamela Dewitz).

Mike and I acknowledge our years of collaboration on this book and several other research papers. This book is better because of each other and because of Bonnie's vast knowledge of children's literature.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

About the Authors

In writing and revising this book, each of us brought to the task their experiences and expertise, and we would like to briefly introduce ourselves.

Peter Dewitz

is an educational consultant and researcher who spends most of his time working with teachers and children in public schools. Peter has taught at the University of Toledo, the University of Virginia, and Mary Baldwin University and worked as a visiting researcher at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. He taught in the upper elementary grades and his major research interests are educational materials—specifically the efficacy of core reading and supplemental programs, the development and instruction of reading comprehension, and the uses and abuses of assessments in our schools.

Michael F. Graves

is a professor emeritus of literacy education at the University of Minnesota and a member of the Reading Hall of Fame. Mike taught in the upper grades, and his research and writing focus on vocabulary learning and instruction and comprehension instruction. His current major interest continues to be in vocabulary instruction along with increasing attention to motivation and instruction for English learners.

Bonnie B. Graves

is a full-time education writer and the author of 15 books for children. Bonnie taught in third and fourth grades, and her major interest is making literature enticing and accessible to beginning- and middle-grade learners. In addition to writing, Bonnie currently spends time working with children, teachers, and other educators on children's writing.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Brief Contents

Preface iv
Acknowledgments xi
About the Authors xii

Chapter 1 Reading and Learning to Read 1
Chapter 2 Reading Instruction 39
Chapter 3 Motivation, Engagement, and Emotional Support 72
Chapter 4 Organizing Instruction So All Will Succeed 105
Chapter 5 Classroom Assessment 134
Chapter 6 Choosing Texts for Reading Instruction 177
Chapter 7 Emergent Literacy 217
Chapter 8 Word Recognition 262
Chapter 9 Fluency and Independent Reading 308
Chapter 10 Vocabulary Development 343
Chapter 11 Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text 377
Chapter 12 Comprehending Informational Text 422
Chapter 13 Writing and Reading 469
Chapter 14 Reading Instruction for English Learners 514

Appendix 549
Appendix A: Assessment Tools 551
Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials 568
Appendix C: Test-Taking Lessons 612

References 624
Name Index 650
Subject Index 655

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Contents

Preface iv
Acknowledgments xi
About the Authors xii

1 Reading and Learning to Read 1
Sixty Years of Reform in Reading Instruction 2
A Brief History of Reading Reform 2
The Current Era of Reform and the Science of Reading 3
Reflect and Apply 5
The Reading Proficiency and Habits of Our Students 5
Reading Proficiency 5
Reading Behavior 10
Summary 11
Literacy for Today's and Tomorrow's World 12
Reflect and Apply 13
The Reading Process 13
Models of Reading 14
The Simple View of Reading 14
The Cognitive-Constructivist View of Reading 16
Components of the Reading Process 17
Reading and Understanding Words 18
Word Recognition 18
Automaticity 18
Vocabulary Knowledge 19
The Process of Comprehension: The Construction-Integration Process 19
Construction-Integration 19
Metacognition 21
Strategies 21
Motivation 23
Other Theories of Comprehension 24
Sociocultural Theory 25
Reflect and Apply 28
A Literacy Curriculum for Today's and Tomorrow's World 31
The Components of Effective Reading Instruction 32
Technology and Artificial Intelligence 34
Making Instructional Decisions 35
Reflect and Apply 37
Concluding Remarks 37
Extending Learning 38
Children's Literature 38

2 Reading Instruction 39
Reflect and Apply 40
A Brief History of Reading Instruction in the United States 41
The Colonial Period and the 19th Century 41
Basal Readers from the Beginning to the Middle of the 20th Century 43
The Period of Continual Reform in Reading Education: From 1950s to the Present 44
1950–1960: The Call for Phonics Instruction 44
1970–1980: Whole-Language and Literature-Based Approaches 45
1980–1990: A New Focus on Reading Comprehension 46
2000s: Massive Federal Intervention in Reading 47
2010: The Common Core State Standards Provide a New Influence on Reading Instruction 48
2018: The Great Debate Is Revived and the Science of Reading 49
Reflect and Apply 50
Principles and Practices of Effective Reading Instruction 50
Highly Effective Schools and Teachers 51
Traditional Perspectives on Instruction 52

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Reflect and Apply 56
A Cognitive–Constructivist Perspective on Instruction 57
The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model 57
Zone of Proximal Development 61
Teaching for Transfer 62
Teaching for Understanding: Knowledge and Strategies 62
Reflect and Apply 64
Implicit Learning and Instruction 64
Reflect and Apply 66
Major Approaches to Reading Instruction 66
Whole-Class Instruction 68
Small-Group Instruction 68
Independent Reading and Independent Work 68
Reflect and Apply 69
Concluding Remarks 69
Extending Learning 70
Children's Literature 71

3 Motivation, Engagement, and Emotional Support 72
Making Motivation a Top Priority 73
Creating a Literate Environment 75
Modeling 75
A Print-Rich Classroom 76
Organizing Physical Space 79
Choice 80
Classroom Climate 80
Grouping Students for Instruction 82
Reflect and Apply 84
Reading and Learning in the Classroom—Intrinsic Motivation 84
Interest 84
Making Connections to Students' Cultures and Lives Outside of School 85
Promoting Academic Values and Goals 86
Efficacy and Positive Attributions 87
The Importance of Appropriate Challenges 88
Using Cooperative Activities to Ensure Active Participation 90
Motivating Students Extrinsically 90
Praise and Points 91
Grades 91
Technology 91
Factors That Undermine Motivation 92
Reflect and Apply 92
Reflect and Apply 94
Social and Emotional Learning 94
Reflect and Apply 99
Assessing Students' Motivation 100
Concluding Remarks 101
Extending Learning 103
Children's Literature 103

4 Organizing Instruction So All Will Succeed 105
Individual Differences in Learning to Read 106
A Variety of Cultural and Language Experiences 106
Dyslexia and Learning Disabilities 107
Garden-Variety Reading Problems 108
Reflect and Apply 109
Creating a Strong Core Program 109
The Physical Arrangement of the Classroom 110
Managing Time 111
Whole-Class Instruction 111
Small-Group Instruction 112
Independent Work 112
Reflect and Apply 114
Differentiating Instruction 114
Differentiating Time 116
Differentiating Tasks 116
Differentiating Teaching 119
Differentiating Texts 119
Differentiating Instruction in Core Reading Programs 122
Differentiating Instruction for English Learners 122
Classroom Example of Differentiated Instruction 122
Reflect and Apply 125
Intervention for Readers Who Struggle 126
Response to Intervention 126
Characteristics of Successful Interventions for Readers Who Struggle 127
Technology and Reading Intervention 131
Reflect and Apply 132
Concluding Remarks 132
Extending Learning 133
Children's Literature 133

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

5 Classroom Assessment 134
Our Perspective on Assessment 135
The Current History of Assessment Practices 136
High-Stakes Testing 137
Response to Intervention and Progress Monitoring 137
Reflect and Apply 138
Types of Assessments and Their Uses 139
Formative and Summative Assessments 140
A Glossary of Commercial Assessments 141
Universal Screening Tests 141
Progress Monitoring—Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) 143
Benchmark or Interim Assessments 144
Diagnostic Tests 145
Assessments for Learning 146
Interpreting Reading Scores 147
Reflect and Apply 149
An Assessment System in Your Classroom 149
An Assessment System in a First-Grade Classroom 149
Screening and Grouping 150
Monitoring Progress 151
Monitor Progress 155
Revaluating and Regrouping 156
An Assessment System in a Fourth-Grade Classroom 156
Screening and Grouping 157
Monitoring Progress 160
Revaluating and Regrouping 162
Analyzing and Summarizing Your Data 163
From Reporting to Grading 166
Reflect and Apply 167
Assessing Individuals—When More Precise Information Is Needed 167
Using an Informal Reading Inventory: Administering and Scoring 168
Interpreting Oral Reading Errors 168
Understanding Students' Comprehension Difficulties from an Informal Reading Inventory 169
Reflect and Apply 171
What You Need To Know About High-Stakes Testing 171
Preparing Students for Standardized Tests 173
Reflect and Apply 175
Concluding Remarks 175
Extending Learning 176
Assessments Discussed in the Chapter 176

6 Choosing Texts for Reading Instruction 177
Why Text Matters 178
Reflect and Apply 180
Measuring Text Difficulty 180
Readability Formulas 181
Book Leveling 185
Qualitative Factors of Text 186
Goals of Instruction 186
Prior Knowledge 186
Vocabulary 187
Coherence and Unity 187
Figurative Language and Voice 188
Sentence Structure 188
Passage Length 189
Text and Activity Relationships 190
Reflect and Apply 191
Texts for Beginning Reading Instruction 192
A Historical Look at Texts for Beginning Reading Instruction 192
What Texts Should We Use for Beginning Reading Instruction? 194
Developing Comprehension with Beginning Readers 196
Reflect and Apply 198
Texts for Developing Comprehension 198
The Text as a Tool 199
The Text as a Goal 199
Selecting Literary Texts 200
Selecting Nonfiction Texts 201
Clear Structure 201
Coherent Writing 204
Unity 204
Voice 205
Text and Graphic Relationships 205
Audience Appropriateness 206
Texts in Core Reading Programs 208
Reflect and Apply 209
Digital Reading, The Internet, and Generative AI 209
Introducing Children to Digital Text 210
Reading and Learning on the Internet 210
Locating Information and Judging Usefulness 211

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Judging Readability 211
Trustworthiness 212
The New Challenge of Generative Artificial Intelligence 213
Reflect and Apply 214
Concluding Remarks 214
Extending Learning 215
Children's Literature 215

7 Emergent Literacy 217
How Children Make Discoveries About Print 219
Some Early Understandings About Print 219
Connecting Letters and Phonemes: The Alphabetic Principle 221
Emergent Literacy and Curriculum Expectations 222
Reflect and Apply 224
Three Critical Insights About Language and Print 224
The Alphabetic Principle 225
Phonemic Awareness 225
Alphabet Recognition 229
Reflect and Apply 229
Emerging Knowledge About Comprehension 230
Oral Language Development 230
Building Background Knowledge 231
Genre and Text Structure Knowledge 232
Interactive Read-Alouds 232
Interactive Writing 233
Learning the Comprehension Process 233
Summary 235
Reflect and Apply 235
Whole- and Small-Group Reading Instruction 235
Creating a Literate Environment 235
Whole-Class Instruction 236
The Morning Meeting 236
Reading Aloud Interactively 237
Interactive Writing 240
The Language-Experience Approach 241
Small-Group Instruction 241
Phonological Awareness to Phonemic Awareness 242
Letter Names: The Alphabet 244
Letter-Sound Associations 245
Word Recognition 247
Spelling 248
Independent Activities 248
Free "Reading" 248
Journals 249
Making Books 250
Mailboxes 250
Play Centers 250
Computers 250
Recordings 251
Emergent Reading in Core Reading Programs 251
Reflect and Apply 252
A Kindergarten Scenario 253
Reflect and Apply 257
Assessing Emergent Literacy Skills 257
Standardized Assessments 257
Informal Assessment Procedures 258
Letter Names 258
Letter Sound 258
Phonemic Awareness 258
Concluding Remarks 260
Extending Learning 261
Children's Literature 261

8 Word Recognition 262
Challenges of Recognizing Printed Words 263
Why Listening Is Easier Than Reading 263
Shared Background Knowledge 263
Immediate Feedback 264
Visual Cues from the Speaker 264
More Common Words 264
Contextualized Meaning 264
No Translation Needed 264
Skilled Readers Automatically Recognize Words 264
The Makeup of Spoken and Written English 266
Phonemes: Vowels and Consonants 266
Syllables, Onsets, and Rimes 266
Word Families and Phonograms 267
Morphemes 267
Affixes: Prefixes and Suffixes 267
The Alphabetic Principle 269
The Structure of Printed Words: The Good News 269
Reflect and Apply 270
General Principles of Learning and Teaching Words 270
Developmental Phases in Learning to Read Words 270

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Pre-Alphabetic Phase 270
Partial Alphabetic Phase 271
Full Alphabetic Phase 271
Consolidated Alphabetic Phase 271
Processes Involved in Reading Words 271
Principles and Organization of Word Recognition Instruction 272
Getting Started with Word Recognition Instruction 273
The Time and Place for Word Recognition Instruction 274
The Amount of Time for Word Recognition 274
Differentiating Word Recognition Instruction 274
Teaching Word Recognition with a Published Reading Program 274
A Weekly Plan for Word Recognition 275
Reflect and Apply 276
Teaching High-Frequency Words 277
Building a Sight Vocabularies 277
Word Banks 277
High-Frequency Words 278
Word Walls 280
Reflect and Apply 280
Teaching Phonics 281
Teaching Letter-Sound Correspondences: Decoding 281
The Scope and Sequence of Phonics Instruction 283
Teaching Consonants 284
Teaching Vowels 286
Teaching Blending 290
Activities for Practicing Decoding 291
Reading Words 291
Word Building Activities 291
Sorting Words 293
Writing Sorts 293
Technology That Assists Word Recognition 294
The Importance of Contextual Reading: Read, Read, Read! 295
Reflect and Apply 295
Teaching Multisyllable Words 295
Teaching Rimes 295
Decoding Multisyllabic Words 298
Teaching Meaning Units in Words: Prefixes and Suffixes 300
Providing Feedback and Coaching Word Recognition 300
Reflect and Apply 302
About Wide Reading 303
Reflect and Apply 304
Assessing Word Identification 305
Sight Words 305
Phonemic Awareness 305
Word Identification—Phonics 306
Concluding Remarks 306
Extending Learning 306
Children's Literature 307

9 Fluency and Independent Reading 308
The Importance of Fluency 309
Helping All Students Become Fluent Readers 311
Reflect and Apply 312
The Importance of Reading Volume 312
The Head Winds to Reading Volume 312
Reading Within the Curriculum 313
Reading Outside the Curriculum: Independent Reading 314
Providing Time to Read 315
Providing a Rich Array of Reading Material and a Place to Read 316
Encouraging Out-of-School and Summer Reading 320
Accountability for Independent Reading 321
Reflect and Apply 323
Individual Approaches to Developing Fluency 323
The Original Method of Repeated Reading 323
Simultaneous Repeated Reading and Neurological Impress 326
Audio-Assisted Repeated Reading 327
Reflect and Apply 329
Small-Group and Whole-Class Approaches to Fluency Development 329
Small-Group Fluency Instruction 329
Text for Fluency Instruction 329
Small-Group Fluency Lesson Plans 329
Whole-Class Fluency Instruction 330
Developing Reading Prosody 332
Choral Reading 332
Readers Theater 333
Fluency Development in Core Reading Programs 334
Developing Fluency with Technology 334

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Read Naturally 335
E-Books and E-Book Apps for Building Fluency 335
Reflect and Apply 336
Assessing Readers' Fluency 337
Reflect and Apply 341
Concluding Remarks 341
Extending Learning 341
Children's Literature 342

10 Vocabulary Development 343
The Vocabulary Learning Task 344
Frequent, Extensive, and Varied Language Experiences 345
Reflect and Apply 347
Teaching Individual Words 347
Word-Learning Tasks 347
Learning a Basic Vocabulary 347
Learning to Read Known Words 347
Learning New Words That Represent Known Concepts 348
Learning New Words That Represent New Concepts 348
Identifying Vocabulary to Teach 348
Methods of Teaching Individual Words 349
Reflect and Apply 355
Teaching Word-Learning Strategies 355
Using Context Clues 355
Using Morphology (Word Parts) 358
Using the Dictionary 361
Using Multiple Strategies 362
Reflect and Apply 363
Fostering Word Consciousness 363
Modeling and Encouraging Adept Diction 364
Promoting Word Play 367
Homophones and Homographs 367
Idioms, Clichés, and Puns 368
Providing Intensive and Expressive Instruction 369
Reflect and Apply 370
Assessing Students' Vocabulary Knowledge and Skills 370
Standardized Tests 370
The Gates-MacGinitie Vocabulary Test 370
Newly Developed Reading Assessments 371
Teacher-Made Tests 371
Multiple-Choice Tests 371
Matching Tests 372
Questioning and Talking with Students 373
Applying the Four-Part Vocabulary Program 373
How to Begin Using the Four-Part Program 373
How to Implement the Program When You Are Using a Core Reading Program 374
Differentiating Instruction for English Learners 375
Concluding Remarks 375
Extending Learning 376
Children's Literature 376

11 Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text 377
A Model Of Reading Comprehension Instruction 378
Knowledge Development 379
Domain and Conceptual Knowledge 380
Cultural or Experiential Knowledge 381
Knowledge of Genre and Text Structure 381
Comprehension and Metacognitive Strategies 381
Strategies Are Conscious Efforts 382
Strategies Are Flexible 382
Strategies Help Us Reflect and Monitor 382
Strategies Lead to Higher-Level Thinking 383
Key Comprehension Strategies 383
Setting a Purpose for Reading 384
Asking and Answering Questions 385
Determining What Is Important 385
Summarizing 385
Dealing with Graphic Information 386
Locating Information 386
Critically Evaluating Information 386
Making Inferences 386
Reflect and Apply 389
Planning and Selecting a Reading Curriculum 389
The Reader, the Text, and the Purpose 389
Four Comprehension Curricula 390
Traditional Core Reading Programs 391
Boutique Core Reading Programs 391
Guided Reading 392
A Thematic Curriculum 392

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Reflect and Apply 395
Teaching the Essentials of Narrative Comprehension 396
Building Conceptual Knowledge 396
Teaching Text Structure 398
Story Grammar and Story Maps 398
Developing Inferential Comprehension 400
Teaching Comprehension Strategies 405
Reflect and Apply 407
Frameworks for Developing Students' Comprehension 407
Scaffolded Reading Experience 407
Prereading Activities 408
During-Reading Activities 408
Post-reading Activities 410
Guided Reading 412
Close Reading 413
Collect-Interpret-Apply Approach (C.I.A.) 414
Reflect and Apply 415
Discussion 415
Instructional Conversations 416
Literature Circles 416
Independent Reading 418
Reflect and Apply 419
Concluding Remarks 420
Extending Learning 420
Children's Literature 420

12 Comprehending Informational Text 422
The Challenges of Informational Text 423
Informational Texts' Place in the Curriculum 424
Why Is Informational Text Difficult to Read 424
Reflect and Apply 424
Building Knowledge 425
Building Domain and Topic Knowledge 425
Curricula That Build Knowledge 425
Instructional Routines That Build Knowledge 429
Building Text Structure Knowledge 432
Text Features 433
Text Organizational Patterns 434
Reflect and Apply 437
Comprehension Strategies 438
Setting a Purpose for Reading 439
Determining What Is Important 440
Teaching Students to Summarize 444
Question Asking and Answering 446
Reflect and Apply 449
Multiple Strategy Instruction 449
Reciprocal Teaching 449
Collaborative Strategic Reading 453
Situating Strategy Instruction Within the Classroom 454
Comprehension in Core Reading Programs 454
Reflect and Apply 456
Reading with Digital Text 456
How the Digital Text Might Affect Reading 456
Comprehension on the Internet 457
Purpose Setting 457
Navigation 457
Integration 458
Evaluation 458
Prior Knowledge 459
Strategies for Use with Multiple Sources 460
Teaching Comprehension with the Internet 460
Learning from One Website 460
Learning from Multiple Websites 462
Self-Regulated Reading 464
Reflect and Apply 465
Assessing Reading Comprehension 465
The Reader 466
The Text 466
The Task 466
Recommendations 466
Concluding Remarks 467
Extending Learning 467
Children's Literature 468

13 Writing and Reading 469
The Reading-Writing Connection 470
Explaining the Reading and Writing Connection 471
Reflect and Apply 471
A Positive Reading-Writing Environment 472
The Intellectual Environment 472
The Physical Environment 472
The Writing Workshop 473

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Reflect and Apply 476
Writing to Learn and Understand 476
Note-Taking 477
Brainstorming and Quick Writing 478
Semantic Mapping and the Venn Diagram 479
Writing Summaries 481
Journals 481
Dialogue Journals 482
Reading Logs 483
Learning Logs 484
Double-Entry Journals 485
Reflect and Apply 487
Teaching the Writing Process 487
A Process Approach to Writing 487
A Genre Approach to Writing 490
Teaching Different Genres 493
Fiction 493
Biographies and Autobiographies 494
Reports 495
Letters 498
Email and Texting 500
Poetry 500
Integrating Genres of Writing 502
Technology and Teaching Writing 503
Reflect and Apply 504
Revising, Responding, and Publishing Writing 504
Responding to Writing 505
Publishing Writing 506
Reflect and Apply 507
Assessing Writing 507
Assessing Writing to Learn 507
Assessing Extended Writing 509
Concluding Remarks 511
Extending Learning 511
Children's Literature 512

14 Reading Instruction for English Learners 514
Learning to Read English as a Second Language in the United States 515
Linguistic Diversity in U.S. Schools 515
English Learners in Today's Schools 516
English Learners' Reading Proficiency 516
The Critical Importance of Mastering English in Today's World 516
Reflect and Apply 517
What the Research Says About Teaching English Learners 517
Compelling Instructional Practices Are Likely to Be Effective for English Learners 518
English Learners Require Additional Instructional Support 519
The Home Language Can Be Used to Promote Academic Development 519
Teaching Economically Disadvantaged Students 520
Demand Critical Thinking 520
Teaching Foundational Skills 521
Empower Students to Challenge Racist Views of Their Competence and Worthiness 521
Build on Students' Prior Knowledge 522
Create a Sense of Family and Caring 522
Monitor and Assess Students' Needs 523
Honor and Respect Children's Home Cultures 524
Reflect and Apply 524
General Instructional Techniques for Working with English Learners 524
Take Advantage of the 20 Percent Rule 524
Provide Intensive Small-Group Instruction 526
Screen for Reading Problems and Monitor Students' Progress 526
Give English Learners and Yourself Plenty of Time 526
Use the Rosetta Stone Technique 528
Involve Parents, Siblings, and Other Speakers of the Children's Languages 528
Use Peer-Assisted Learning 530
Give Students the Freedom to Choose the Language in Which to Respond 531
Developing Word Recognition and Comprehension 535
Beginning Reading Instruction with English Learners 536
Developing Comprehension 539
Vocabulary Instruction 539
Building Background Knowledge 539
Reading Fiction 539
Reading Informational Text 540
Reflect and Apply 544

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Assessments for English Learners 544
Types of Modifications Useful in Assessment 544
Some Recommendations for Using Modifications and Supports 545
Examples of Modifications and Supports 545
Concluding Remarks 547
Extending Learning 547
Children's Literature 547

Appendix 549
Appendix A: Assessment Tools 551
Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials 568
Appendix C: Test-Taking Lessons 612

References 624
Name Index 650
Subject Index 655

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Features

In the Classroom

1.1 Using Background Knowledge 16
1.2 How Students Construct Meaning 25
2.1 A Portrait of Exemplary Fourth-Grade Instruction 53
2.2 Actively Engaging Students in Reading and Responding to a Text 55
2.3 Scaffolding Small-Group Instruction for English Learners 60
2.4 Implicit Learning: Mrs. Jackson's Third Grade Builds Word Knowledge 65
3.1 Poetry Browsing to Create Interest 81
3.2 Heterogeneous Small Groups Learn About Genre 83
3.3 Providing Both Challenges and Supports 88
3.4 Getting to Know Students and Letting Them Know You Care 97
3.5 Assessing Students' Reading Attitudes and Interests 100
4.1 Managing Small-Group and Independent Work 113
4.2 Differentiating Word Study Tasks 117
4.3 Differentiating Comprehension Instruction 118
4.4 Planning for Differentiated Small-Group Instruction 123
4.5 A Differentiated Historical Fiction Unit 124
4.6 Dyad Reading as a Class Intervention 130
5.1 Exploring Comprehension Responses 169
7.1 Kindergartners and the P Words 227
7.2 Using Wordless Picture Books in a Kindergarten Classroom 230
7.3 Reading and Writing Rhymes 239
8.1 A Weekly Lesson Plan (30 minutes/day) 276
8.2 Reviewing Consonants: Ms. Campbell's Class 285
8.3 Decoding Multisyllable Words 298
8.4 Decoding Multisyllable Words 302
9.1 Promoting Independent Reading 315
10.1 Using Artificial Intelligence in Working with Semantic Maps 354
10.2 Introducing Context Clues Using Lite Instruction 356
10.3 Robust Strategies Instruction: Using the Dictionary 361
10.4 Constructing and Examining Semantic Gradients in Word Meanings 364
10.5 Word of the Day Activities 365
11.1 Fostering Metacognition 382
11.2 Students' Post-reading Dramatizations 412
11.3 Instructional Routines: Establishing Literature Circles in a Fourth-Grade Classroom 417
11.4 A Glimpse into a Classroom That Combines Instructional Frameworks 418
12.1 Reciprocal Teaching in Action 451
13.1 Guidelines for Journal Writing 486
13.2 Introducing Letter Writing 499
13.3 Writing Tanka Poems 502
14.1 Traditional and Constructivist Instructional Principles 518
14.2 Supporting English Learners 519
14.3 Using the Shared Reading Experience in a Multilingual Fourth-Grade Classroom 521
14.4 Summarizing Part of a Selection 527
14.5 Phonics Instruction for English Learners and the Rest of the Class 537

Instructional Routine

5.1 Assessing Oral Reading Proficiency 152
5.2 Formative Assessment: Measuring Progress 161

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

6.1 Building Lasting Word Recognition 195
6.2 Reading Aloud to Develop Language, Vocabulary, and Comprehension 197
7.1 Using Letter Puppets to Help Children Understand the Connection Between Phonemes and Letters 220
7.2 Teaching Letter Names and Letter Sounds 246
8.1 Teaching High-Frequency Words 279
8.2 Teaching Single-Letter Consonants and Consonant Digraphs 284
8.3 Teaching Short Vowels 287
8.4 Teaching Vowel Patterns 288
8.5 Teaching Blending 290
8.6 Word Building Activities 292
8.7 Decoding by Analogy 296
8.8 Teaching Affixes 300
9.1 The Original Method of Repeated Reading 324
9.2 Partner or Dyad Reading 327
9.3 Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction (FORI) 331
9.4 A Weekly Schedule for a Readers Theater 333
10.1 The Context-Dictionary-Discussion Procedure 350
10.2 The Context-Relationship Procedure 351
10.3 Introducing New Words Representing New Concepts: The Frayer Method 352
10.4 Semantic Mapping 353
10.5 Teaching Context Clues: Robust Strategy Instruction 357
10.6 Teaching Prefixes 360
11.1 An Introduction to Making Inferences 388
11.2 Prereading Activity: Relating the Reading to Students' Lives 397
11.3 Teaching the Strategy of Self-Questioning 406
11.4 Questioning the Author: QtA 410
12.1 Know (K), Want to Learn (W), Learned (L) 431
12.2 Teaching Text Features 433
12.3 Teaching About Organizational Structure—Compare and Contrast 435
12.4 Determine What Is Important 440
12.5 Determining Importance with Longer Passages 443
12.6 Summarizing What We Read 445
12.7 Question Answer Relationships 448
12.8 Reciprocal Teaching 450
12.9 Teaching Students to Learn from One Website 461
13.1 Note-Taking 477
13.2 Introducing the Reading Log to Elementary Students 483
14.1 Teaching Students to Infer Character Traits with the SIOP Model 532

Teaching Tool

1.1 How to Create a Motivating Classroom 23
2.1 Cognitive Modeling 59
3.1 Creating a Book Review File 77
5.1 Brief Surveys of Short and Long Vowel Patterns 152
5.2 Noting Students' Reading Progress 156
5.3 Assessing Oral Reading Fluency 157
5.4 Checklist for Noting Students' Comprehension of Narratives 159
6.1 Calculating Text Readability 183
6.2 Using AI to Create Text Sets 207
7.1 Phonological Awareness 225
8.1 Common Letter-Sound Correspondences 282
8.2 Essential Materials for Teaching Phonics 284
8.3 Creating a Word List for Practicing Decoding 294
9.1 Guidelines for Helping Students Select Reading Material 318
9.2 Audio-Assisted Repeated Reading 328
9.3 Procedures for Measuring Rate and Accuracy 338
11.1 Sample Post-Reading Questions for Various Types of Thinking 411
13.1 Guidelines for Creating a Positive Writing Environment 473
14.1 AERA's Recommendations 535

The Reading Corner

1.1 High-Interest, Engaging Books That Motivate Reading 29
2.1 Informational Books That Give Students Opportunities to Make Critical Responses 63
3.1 Books About Food and Families in Many Cultures 79

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

3.2 Books That Foster Social and Emotional Learning 98
4.1 Books for Differentiated Thematic Units 121
5.1 Nonfiction Books in Series for Students in Lower Grades 165
6.1 Fiction and Nonfiction 190
7.1 Big Books 240
8.1 Easy-to-Read Books 303
9.1 Books That Hook Young Readers and Help Build Fluency 319
10.1 Books About Words 366
11.1 Narrative Texts, from Simple to Complex Plots and Character Development 394
12.1 Outstanding Science and Social Studies Books 427
13.1 Informational Books, a Sampling 496
14.1 Books Available in Bilingual Formats 534

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

This page intentionally left blank

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedd y/

CHAPTER 1

READING AND LEARNING TO READ

Classroom Vignette

It was the first day of summer vacation, and 10-year-old Carmella couldn't wait to meet her best friend Amber at the community pool. Just as she was deciding which bathing suit to wear, she heard the patter of rain on the roof and looked out the window. "Daaang," she muttered. "No pool today." She flopped back onto her bed and reached for Kate DiCamillo's *Because of Winn-Dixie*. Within minutes, she was deep into India Opal Buloni's new life in Florida, temporarily forgetting about the pool.

When Carmella's friend Amber woke up and saw that rain had spoiled their plans for the community pool, she never thought of picking up a book. Unlike Carmella, she had not mastered the complex process of reading. Reading wasn't much fun for her, and she didn't do it often. Amber will probably spend most of the rainy day with her iPad, watching movies and playing video games.

For some children, such as Carmella, mastering the complex process of reading comes easily, and by fourth grade, they are quite accomplished readers. For others, like Amber, this is not the case. As Carmella and Amber progress in school, they will face increasingly challenging reading tasks and will need help meeting those challenges. Amber—and other students who struggle with reading—will, of course, need more assistance than Carmella and other accomplished readers, but all your students will need the very best instruction and encouragement you can provide if they are to become the sort of readers the 21st century demands.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- LO 1.1 Explain what policies and programs have been employed to reform the teaching of reading and consider how these reforms affect the current reading ability of students in the United States.
- LO 1.2 Describe how well students in the United States read and identify segments of our student population who struggle to achieve 21st Century literacy skills.
- LO 1.3 Compare and contrast various models of the reading process and discuss how understanding how children read can influence instructional decisions in the classroom.
- LO 1.4 Describe the essential components of a reading curriculum and the knowledge teachers need to teach this curriculum well.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.1

This video welcomes you to our book and gives you a brief overview of the content. Before you start reading, ask what the major problems are in teaching children to read.

www.youtu.be/IM_WQhzhOPs

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

SIXTY YEARS OF REFORM IN READING INSTRUCTION

Americans hold high educational hopes for their children. We want all of our students to succeed and become productive citizens. This was not always the case. In the early years of our nation, literacy was a skill enjoyed mainly by wealthy men, a few women, and almost no one from the lower classes (Monaghan & Barry, 1999). Communities had not yet established a system of schools, and most children attended only a few years. Just as we expanded voting rights to include men of all social classes, women, and ethnic groups, we have now extended our literacy goals to all (Lepore, 2018). We want every child to read and write well, and as our expectations have increased, so has our awareness of the difficulty of meeting these goals. Too often, we have labeled these difficulties a crisis.

We believe that "crisis" is the wrong word to describe the problems our students, teachers, administrators, and parents face. Crisis, according to several dictionaries is a period of extreme instability or danger which could result in a decisive change. What we have is not a crisis, but problems that require thoughtful and comprehensive solutions. Here is a brief history of past efforts to reform and improve reading instruction. Understanding this history helps prevent the same mistakes from being repeated.

A Brief History of Reading Reform

Critics of the U.S. educational system frequently point to its failure to educate students as effectively as in the past, highlight the perceived poor performance of U.S. students compared with those in other countries, and criticize the overall inability of U.S. schools to teach all students to read proficiently. Reform remains a constant theme in American education, and many presidents, including Eisenhower, Johnson, Reagan, Bush I, Clinton, Bush II, and Obama, have made reforming reading, mathematics, and science education a central part of their political platforms.

One of the earliest reform efforts was an outgrowth of the Civil Rights Movement, as the 1964 Civil Rights Act mandated that the government report on the equality of educational opportunity. James Coleman (1966) conducted a massive survey of our educational system, and his 737-page report concluded, in part, that there was a significant achievement gap between Black and White children. He also found that peers mattered more than materials. "If you integrate children of different backgrounds and socioeconomics, kids perform better" (Coleman, 1966, p. 537). Others in the U.S. Department of Education saw things differently and urged increased federal funding for reading and math materials and teachers. Congress then passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965), commonly referred to as Title I. This reform helped schools in high-poverty areas acquire more teaching materials, fund additional reading teachers and paraprofessionals, and increase training for all teachers.

In 1983, a report by the National Commission on Excellence in Education titled *A Nation at Risk* declared, "Our Nation is at risk. Our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world ...." The reading community responded with its own report, *Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson et al., 1985). The report included wide-ranging recommendations on teaching reading based on the best available research at the time. It concluded, "America will become a nation of readers when verified practices of the best teachers in the best schools can be introduced throughout the country" (p. 116). The report urged parents to read to their children, encouraged teachers to deliver well-designed phonics lessons, and focused more on reading comprehension, while also encouraging all students to read more.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

Becoming a Nation of Readers had little effect on reading education (Wilkerson et al., 2016), but it was part of a broader effort to expand the Federal Government's influence on education. In 1979, President Carter, along with Congress, established the Department of Education to enhance understanding of students' achievement and to centralize educational policy. As part of this mission, the government issued several reports that called for a strong, systematic focus on phonics and phonemic awareness in beginning reading instruction, including *Beginning to Read* (Adams, 1990) and *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* (Snow et al., 1998).

The next policy effort to boost reading achievement focused on raising standards (Vinovskis, 2022). Policy experts believed that school divisions and educators held low expectations for students, and Presidents George H. W. Bush and Bill Clinton both worked to establish higher standards for all educators. Through America 2000 and Goals 2000, the government declared that "By year 2000, American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter, including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography." By the year 2000, every adult American was expected to be literate and possess the knowledge and skills needed to compete in a global economy and to exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. The history of national test results confirms that these ambitious goals have not been achieved (Vinovskis, 2022).

George W. Bush decided to put teeth into these standards in two ways. The Federal Government commissioned experts to gather research on the best methods for teaching reading, share it with educators, and develop a system of assessments to hold teachers and schools accountable for meeting these higher standards. The initiative led to the *Report of the National Reading Panel* (NRP, NICHD, 2000). The report identified the five key components of reading instruction—phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension—and outlined how to teach them. Bush and Congress passed the *No Child Left Behind* Act. They allocated $6 billion for *Reading First*, a national effort to improve reading curricula, enhance teachers' professional development, and use testing to track student progress, giving weight to the National Reading Panel's recommendations. All third- through eighth-graders and some high school students were tested on reading and math achievement, and teachers and schools were held accountable through rewards, recognition, and punishments.

Under the Obama administration, two reform efforts significantly influenced reading education. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA, 2015) and the Race to the Top (ARRA, 2009) grants reinforced the focus on testing, while the Common Core State Standards (NGA & CCSS) established new reading standards for states, school districts, and educational publishers. States and districts that applied for and received Race to the Top funds were required to track the progress of all students through interim assessments, resulting in increased testing in schools.

The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) sought three major changes in reading education. Reading programs and classroom instruction should emphasize building knowledge by balancing fiction and nonfiction texts and creating text sets that build on one another. When students discuss or write about a text, they should focus on the text's ideas rather than their personal experiences. Students should also regularly read complex texts, with difficulty increasing throughout the year and from grade to grade. As a result of the CCSS, reading programs, instruction, and assessments have evolved, and these changes continue. Examining the effectiveness of these changes is threaded throughout our text.

The Current Era of Reform and the Science of Reading

Current efforts to reform reading education began with the Science of Reading movement. The term "science of reading" first appeared in print in *The Science of Reading Handbook* (Snowling & Hulme et al., 2005, 2022). However, the phrase

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

went viral when journalists writing about the "reading crisis" urged schools and teachers to follow the science of reading (Hanford, 2019a,b). The podcast *Sold a Story*, also by Hanford (2022), argued that the cause of our students' reading problems was an approach called guided reading or balanced literacy, and that the solution was a return to explicit, systematic phonics instruction. The problem with guided reading and balanced literacy was the lack of explicit phonics instruction. Educators, policy experts, and politicians pushed for more phonics instruction, even into the upper grades. Many states began to legislate curriculum decisions (Reinking et al., 2023).

We view the science of reading as encompassing much more than phonics or word recognition instruction (Duke & Cartwright, 2021). It includes the five main pillars of reading—phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension—as defined by the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000). However, reading instruction extends beyond these pillars. Students need to build knowledge (Cervetti & Hiebert, 2015) and develop the interest and motivation to read widely and deeply (Alexander, 2013). It is crucial that teachers use assessments effectively to tailor instruction for all students and organize their classrooms to create an engaging environment where everyone can succeed.

Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana are often cited as examples of states that successfully followed the science of reading. Their success was due to much more than phonics instruction. In those states teachers read often to their students to build knowledge, they teach comprehension strategies and they make extensive use of small group instruction to differentiate teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2026).

After 60 years (1965–2024) of an expanding federal role in education and literacy, the second Trump administration is reducing federal involvement in education, except in reading. The Department of Education recently started accepting proposals to enhance literacy instruction. They stated, "that the science of reading is a body of evidence-based research that proves the importance of providing direct, systematic, and explicit instruction in phonological awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and reading comprehension" (U.S. Department of Education, 2025). Additionally, the federal government aims to return educational policy to the states and promote school choice programs.

Providing instruction aligned with the science of reading simply means that curriculum and instruction should be based on research. Since the first edition of this book in 1998, we have consistently grounded our recommendations in reading research. The instructional practices we suggest have been tested through classroom studies or are based on well-founded theories of reading. We will highlight these research-supported recommendations in all of our chapters. Other practices we mention are emerging and have not yet been thoroughly researched, but they are rooted in sound instructional theory. Our job is to translate these research findings into directives for effective classroom instruction.

The efforts to improve literacy in the United States have centered on three main strategies. In the 1970s and 1980s, politicians and policy experts argued that investing more money in teachers, teacher training, and instructional materials would boost reading achievement. In the 1990s and 2000s, other reformers claimed that our standards were simply too low. If we expected more from our students, our administrators and teachers would rise to the challenge. The third group of reforms, starting in the 2000s, believed that holding teachers and schools accountable through high-stakes assessments would give the standards more teeth. Currently, some journalists, politicians, and policy experts think we are in a crisis. We disagree. There are problems, and there are solutions, but understanding the data on our students' reading proficiency and reading habits will help you understand the problems. To prepare, it would be wise for you to understand the reading proficiency of American students.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Reflect and Apply

The arguments about the quality of education in the United States are old and increasingly political. To help you understand this debate and think deeply about the important topics we discuss, we include Reflect and Apply sections periodically throughout the text. Ideally, with many facts at your disposal, you will discuss your responses with others—a study group, your class, or your course instructor.

1. Why do American politicians from both parties and their policy experts persistently push for reforming education, particularly reading instruction, in our schools? What motivates these reform efforts?
2. What are the three main strategies that have been employed to enhance reading achievement in the United States, and how successful have these efforts been? What approaches have yet to be tried to improve reading achievement?

THE READING PROFICIENCY AND HABITS OF OUR STUDENTS

Understanding the reading skills of U.S. students is a complex challenge. We will guide you through the data, share our conclusions, and invite you to draw your own interpretations. There is no single correct answer in this exercise. To evaluate the reading proficiency of our students, we examine four key data sources that provide the most reliable large-scale information currently available: the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement known as PIRLS, the Programme for International Student Assessments (PISA), and some data directly comparing the reading skills of U.S. students in 1960 to today. We also analyze students' reading habits to see how much children and teens actually read. While teachers and schools influence reading achievement, the home environment and culture also play a significant role in how much children read, and reading volume influences reading achievement (Torppa et al., 2020).

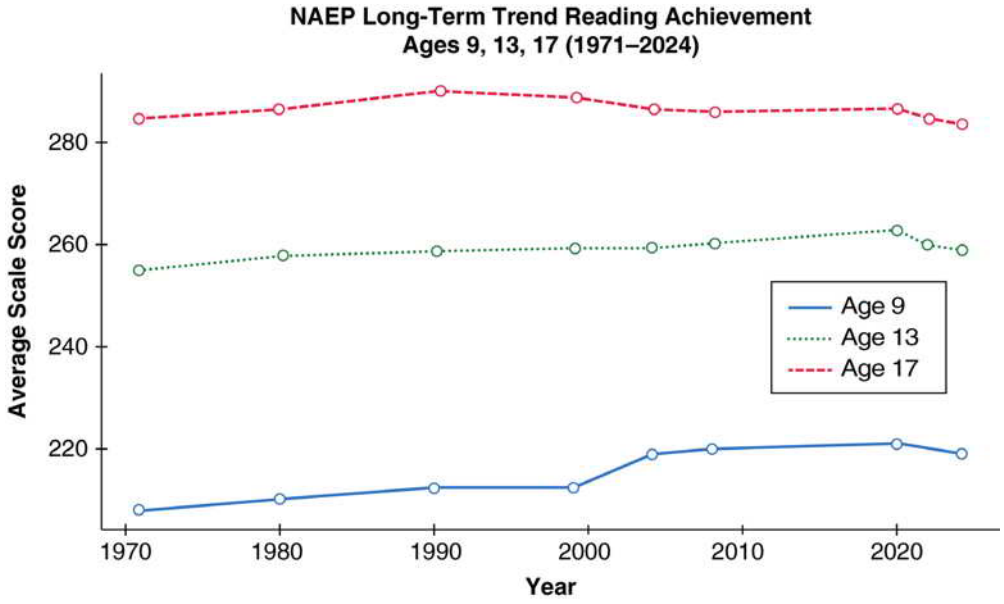
Reading Proficiency

The federal government created NAEP 45 years ago to provide a regular report on U.S. students' achievement in reading and other academic subjects. In other words, it was designed to do exactly what we're trying to do here—show how U.S. students are performing in school. NAEP reports long-term trends in reading every two to four years for students aged 9, 13, and 17. **Figure 1.1** displays NAEP results since 1971 (NCES, 2022). The trend line for 17-year-olds is primarily flat, except for a noticeable decline starting in 2020, which coincides with the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. Scores did not rebound when students went back to school. The trend line for 9-year-olds (fourth grade) and 13-year-olds (eighth grade) shows a slight increase from 1971 to 1999, then a steeper rise from 1999 to 2012, indicating a modest improvement in reading for these age groups. The pandemic similarly affected fourth- and eighth-graders.

The picture becomes more complex when we look at the data by racial or ethnic groups. While the achievement gap between Black, White, and Hispanic students

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 1.1
U.S. Students Reading Proficiency 1971–2024

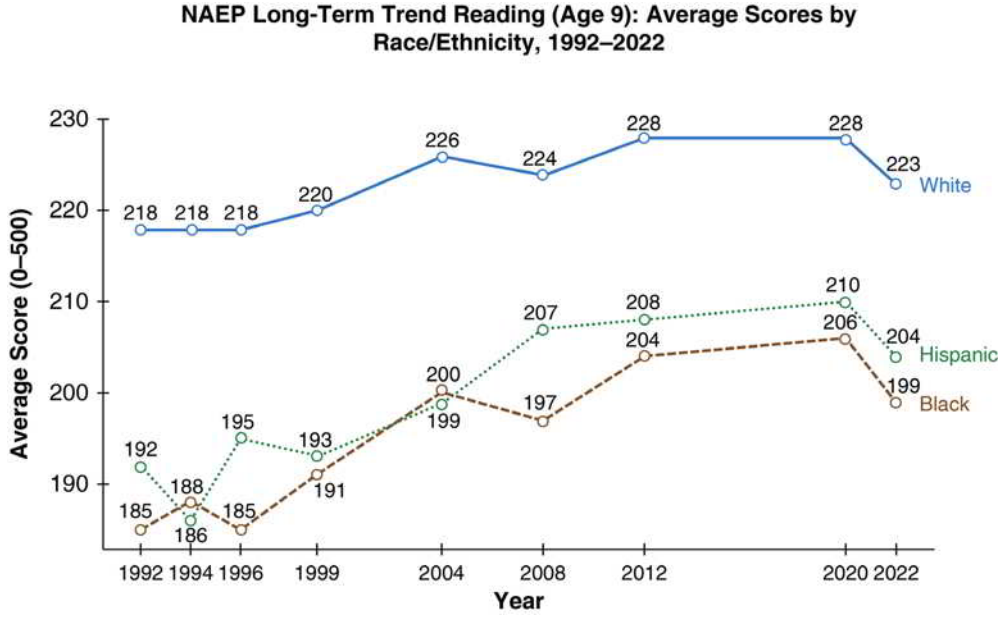


Source: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Educational Sciences, National Center for Educational Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Long-term trends. Reading 1971–2024.

has narrowed significantly since 1971, a notable performance gap remains among the three groups (see **Figure 1.2**). Hispanic and Black students score markedly below White students. Although overall reading achievement is improving, we still have work to do to ensure all children reach the same level of proficiency.

The most commonly cited NAEP statistic is the percentage of students who are "proficient" readers. Currently, 31% of fourth-graders are proficient in reading, and

FIGURE 1.2
Trends in NAEP Reading Average Scores and Score Gaps for White, Hispanic, and Black 9-Year-Olds



Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

60% are at or above a basic level. That means 40% are below the basic level. The results for 13-year-olds are similar. It is essential to understand how well students at each level actually read. There is a perception that reading at a basic level is a significant problem. It is not. **Figure 1.3** describes what a basic and a proficient reader can do when reading informational text.

Students at a basic level can recognize words, read fluently, and demonstrate comprehension. At the proficient level, students can do more. They can understand words with multiple meanings, draw more inferences, and support their opinions with evidence from the text. This shows that the critics who cry about our reading crisis are partly correct. About 30% of fourth-graders struggle with word recognition and fluency and need more and better instruction in foundational skills like phonics. However, 30% of students have basic word recognition skills and need to work on knowledge development, vocabulary, and comprehension to reach a proficient level of reading.

The second way to evaluate American students' reading skills is to compare them with students in other countries. The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) was founded in the late 1950s to carry out international studies. Its latest reading survey, Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), was conducted during the 2021–22 school year in 65 countries (Mullis et al., 2023). **Figure 1.4** shows the results of this study, which gathered data from over 150,000 fourth-graders. As shown, the United States ranked eleventh among the 65 nations. It scored below Russia, Ireland, Finland, and England, tied with Finland, and above Poland and 32 other European, Asian,

FIGURE 1.3
Description of Basic and Proficient Readers on the National Assessment of Education Progress

NAEP Basic (208)	When reading informational texts such as articles and excerpts from books, fourth-grade students performing at the *NAEP Basic* level can likely • read fluently • determine the relevant meaning of familiar words using context from a single section of the text • locate a specific detail from the text and make simple inferences from one section of the text • restate a problem or solution presented in a single section of the text • provide a description of a text feature or author's craft using a general reference to the text • provide an opinion using a general reference to the text
NAEP Proficient (268)	When reading informational texts such as articles and excerpts from books, fourth-grade students performing at the *NAEP Proficient* level can likely do all listed at the basic level plus: • determine the relevant meaning of words with multiple meanings • use a specific detail from the text to make inferences or provide a description or an explanation about text features • provide an opinion with relevant support from the text • restate a problem or solution presented in a single section of the text • describe, explain, or draw conclusions about text structures (e.g., compare and contrast, cause and effect, sequence and order) • integrate ideas across a text to determine purpose and main idea

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 1.4
PIRLS Overall Reading Average Scores of Fourth-Grade Students, by Education System, 2021

Educational System	Overall Scaled Score
Singapore	587
Ireland	577
Hong Kong	573
Russian Federation	567
Northern Ireland	566
England	558
Croatia	557
Lithuania	552
Finland	549
Poland	549
United States	548
Chinese Taipei	544
Sweden	544
Australia	540
Bulgaria	539
Czechia	539
Hungary	539
Denmark	539
Norway	539
Italy	543
Slovenia	537
Macao (China)	536
Austria	530
Slovakia	529
Latvia	528
Netherlands	527
Germany	524
New Zealand	521
Spain	521
Portugal	520
Slovenia	525
Malta	515
France	514
Serbia	514

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Educational System	Overall Scaled Score
Belgium (French)	511
Israel	510
Kazakhstan	504
PIRLS scale Centerpoint	500
Turkey	496
Belgium (French)	494
Georgia	494
Montenegro	487
Qatar	485
United Arab Emirates	483
Bahrain	458
Saudi Arabia	449
North Macedonia	443
Azerbaijan	440
Uzbekistan	437
Oman	429
Brazil	419
Iran	413

Source: Adapted from International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Progress in International Reading Study (PIRLS) 2021.

and Middle Eastern nations. Our students scored 48 points above the international average of 500. This is a solid result and not a cause for concern.

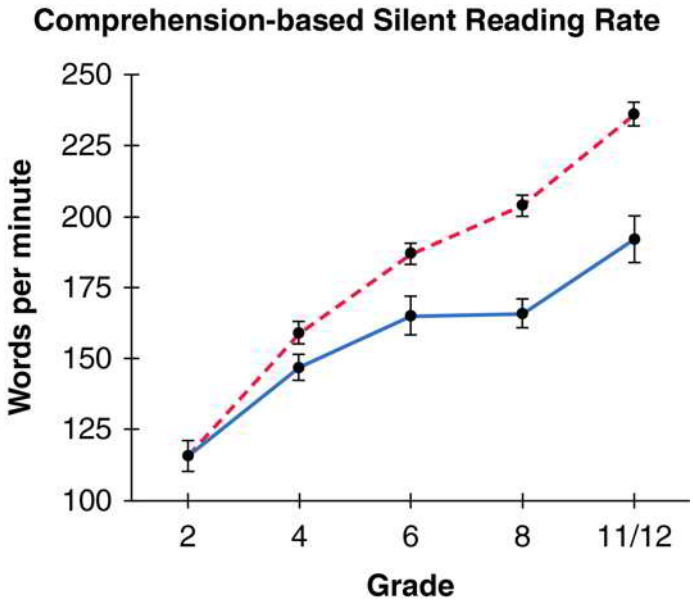
A second part of the PIRLS study, ePIRLS, looked at fourth-grade students' ability to read online for information (NCES, 2023). The study brought reading into the digital age and explored how students can select, interpret, and combine information while reading online. The students were given science and social studies tasks, each requiring them to read three websites, each with five to ten pages. They had to read text, analyze visual data, and engage with pop-up and animated activities. They used hyperlinks to navigate between sites and integrated visual and textual information. The assessment required students to answer both multiple-choice and constructed-response questions.

Twenty-one countries participated in the ePIRLS study. Students from the United States ranked eleventh out of 21 nations. Students from Singapore, Norway, and Ireland performed better than ours, which scored the same as students from Sweden and Denmark. Students from China (Taipei), Canada, Israel, Italy, Slovenia, Portugal, Georgia, and the United Arab Emirates scored significantly lower than ours. Two other findings are worth noting: our students performed better on the ePIRLS than on the regular PIRLS, and girls outperformed boys.

A third piece of evidence comes from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). PISA evaluates the reading, mathematics, and science skills of 15-year-olds (tenth-graders) in 51 countries worldwide (OECD, 2023). Adolescents

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 1.5
Comparing the Reading Proficiency of Students in 2016 to That in 1960



Source: Used with permission from Spichtig, et al., (2016). The decline of comprehension–based silent reading efficiency in the United States: A comparison of current data with performance in 1960. Reading Research Quarterly, 51(2), 239-259.

in the United States scored above average on these tests and ranked ninth among all participating nations. Our students perform similarly to those in Canada, New Zealand, and Hong Kong, with only Ireland, Singapore, Japan, and a few others scoring higher. The data also showed that, despite a decades-long decline in reading ability worldwide, U.S. students were among the few to buck this trend. More than 30% of our students reached one of the three highest literacy levels. These students can read complex, abstract texts and make sophisticated interpretations.

The final data compare the silent reading efficiency of U.S. students today with that of students in 1960 (Spichtig et al., 2016). In the study, two thousand students (from 2nd to 12th grade) from both decades read the same texts silently under identical conditions. The students' reading speeds and comprehension levels were measured. The study shows that the silent reading efficiency of U.S. students has decreased, with the most significant decline occurring at the secondary level.

Comprehension-based silent reading refers to how quickly students read when they comprehend a text well (Spichtig et al., 2016). The solid line on the graph is the scores in 2016, and the dotted line is the scores in 1960. Second-graders in 2016 and 1960 performed the same. The gap first appears among fourth-grade students and widens over the next eight years. When comprehending well, sixth-graders today read as fast as fourth-graders did in 1960. Students in middle school have reached a plateau, showing no growth over the years. Eleventh- and twelfth-graders today read about as well as sixth-graders in 1960. These data provide a partial explanation for why NAEP scores have changed little in middle school and high school. All this indicates that students today are less efficient readers.

Reading Behavior

American children, adolescents, and adults are reading less than they did 30 years ago, and this is significant. We know this from several kinds of data. NAEP regularly asks students how often they read for fun on their own. **Figure 1.6** shows some of those results.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 1.6
Percentage of Fourth- and Eighth-Graders Who Report Reading for Fun Every Day

	Fourth-Graders		Eight-Graders	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
2024	42%	37%	19%	10%
1984	58%	49%	41%	30%

Source: National Center for Education Statistics. (2022). *Appendix tables: NAEP long-term trend reading age 9, average score results by selected characteristics, 1971–2022.* U.S. Department of Education.

The percentage of children and adolescents who frequently read for pleasure is declining. Less than 40% of fourth-graders read for pleasure every day, and fewer than 20% of 13-year-olds do so (Milliot, 2024). Thirty-nine percent of adolescents currently report never reading for enjoyment. The Pew Center has reported similar results, as did Scholastic, a major publisher of children's and adolescent books. Bone and her colleagues also report similar findings, along with the concerning detail that few parents regularly read to their children—less than 5% (Bone et al., 2025). Finally, book publishers note that book sales to the 9–12 age group continue to decrease at an accelerating rate. "Book sales for children 9–12 have been weak for several years, and the new report showed that print unit sales of middle grade books fell 5% in the first half of 2024 compared to the same period in 2023" (Milliot, 2024).

The decline matters because reading volume affects the development of reading fluency, vocabulary growth, and comprehension skills. Fluency, or the ability to read with pace and expression, improves through practice with easier materials, such as books like *The Diary of a Wimpy Kid* and *The Lightning Thief*. In 1988, fifth-graders who read 20 minutes or more outside of school encountered 1,800,000 words, many of which were new and many of which they learned (Anderson et al., 1988). Children who read only 3 minutes a day outside of school encountered just 200,000 words. Students who are not reading outside of school are building vocabulary only through what teachers teach.

Summary

The best available data indicate a cautiously optimistic outlook for U.S. students' reading skills. Our students perform as well as or better than peers in other industrialized countries and handle digital tasks similarly to students in other nations. However, silent reading comprehension has notably declined in the upper grades, suggesting that reading has become more difficult for many. By fourth grade, most students can read simple texts and answer straightforward questions. But as texts become more challenging—the kind middle-grade students are expected to manage—a large percentage of middle school students struggle with comprehension, and a significant portion of high school seniors face similar difficulties. When both texts and questions grow more complex—such as the materials needed to understand political and social issues or to appreciate advanced literature—very few students, even those nearing high school graduation, can comprehend them effectively.

Even more important is the gap between White, Hispanic, and Black students. This gap in reading proficiency has persisted for over thirty years, with only minor improvements. This also reflects an economic disparity, with students from higher-income families scoring higher than those from lower-income families (Romeo et al., 2022). Students from lower-income households often have less access to books, print, and other literacy activities and may face more psychological stress (Snow et al., 1991; van Hippel, 2018).

Educators and policymakers who adhere to a narrow view of the science of reading have identified only half or less of our literacy challenges. While explicit, systematic phonics instruction is crucial, it is not sufficient. Students must expand their vocabularies through extensive reading and develop critical thinking about what they read.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Some believe that everything about reading can be taught by a knowledgeable teacher who explains and models the core of the reading process. However, much about reading is learned through reading itself. As Share (1999) emphasizes, reading is a self-teaching system. Through reading, students develop fluency, vocabulary, and the knowledge necessary for comprehension. Teachers, of course, need to teach students to read, but they also need to spark interest so that students become motivated to read.

The challenge for you, as a teacher, and for us, as authors, is to present approaches and strategies that will ensure all students can succeed. It's not enough for students to pass their state reading test; we want them to become engaged and avid readers who read for pleasure, information, and sometimes as a means of escape.

Literacy for Today's and Tomorrow's World

Understanding how well U.S. students read is crucial; equally important is understanding current literacy standards and how they are evolving. In the past, literacy was defined as the ability to sign one's name. At another time, it meant being able to read aloud a simple, familiar text—often a Bible passage (Kirsch & Jungeblut, 1986). Today, while there is no single definition of literacy, there is widespread agreement that everyone needs a much higher level of literacy than in the past and this demand will likely continue to grow. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development offers this definition: "Literacy in the 21st century involves the capacity to use, understand, interpret, and communicate across a range of media, including print, digital, visual, and multimedia texts. It requires critical thinking, problem-solving, collaboration, and ethical use of information to participate fully in society" (OECD, 2023).

Present-day literacy involves much more than passively absorbing words on a page. Reading requires developing a deep understanding of what is read, retaining key information, connecting new knowledge to existing understanding, knowing when and where to apply that information, and using it appropriately in various contexts both inside and outside of school. It also requires effective communication with others. Literacy today demands that readers *do* something as a result of reading, not just acquire knowledge. Furthermore, modern literacy means readers must be able to handle a range of texts—not only short stories, novels, and history books, but also tax forms, detailed instructions for complex machines, and texts that aim to inform and persuade us about important political, economic, and social issues. These issues cannot be fully understood from brief sound bites on Apple News or MSNow, or from a TikTok video.

More and more, literacy involves knowing how to navigate the Internet, read digital texts, and make complex decisions about the accuracy of information on various websites, blogs, and tweets. These skills are called New Literacies (Leu et al., 2015). The Internet is becoming the primary textbook today, and for most people, it will be the textbook of the future. The strategies used for printed textbooks and informational trade books must be replaced by new approaches. Readers now need to search for information using keywords, verify the credibility of websites, and synthesize information from multiple sources. Lessons on these search tools will replace lessons on using the Table of Contents and the Index of a textbook.

Some suspect that reading digital text differs from reading print posing new challenges for all readers. With digital text, we often resort to skimming, sacrificing deep understanding. With these new literacies, "instead of hiking the trail yourself, the trees, rock, and moss move past you in flashes with no trace of what came before and no way to see what lies ahead" (Jabr, 2013, p. 48). Kaufman and Flanagan (2016) demonstrated that young adults reach higher levels of abstraction when reading on conventional paper than when reading on screens. "The ever-increasing demand of multitasking, divided attention, and information overload that individuals encounter in their use of digital technologies may cause them to 'retreat' to the less cognitively demanding lower end of the concrete-abstract continuum" (Kaufman & Flanagan, 2016, p. 2774).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

While we have emphasized reading for information through print and digital sources, we do not mean to overlook the importance of reading fiction. Not only does fiction bring pleasure, but it also teaches us what it means to be human. Fiction fosters empathy by requiring us to immerse ourselves in others' lives (Kidd & Castrano, 2013). It enhances language skills and cultural understanding. Through fiction, we explore values and gain insights into justice, caring, and relationships. Fiction nurtures moral reflection and self-awareness (McAdams, 2011). People use stories to understand others and build their personal identity. Fictional texts such as *The Odyssey*, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and *To Kill a Mockingbird* teach us about the communities we belong to and the values that guide our lives.

Literacy also involves the desire to read for enjoyment and information. Without motivation and the habit of reading, advanced reading skills are unlikely to develop. Today, teaching children to read is only half the challenge; we also need to motivate them to read. When devices like the iPad, Xbox, and Snapchat are more captivating than a novel, and TikTok sound bites are easier to consume than *The New York Times*, encouraging reading becomes harder. Building a love for reading and inspiring children to use print for information might be our most difficult task, and we have yet to create an effective curriculum for it. A child who can read but chooses not to has no advantage over one who cannot read.

To be sure, elementary and middle school students do not read all of the complex texts we have discussed here, but their early reading experiences should lay a foundation for tackling complex material in the future. Additionally, because many children are economically disadvantaged, we must work especially hard to significantly enhance reading instruction and increase opportunities for these students to read (NCES, 2023). We especially need to boost all children's higher-order skills and their desire to explore answers in complex materials. We must nurture and motivate students to become competent readers who are eager to read in today's increasingly complex and demanding world.

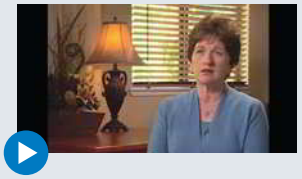
Reflect and Apply

3. Suppose you're sitting with a small group of parents at a school open house when one woman abruptly asks why today's students read so poorly compared to those in earlier years. A man quickly agrees and, with similar abruptness, questions why American children can't read as well as kids in other countries. Craft a response that cites data to reassure these parents that U.S. students are actually performing quite well.
4. The concept of present-day literacy is complex. At this point, describe your understanding of the concept in a paragraph or two. Keep your description and add to it as you gain a broader knowledge of present-day literacy in later chapters.

THE READING PROCESS

The reading process describes how we read and how children learn to read. No matter what you learn about teaching reading from this textbook, your university courses, in-service sessions, Pinterest, or discussions with other teachers, much of what you do in the classroom will stem from your personal understanding of the reading process. The variety of teaching options available, the diverse needs of different students, and the unique specifics of each teaching situation make it impossible to predict all the decisions about literacy instruction you will face each day. However, understanding a reader's mental processes while reading can help you make wise choices.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.2



Two experts, Connie Juel and Freddy Hiebert, present their view on how reading develops, what problems lie ahead for some children, and what needs to be done to overcome these difficulties. Keep these ideas in mind as you read more about the reading process.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Reading instruction is often swayed by trends, leading educators to adopt a new trend only to abandon it when trends change. Publishers create numerous reading programs, all claiming to be "research-based." Each new program is marketed as "new and improved," similar to a box of Tide, and is "guaranteed" to solve students' reading problems and motivate them to reach high literacy levels. In addition to these published programs, teachers can access millions of resources on Teachers Pay Teachers, Pinterest, and hundreds of other websites. Much of what is found online is poorly designed, not very helpful, and often misleads you and your students. The best way to deal with the myriad claims of publishers and the activities available on websites is to have a clear understanding of how we read and how children learn to read.

Models of Reading

Today, most discussions about reading begin with a model of the reading process. Models illustrate, through simple language and visuals, the different parts of a process and how they work together. You've probably seen models of the circulatory and solar systems; now, we will introduce models of how reading functions. "Models are metaphors that help us visualize and understand research and theories that explain the components of the reading process" (Ruddell & Unrau, 2004, p. 1116). Currently, several models influence how we understand reading, including the Simple View of Reading (Hoover & Gough, 1990), the Rope Model (Scarborough, 2001), the cognitive-constructive view of reading, and its related Construction-Integration Model (Kintsch, 1998).

Box, a well-known statistician, highlighted the advantages and limitations of models. He wrote, "Essentially all models are wrong, but some are useful" (Box & Draper, 1987, p. 424). Models are helpful when they help you understand how children read, when they guide your interpretations of assessment data, and when they lead you to make better instructional decisions. All this improves your instruction and enhances children's reading and well-being (Reinking & Yaden, 2021).

The Simple View of Reading

The Simple View of Reading (refer to **Figure 1.7**) posits that reading comprehension is the product of decoding and language comprehension (Hoover & Gough, 1990). If students possess strong decoding skills, they can read the words, and with adequate language comprehension skills, they should be able to understand the texts they are reading. Weak decoding and weak language skills undermine reading comprehension.

If a student has weak decoding skills, their reading comprehension will be hindered. Likewise, if a student has weak language comprehension but strong decoding skills (a somewhat unlikely scenario), comprehension will be similarly affected. The Simple View of Reading is useful because it reminds you to focus your instruction on the two main components of reading: decoding words and developing language skills.

There is no shortage of criticism of the Simple View of Reading; it has almost created its own industry (Duke & Cartwright, 2021; Kirby & Savage, 2008; Paris, 2025; Snow, 2018)—most critiques focus on the fact that reading is not a simple process. Decoding alone requires paying attention to the sounds within words, mapping sounds to letters, recognizing words, and doing so fluently and with expression (Paris, 2026). Comprehension is even more complex, requiring skills beyond oral language

FIGURE 1.7
The Simple View of Reading

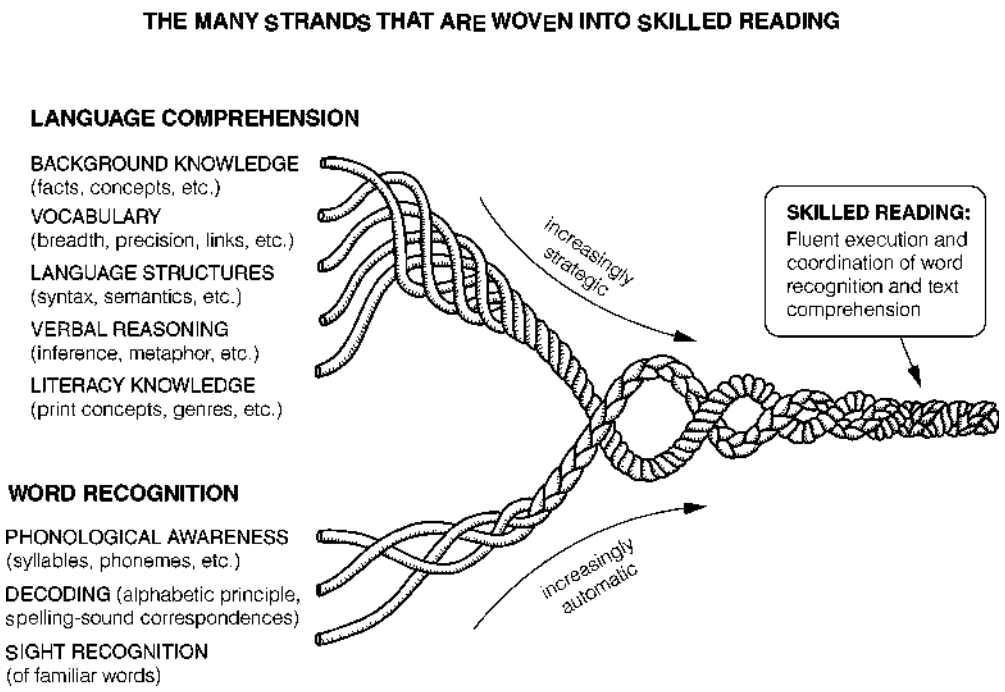
Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

comprehension, such as understanding genre and text structure, setting purposes, and monitoring comprehension. Unlike oral language, the reader cannot ask the author what they meant (Duke & Cartwright, 2021). Finally, 21st-century reading demands analysis, synthesis, and critique, which go well beyond what is typically required in oral language comprehension. Because the Simple View is so, so simple, others have found the Rope model more informative (Scarborough, 2001). We present a diagram for the Rope model in **Figure 1.8**.

The Rope Model has more parts than the Simple View. It urges you to consider background knowledge, vocabulary, syntax, verbal reasoning, and genre knowledge as part of understanding language, and phonological awareness, decoding, and sight words as part of recognizing words. But the Rope Model has its weaknesses. Some components, like "language structure" and "verbal reasoning," are vague and do not clearly indicate what to teach. Additionally, the Rope Model offers no guidance on how to teach or develop these reading skills, when to do so, or how much time to spend on each and for which students (Kambach & Mesmer, 2024). The Rope Model says that the components of word recognition become more automatic, but it does not explain how to achieve this. Similarly, the components of language comprehension become more strategic—but how? It's impossible to create a curriculum based solely on either of these models. Additionally, both the Simple View and the Rope Model ignore motivation, and without motivation, developing readers make little progress.

Both the Simple View of Reading and the Rope Model present the components of reading, but neither explains how reading actually happens. We now need to consider reading as a process, not just a collection of parts. How do the marks on the page turn into ideas, thoughts, and feelings? Over the past 40 years, a widely accepted, balanced, and strongly supported view of the reading process has developed: the *cognitive-constructivist view*. This construct underpins how we approach reading instruction. In the next section, we explain several theories that elaborate on, complement, and supplement this concept.

FIGURE 1.8
Scarborough's Rope Model of Reading



Source: Used with permission from Scarborough, H.S. (2001). Connecting early language and literacy to later reading (dis)abilities: Evidence, theory, and practice. In S.B. Neuman & D.K. Dickinson (Eds.), Handbook of early literacy research (Vol. 1, pp. 97–110). Guilford.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

The Cognitive-Constructivist View of Reading

The cognitive-constructivist view of reading emphasizes that reading is an active process in which readers seek meaning from what they read. Unlike the Simple View and the Rope Model, which largely overlook the process, the cognitive-constructivist approach explains how we read. In this view, the reader makes connections between ideas in the text and combines these understandings with prior knowledge. This search for meaning depends heavily on the reader having an existing store of knowledge. The active role of the reader is important because they actually construct much of the meaning they derive from the text they read.

For example, as Carmella reads Kate DiCamillo's *Because of Winn-Dixie,* she learns that India Opal is sad because her mother recently walked out on her and her father. Later in the book, when Carmella discovers that Amanda Wilkinson, a girl India Opal does not initially get along with, is sad because her younger brother recently died, Carmella can infer that Opal and Amanda share a similar experience and might become friends. Nothing in the text explicitly states this to Carmella; instead, the inference comes from her understanding that people who share similar experiences often become friends and from her active engagement with the text. This also suggests that Carmella can understand India Opal's feelings. Notice how teacher Martin Cummings highlights the use of background knowledge and encourages active processing with his sixth-graders (*In the Classroom 1.1*). Mr. Cummings helps students realize that readers actively seek meaning in what they read and that the meaning they create depends on their own knowledge of the world and its rules.

In the Classroom 1.1

Using Background Knowledge

Martin Cummings projected the first page from Sharon Flake's novel *The Skin I'm In* on the board:

> The first time I seen her, I got a bad feeling inside. Not like I was in danger or nothing. Just like she was somebody I should stay clear of. To tell the truth, she was a freak like me. The kind of person folks can't help but tease. That's bad if you're a kid like me.

He read the paragraph aloud to his sixth-graders and then said, "What does this paragraph tell us? What do you think after reading this?"

Chris: The narrator's someone young, maybe our age.

Mr. Cummings: What makes you think so?

Chris: 'Cause it says "a kid like me" and sounds like the way kids talk.

Lateisha: Yeah, Black kids, not White kids. I think the person talking is Black.

Mr. Cummings: So you think the narrator's Black? What else do we know about the narrator from this paragraph?

Kyle: She has a low opinion of herself.

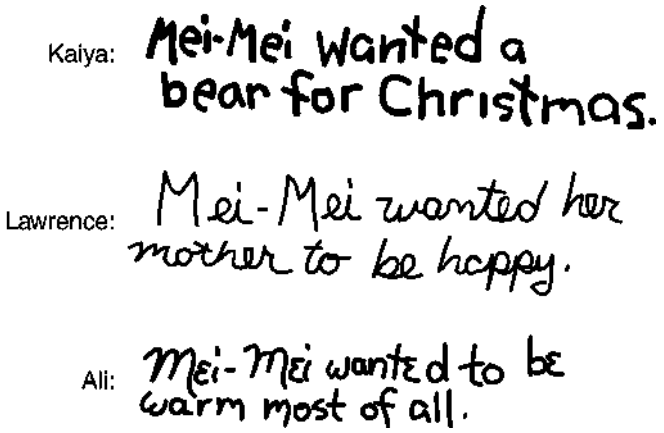
Mr. Cummings: How do you know that?

Kyle: 'Cause she calls herself a freak.

The cognitive-constructive view of reading comes from cognitive psychology, which became the dominant approach in American psychology starting in the 1960s (Gardner, 1987). Cognitive psychologists see the learner and their background knowledge as central to learning. They also view learners as active participants who act on, rather than merely respond to, their external environment as they learn. Before cognitive psychology gained prominence, behaviorism ruled, and psychologists believed that human behavior is mainly shaped by rewards and punishments (Skinner, 1957).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

FIGURE 1.9
Three Students' Responses to the Same Question About a Story They Read



Source: Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

In the cognitive view, reading is an active process in which the meaning the reader constructs from a text is heavily influenced by the mental effort they invest. Both the beginning reader—who we might observe carefully sounding out words as they read aloud—and the experienced reader, like Carmella—who seems to effortlessly absorb *Because of Winn-Dixie*—are actively engaged in making meaning from the text.

Constructivism highlights that understanding a text is an active process. It suggests that the meaning a person derives from a text is subjective—it results from that individual's own interpretation. Each reader's understanding is shaped by their experiences and unique mental framework. Because of this, different readers may interpret the same text in various ways (Burr, 2024). The three student journal entries shown in **Figure 1.9** demonstrate this idea. All three students responded to a prompt based on Feng Sun's picture book, *Mama Bear*. The story is about a girl who bakes and sells almond cookies to save enough money to buy a large, expensive stuffed bear for Christmas, believing it will help keep her and her mother warm. The students were asked: "What did Mei-Mei want most for Christmas?" Each answer in Figure 1.9 is, of course, correct, but each reflects a different perspective on the story.

Recognizing that constructivism emphasizes the subjectivity of meaning, we should also acknowledge that different texts vary significantly in how much they limit subjective meaning (Stanovich, 1994). An abstract poem might inspire many valid interpretations, but a manual that comes with your new EV car should inspire only one. Between these extremes, some texts allow for various degrees of individual interpretation. However, when reading straightforward stories and much informational material, most readers will arrive at quite similar interpretations. Constructivism is both a social and a psychological concept. Most constructivists stress that the social environment we live in greatly influences the meanings we find in our experiences, including our encounters with texts. Therefore, constructivism strongly encourages a variety of discussion styles and group activities in reading and learning (Burr, 2024).

Components of the Reading Process

The models we have presented provide high-level overviews of the very complex process of reading. They outline the broad strokes of the process but lack detailed specifics. Now, we will guide you more deeply into the reading process and examine its components, such as how we recognize words, understand their meanings, and comprehend the overall text. The components of reading we discuss here differ from the Simple View or the Rope model because we believe those models overlook essential aspects of reading (Duke & Carpenter, 2021).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Reading and Understanding Words

Word Recognition

Before the reader can make connections or apply their knowledge and experience to the text, they must first read the words. Reading is an ongoing, recursive process. Many operations happen at the same time, but we have chosen to focus on word recognition as a starting point for explaining how reading works. For a skilled reader, word recognition happens effortlessly and without conscious awareness. Most words are recognized automatically, with the reader processing all the letter-sound relationships at once or recognizing the word as a whole. Only when a new word appears, such as *Bangladesh,* does the reader realize that some process must be used to identify it. They might know they need to break the word into chunks or syllables and then use familiar patterns—like *ang, la, or esh*—to pronounce the unfamiliar word. Developing readers rely on phonics, letter-sound connections, and spelling patterns to sound out new words. These skills come naturally to some, but nearly all students need direct instruction to learn effective strategies for recognizing words. We will discuss these developmental stages when we examine word recognition in Chapters 7 and 8.

Automaticity

Achieving automatic word recognition is crucial because automaticity underpins reading skills. Perfetti (2007) has developed a comprehensive theory of word-reading efficiency that links fluent word recognition to the automatic retrieval of word meanings from memory. When you see the word *cantankerous*, you should read it effortlessly and instantly understand its meaning, knowing it reminds you of an unpleasant uncle. If not, you resort to decoding the pronunciation and using context clues, word parts, or the dictionary to determine its meaning.

The concept of automaticity is both important and simple. An automatic activity is one that we can do easily and with very little attention. As LaBerge and Samuels (1974) noted in their pioneering work on automaticity in reading, the mind's limited attentional capacity means we can only focus on one thing at a time. Recent research suggests that, contrary to popular belief, multitasking is almost impossible unless one task is automatic and requires no attention, such as listening to music on your iPhone (Ophir et al., 2009). If we try to pay attention to too many things at once, we will fail. For example, most of us can drive in heavy traffic, but if it's a new car and we try to control the heater, use navigation, and tune the radio all at once, we may cause an accident. Drivers' attention spans are limited, and a new car with many electronic gadgets will test them even more.

Reading involves multiple subprocesses that must occur simultaneously, including recognizing words, assigning meanings to words, understanding sentences and larger chunks, and linking the text to prior knowledge. Unless some of these processes are automatic, readers can't do all of this at once. When we talk to students about all this, we use the word fluency. "Fluency combines accuracy, automaticity, and oral-reading prosody, which, taken together, facilitate the reader's construction of meaning" (Schwanenflugel & Kuhn, 2015, p. 7). The concept of fluency should also include endurance, as good readers can sustain fluent reading from page to page. Fluency is not just an oral phenomenon—it applies to silent reading as well. Because fluent readers can decode a text automatically, they can decode and comprehend simultaneously, resulting in oral reading that is accurate, smooth, relatively rapid, and properly expressed. To become fluent readers, students need to engage in plenty of silent reading of material they find interesting, enjoyable, and relatively easy. Some students who are not easily motivated to read benefit from various reading activities or lessons designed to build fluency. Students might take turns reading with a partner or echo read what the teacher reads (Rasinski, 2003). These and many other techniques for developing fluent readers, along with the essential skills that support fluent reading, are discussed in Chapter 9.

Achieving fluency is often especially difficult for students learning English as a second language. Besides following the same steps as native speakers, non-native

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

speakers may need to translate English words into their own language to understand their meaning. Therefore, becoming automatic in processing words and fluent in reading texts is very important for English language learners.

English learners need a strong focus on vocabulary to develop reading fluency. It is both difficult and unnatural to read a passage quickly and with expression if it is not understood. To enhance fluency, teachers must actively expand students' vocabulary. As students encounter new words, teachers should discuss their meanings and connect them to students' existing knowledge. Visual aids, such as pictures, support understanding of new words and concepts, especially for young learners. Emphasizing cognates helps create links between students' first and second languages. For example, *artista* means *artist* and *conflicto* means *conflict*.

Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for learning to read and understanding what you read. Children who begin school with a strong vocabulary tend to progress more quickly in learning to read. Students from disadvantaged backgrounds who start with smaller vocabularies often struggle more with word recognition and comprehension (Language and Reading Research Consortium, 2015; August et al., 2005). Vocabulary, or word knowledge, is vital for comprehension, and the relationship between vocabulary and comprehension is reciprocal. Reading engaging and challenging texts that promote understanding helps expand a student's vocabulary. If a reader doesn't grasp the meaning of key words in a text, comprehension suffers. Teaching vocabulary improves comprehension. This is true for both native English speakers and English learners.

Building vocabulary knowledge requires a comprehensive instructional program with many components (Graves, 2016, 2022). Students need rich language experiences in the classroom, such as interactive read-alouds, engaging discussions, and plenty of time for independent reading. Teachers must directly teach individual words, especially those crucial for understanding texts. They should also help students develop word-learning strategies so they can use word parts, context clues, and the dictionary to infer word meanings. Since reading is a self-teaching process, if students have the right tools and opportunities to use them, they will learn new words independently (Seidenberg et al., 2020; Share, 1995). Finally, teachers should foster word consciousness so that students find words interesting and enjoyable to learn. In Chapter 10, we will focus directly on vocabulary instruction.

The Process of Comprehension: The Construction-Integration Process

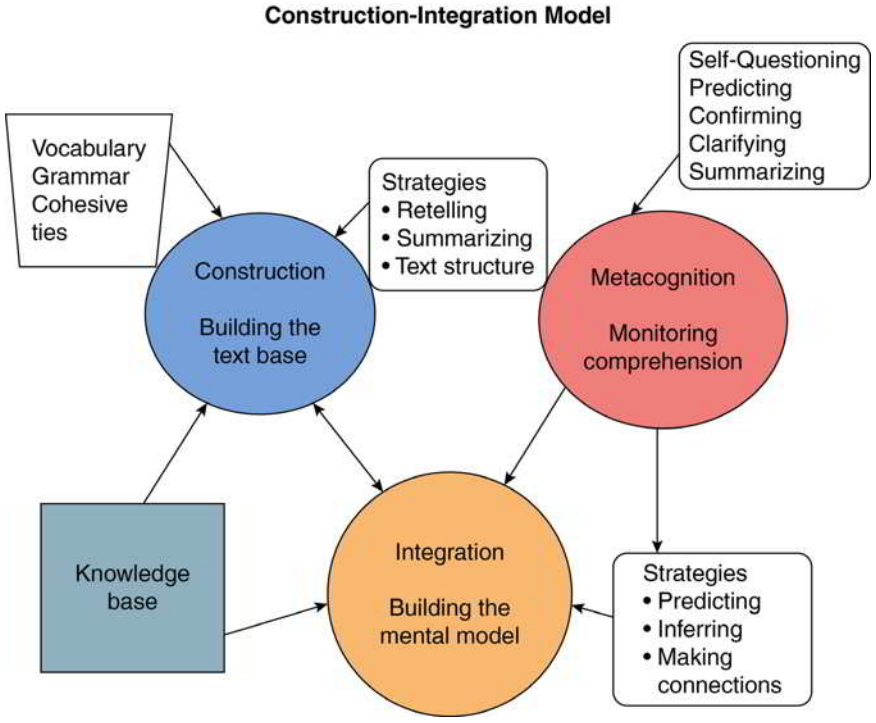
Construction-Integration

Comprehension is the goal of reading. We can break down the comprehension process into at least three recursive steps—construction, integration, and metacognition. To understand this process, we turn to the clearest theory—the construction-integration model, a detailed example of constructivism. Developed by Kintsch (1998, 2004) and others, the process begins with construction, where the reader comprehends sentences and connects ideas from one sentence to the next. Integration is the use of prior knowledge to expand and interpret the meaning the author presents. Consider these three sentences: *John got a cup of coffee. It was very hot. There is now a big mess on the rug.* Construction is needed to link the first sentence to the second. The pronoun *it* refers to both the coffee and its temperature. These links or connections are called anaphoric relationships. The first two sentences are integrated with the third when the reader, using their prior knowledge, infers that the hot coffee was dropped, possibly onto an expensive rug. In the final phase, metacognition, the reader confirms that this explanation makes sense.

The construction-integration process is demonstrated in **Figure 1.10**. The reader first applies their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar to understand each sentence, a crucial step in oral language comprehension. Then, the reader connects one sentence

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 1.10
The Construction-Integration Model of Comprehension



Source: Based on Kintsch, W. (1998). *Comprehension: A paradigm for cognition.* Cambridge University Press.

or idea to another using their knowledge of cohesive ties or anaphoric relationships in language. A reader understands that words like *but* and *however* indicate that the next idea qualifies the previous one; that *because* and *since* show a cause-and-effect relationship; and that *some* and *few* refer to a portion of ideas already mentioned. As the reader links ideas through these cohesive ties, they create a textbase—a relatively literal understanding of the text. A textbase is temporary and may be what a reader can immediately recall if they stop reading in the middle of a passage and is asked to retell it.

To preserve this textbase, the reader combines textual information and prior knowledge to build a mental model, often called a situation model. It is called a situation model because the reader's knowledge and attitudes, along with the social context, influence the meaning they construct. This is the core of the constructivist process. When reading the text—*Mary looked at the menu carefully, trying to find the cheapest entrée, while John gazed lovingly into her eyes*—we immediately understand that Mary and John are in a restaurant, that Mary is concerned about money or at least wants to make a good impression, and that John is smitten. We use our prior knowledge to interpret the text.

When psychologists first developed this constructivist view of cognition and reading, they aimed to explain how readers use knowledge and named this process schema theory. Schema theory emphasizes how knowledge is stored in our minds, how we apply it, and how it develops. According to the theory, knowledge is organized into structures called *schemata*. David Rumelhart (1980) states that schemata make up our understanding of "objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, and sequences of actions." We have schemata for objects like a house, for situations like being in a class, for events such as going to a football game, and for sequences like getting up, eating, showering, and going to work.

When we read the small scene with John and Mary, we use our dating schema to interpret the text. When a couple is having dinner together in a restaurant, it's likely a date. The words *menu* and *entrée* evoke the setting—a restaurant. *Gazed lovingly* signals affection and reinforces the idea of a date. The word *cheapest* in the phrase

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

cheapest entrée indicates Mary's lack of money or her sensitivity to John's financial situation. We interpret our experiences—whether direct encounters with the world or vicarious experiences gained through reading—by comparing and, in most cases, matching them to existing schemata, which form a vast and complex network of interrelationships. When we read about a cricket match our comprehension breaks down because most Americans lack prior knowledge or the experience necessary to understand the game of cricket. These networks of *organized* knowledge are virtually endless and make up much of the intellectual capital available to human beings.

One important result of readers having extensive, internalized networks of schemata is that once a specific schema is activated, a large store of knowledge becomes immediately accessible. Even when watching a movie, the director relies on us having a rich background of information or schemata to fill in gaps. The more we understand about the topic, the easier it is to handle and learn more about it. Schemata help the reader initially interpret what they read by connecting new information to prior knowledge, assessing the importance of details in a text, making inferences, and retaining information (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Hattan et al., 2024). Reading, science, and social studies curricula can be designed so that what students learn in kindergarten provides a foundation, schemata, for future learning in later grades (Kim et al., 2024). You will learn more about this curriculum in Chapter 12.

Good readers rely on both the text and their background knowledge to construct meaning. As teachers, we need to provide students with texts and tasks that encourage this interaction between the text and what they already know. Sometimes we err by giving too little background knowledge, which harms comprehension; other times, we give too much, preventing students from constructing meaning from challenging text, an experience that fosters a sense of accomplishment.

Metacognition

The third part of the construction-integration process is metacognition. You must monitor the meaning-building process and ensure the text makes sense (Duke & Cartwright, 2021). Think of your mind's eye, a part of your brain that observes your own thinking, giving a thumbs-up when things are progressing well and a thumbs-down and stopping the process when it doesn't make sense. Being actively aware of your understanding while reading and being able to fix misunderstandings when comprehension breaks down are crucial skills for becoming an effective reader, and lacking these metacognitive skills is a significant problem for poor readers.

Metacognitive readers can step back mentally and observe their own reading process. By stepping outside of themselves, they become self-regulated learners—learners who develop thoughts, feelings, and strategies that help them achieve their learning goals (Cartwright & Palian, 2024). Skilled readers possess different kinds of metacognitive knowledge, as shown in **Figure 1.11**.

Metacognition starts with setting a purpose—why am I reading this? For instance, at the start of this section, you might have realized that you lack prior knowledge about metacognition (self-knowledge), observed that the section is brief (task knowledge), and decided that rereading it several times would be helpful (strategy knowledge). Therefore, you showed metacognitive knowledge even before you began reading.

Strategies

To keep the meaning construction process on track and to address comprehension challenges, the mature reader has access to a set of cognitive tools or strategies. For example, if a reader encounters an unknown word while reading, a reasonable response would be to read ahead a bit to see if the context suggests a meaning; this is a strategy, something done automatically or deliberately to aid meaning construction. The list of comprehension strategies varies among experts, but most agree that readers need to: set a purpose for reading, preview a text, predict, activate prior

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 1.11
Types of Metacognitive Knowledge

Types of Metacognitive Knowledge	What We Say to Ourselves
Self-Knowledge	"I love figuring out clues in detective stories."
	"If the book is too long, I know I won't finish it."
Task Knowledge	"It is best to skim the chapter first to learn what it is about, before reading it to take notes."
	"I wonder, what is the author's point? Why did he write this book?"
Strategy Knowledge	"When I get stuck on a word, I never use a dictionary and I should."
	"I am going to summarize this section of the chapter to see if I understand it."

Source: Based on Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (Eds.). (1998). *Self-regulated learning: From teaching to self-reflective practice.* Guilford Press.

knowledge, monitor and clarify, draw inferences, self-question, and summarize or retell (Dewitz & Graves, 2024). Some strategies help drive the construction of the textbase, others assist in developing the mental model, and still others support metacognition. A strategy like self-questioning might accomplish all three. Asking questions before reading helps to establish a purpose and build a mental model. Asking questions during reading, especially inferential ones, can promote the integration of text information and prior knowledge. When a reader asks a question after reading a section of text, the question helps the reader check their understanding. **Figure 1.12** categorizes these research-based comprehension strategies by their functions. Some strategies serve multiple purposes.

In reading instruction, we often use the terms comprehension skills and strategies interchangeably (Afflerbach et al., 2008). In some curricula, finding the main idea is termed a skill, while determining importance is viewed as a strategy (Dewitz et al., 2009). In reality, these skills and strategies are the same and involve a type of thinking crucial for getting to the gist. Most comprehension processes start as strategies that require intentional thought and effort. Over time, these strategies can become automatic, allowing readers to make inferences or ask questions without conscious effort. Our goal is to develop readers who are both skillful and strategic.

Reading online requires different strategies than reading printed texts. Afflerbach and Cho (2009) suggest that Internet reading demands a different approach because

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.3

This third-grade teacher is explicit about reading comprehension, describing her thinking about how to understand characters in a work of fiction. List the number of suggestions she makes to her students.

FIGURE 1.12
How Comprehension Strategies Affect the Process of Meaning Construction

Textbase (Strategies that help readers relate ideas to each other)	**Mental Model** (Strategies that help readers relate text ideas to prior knowledge)	**Metacognition** (Strategies that help readers monitor and repair comprehension)
Making anaphoric connection	Predicting	Self-questioning
Retelling	Making inferences	Predicting-confirming
Summarizing	Making connections	Clarifying
Using narrative structure	Self-questioning	Rereading
Using text structure		Summarizing

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

readers encounter multiple texts, images, or videos and must decide how and when to switch among them. Some of us, especially children, are not yet familiar with this new media (Le Bigot & Rouet, 2007). Compared to reading a single text, Internet reading involves more decisions about what to read and when (Afflerbach & Cho, 2009). The purpose of reading must stay clear; otherwise, the disciplined reader risks becoming a random shopper. Leu and his colleagues (2015) argue that specific categories of strategies are necessary for Internet reading. These include defining the problem, locating information sources with keyword searches, critically evaluating the information and judging its trustworthiness, deciding how useful the information is, and integrating information from multiple websites.

Motivation

Comprehension involves more than just skill; it also depends on *motivation*. Students need to care about understanding and be motivated to think critically and apply strategies, especially when dealing with complex texts. Knowledge and strategies alone can only take the reader so far; the reader must genuinely want to understand the material (Alexander, 2003). Although none of the reading models we discussed included a motivation element, Patricia Alexander's model does. In her lifespan model, knowledge, strategies, self-regulation, interest, and motivation are all vital for developing reading ability. The reader must have a clear purpose for reading, and if they don't, teachers should help students find their interests and build motivation. The goal of reading instruction goes beyond simply creating better readers. Reading is a tool for enjoying texts and gaining insight into ourselves, others, and the world. Becoming skilled in comprehension strategies can increase motivation because readers learn they can tackle complex texts and succeed. In the *Teaching Tool 1.1*, important motivational tools are presented.

Teaching Tool 1.1

How to Create a Motivating Classroom

1. Read interesting texts. Most texts explicitly written for teaching comprehension (instructional websites, workbooks, and leveled books) lack the interest of authentic novels, magazines, and informational trade books (Dewitz et al., 2010).
2. Allow students some choice in what they read. Giving students choices helps them feel a sense of control. It also allows them to explore the genres they enjoy—mysteries, adventures, and fantasy—and follow their own curiosity.
3. Create tasks that students value. Reading to become a better reader is not as motivating as reading to learn about sharks or enjoying the thrill of a murder mystery.
4. Focus on student efficacy. When students believe they have the tools to succeed—strategies and knowledge—and attribute their success to their own abilities, their motivation grows. Students develop a sense of control and confidence.
5. Challenge your students. Many students enjoy challenging projects. It is rewarding to read something difficult and produce a complex report.
6. Stress competition at times. Some students thrive on competition. They like doing better than their peers or better than they did before.
7. Stress the social relatedness of learning. For many students, working in groups and being part of a larger effort are essential catalysts for effort.
8. Minimize the use of points, pizza, and other extraneous rewards.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Other Theories of Comprehension

As we mentioned earlier in this chapter, people interpret a text in different ways. The meaning each person constructs depends on their purpose for reading, their background and beliefs, and the social context in which they read. Take the Second Amendment to the U.S. Constitution.

> *A well-regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms shall not be infringed.*

A political liberal who supports stricter gun controls emphasizes the "*well-regulated militia*" part of the sentence and suggests that guns are meant for militias. Individuals do not have unlimited rights to firearms. Conservative political thinkers focus on the "*right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed*" and prefer minimal gun control. Each group interprets the same sentence differently.

Along with constructivism and the construction-integration model, two other theories compete to explain how we read and how we should read. These theories are New Criticism (Ransom, 1979; Brooks & Warren, 1938) and Reader Response Theory (Rosenblatt, 1938/1995, 1978). Each of these theories can be incorporated into the construction-integration model and each highlights how the situation model is constructed. All of these theories are relevant to how to teach reading in today's classrooms.

New Criticism holds that meaning resides in the text and that the reader's task is to find and interpret it. Apparently, the New Critics did not engage with the Second Amendment. A contemporary example of New Criticism is close reading (Boyles, 2012; Fisher & Frye, 2014), a style of reading in which the reader pays close attention to the ideas in the text and, if possible, minimizes the role of prior knowledge in constructing meaning. One consortium of educators that developed assessments for the CCSS offered this definition of close reading.

> Close, analytic reading stresses engaging with a text of sufficient complexity directly and examining meaning thoroughly and methodically, encouraging students to read and reread deliberately. Directing student attention to the text itself empowers students to understand the central ideas and key supporting details. It also enables students to reflect on the meanings of individual words and sentences; the order in which sentences unfold; and the development of ideas over the course of the text, which ultimately leads students to arrive at an understanding of the text as a whole. (PARCC, 2019, p. 7)

Close reading makes sense when you are trying to ferret out the mean of a Robert Frost poem or the conditions of your auto insurance policy. Close reading makes less sense when you are gripped by an exciting adventure story. How we read depends on the text and our purpose. Even as close reading and reader-response theory share a focus on the transaction between the reader and text, reader-response theory focuses more on the reader than the text. The meaning a person gets from a text comes from a transaction between the reader and the text. Readers will have a variety of responses to a literary work. Over the past 30 years, reader-response theory has significantly influenced literature instruction (Galda & Graves, 2007; Marshall, 2000). When reading complex literary texts, students will interpret them in different ways. Many literary texts do not have a single correct interpretation, and readers should be encouraged to develop multiple interpretations—if they can support their ideas.

One important fact to remember when considering reader-response theory is that it primarily applies to literary texts and specific reading goals. Rosenblatt (1978) explains that there are two main types of reading: efferent (informational) reading and aesthetic reading. In efferent reading, the reader's main focus is on what they will take away—what information they will learn. Much of the reading done by both students and adults is aimed at learning new information, answering questions, figuring out how to complete a task, or gaining knowledge to solve a particular problem. Most reading in subjects like health, science, math, and geography is informational. These texts, unlike many literary texts, often limit meaning significantly, don't

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

invite many interpretations, and should produce similar interpretations for different readers (Stanovich, 1994).

Aesthetic reading is quite different. In aesthetic reading, the main focus isn't on what students remember about a text after they've read it, but on what happens to them while they read. The primary goal during aesthetic reading isn't to gather information but to experience the text. Although the aesthetic reader needs to understand the text, they must also "pay attention to associations, feelings, attitudes, and ideas" that the text evokes (Rosenblatt, 1978). When we are in the throes of a novel, we are living in that experience. Generally, literature is written to offer an aesthetic experience. Most adults read literature for enjoyment; they don't read it primarily to learn, even though we often do learn from it. Students also need opportunities to have similar experiences. We explore aesthetic reading further in Chapter 11 when discussing narrative texts and an instructional routine called literature circles. Before concluding our discussion on meaning construction, we should consider one more important and influential theory, sociocultural theory.

Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory broadens and extends the influence of the cognitive-constructivist perspective beyond just the reader and the text into the broader social context. Learning is seen primarily as a social process rather than an individual one. This theory still closely resembles constructivism, emphasizing that learning is an active, constructive process and that what is learned is subjective. As explained by its originator, Vygotsky (1978), or by Vygotskian scholars such as Wertsch (1998), sociocultural theory is intricate. Nonetheless, its implications for reading and learning can be summarized.

First, students' social and cultural backgrounds have a significant and undeniable impact on their learning. Unless we as teachers take students' social backgrounds and modes of learning and thinking into account, little learning is likely to occur. Second, because learning is inherently social, much learning—especially the most effective and lasting types—happens when groups of learners collaborate. Dialogue—an exchange of ideas and face-to-face discussion in which students aim to be understood and to grasp others' perspectives—is a fundamental part of learning. Third, the classroom, the school, and various student communities within a classroom are social environments that greatly influence what is or isn't learned, and each must be thoughtfully considered in planning and implementing instruction.

To illustrate how these various theories of meaning construction operate within the same book, we take you into a fourth-grade classroom where the students are reading Phyllis Reynolds Naylor's *Shiloh. In the Classroom 1.2* offers a segment of that instruction.

In the Classroom 1.2

How Students Construct Meaning

In Ms. Gladwell's fourth-grade classroom, one of her groups is reading *Shiloh,* a novel about Marty, an 11-year-old who rescues an abused dog and faces several moral dilemmas. This is the first novel they will read during the school year, and for several students, it is the first novel they have ever read. As the students read and discuss the book, Ms. Gladwell is aware that she must address their comprehension from an efferent, or close-reading, perspective while allowing for an aesthetic response to the text. She hopes they become captivated by Marty's problem. Several theories of comprehension underlie her instruction.

At the start of the novel, Ms. Gladwell has students focus on the facts and the text's structure. They create a character list and draw a map of the setting. In the character list, they identify each major character and their relationships with others. Characters are added to the chart as they are introduced in the text. Ms. Gladwell

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

writes the list on a large sheet of chart paper and students copy it into their readers' notebooks. They are encouraged to update their list as they discover new information (Collinge & Robinson, 2015).

Character List

- Marty—11 years old, likes animals
- Dara Lynn—Marty's sister
- Becky—Marty's sister
- Ma—Mother
- Dad—a hunter, kind toward dogs
- Shiloh—a skinny beagle
- Judd Travers—Shiloh's owner, a hunter, cruel to his dogs

Starting from this largely efferent stance—gathering information and focusing on text structure—the teacher gradually guides students toward an interpretive mindset. As the students move into the second quarter of the novel, they uncover the moral dilemmas that trouble Marty. Marty wants to rescue Shiloh from his abusive owner, Judd, but must do so secretly, lying to his parents. At this point, Ms. Gladwell and her students create a new character list that explores each main character's beliefs. They soon realize what Marty is learning about the complexity of moral life.

What the Characters Believe About Right and Wrong

Character	Belief
Marty	Shiloh's safety is more important than the law.
	You can lie by not saying anything.
	The Bible isn't always clear about what is right and what is wrong.
	It is wrong to steal from your family.
Dad	Right and wrong are defined by the law.
Judd	Right and wrong are defined by you. You should have the freedom to do what you want.

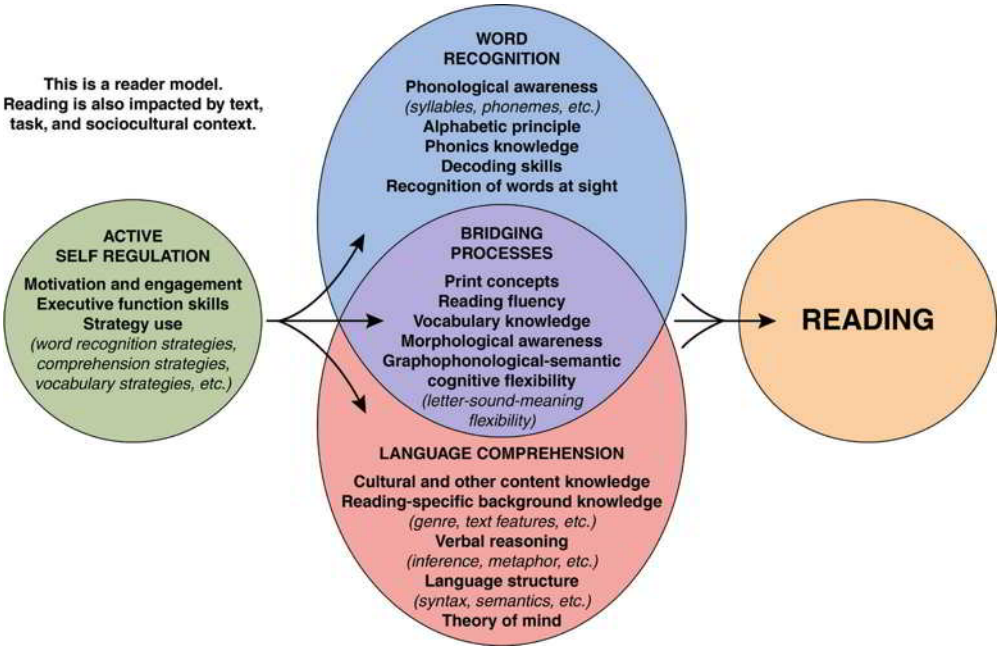
As the students read deeper into the novel, they are living through Marty's problem: What is the right thing to do? How can Marty save Shiloh and defy Judd without incurring the wrath of his parents, punishment, and the loss of the dog?

At this point, the students are engaged in close reading, studying the book to extract its nuances. Still, they are also experiencing an aesthetic response as they live through Marty's fears, indecision, and anxiety. Ultimately, they must be critical readers, taking a moral stance toward the book and in their own lives. As readers, they have to decide how to determine right and wrong. This is why we read fiction: to learn about the values, ethics, and morality of human life and to revel in the excitement of the story. The strategies and knowledge of text structure that are often at the center of our curriculum are the tools that foster our pleasure and enable us to grapple with these deep human questions.

In concluding this section on the reading process, it is worth pointing out that although constructivism as a theory was developed nearly 40 years ago, it is entirely consistent with the model of reading comprehension developed by the RAND Reading Study Group (2002), a group commissioned by the U.S. Department of Education to review the research on reading comprehension: "We define reading comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language." The RAND group notes that comprehension involves the reader, the text, the activity, and the sociocultural context.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

FIGURE 1.13
Imagining What Is Happening Inside the Mind of the Reader



Source: Used with permission from Duke, N. K., & Cartwright, K. B. (2021). The science of reading progresses: Communicating advances beyond the simple view of reading. Reading Research Quarterly, 56, S25-S44.

Our understanding of the reader has been expanded by the work of Duke and Cartwright (2021), Paris (2026) and Elleman (2019). **Figure 1.13** is the Duke and Cartwright model, one that updates what the Scarborough Rope Model does not discuss. To these researchers, two conceptions of reading stand out. First, reading is an intentional process with active self-regulation. Young children through adults are motivated to read. We set a purpose for reading, use strategies to recognize words and develop understanding, and monitor our understanding and repair it when it breaks down.

Second reading is not composed of two distinct processes, decoding and comprehension; rather, skills bridge them. Vocabulary knowledge is essential for word recognition and comprehension. Fluency makes word recognition functional and supports comprehension, and the awareness of morphemes, the smallest unit of meaning (*-s*, *-ing*, *-tion*, *trans*), is essential to both word recognition and comprehension.

Beyond this expanded view of the reader, the conception of reading in the RAND report still holds sway. The text matters. How we read a poem, a novel, and an Internet article differs. Reading *The Old Man and the Sea* for your seventh-grade English teacher is different from reading the same novel on the beach during the summer. The RAND committee's work and the thinking of Duke and Cartwright reinforce the focus on the constructive nature of reading.

Constructivism and the construction-integration model are consistent with the Common Core State Standards (CCSS, 2010) that currently drive the reading curriculum in most states. The CCSS states four major goals. We present these goals in **Figure 1.14** and indicate how they align with the construction-integration model. The CCSS set the goals for our reading curriculum, but with one glaring exception: the CCSS does not address the vital issue of motivation, and we discuss this in detail in Chapter 3.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 1.14
How the Construction-Integration Model Aligns with the Common Core State Standards

Anchor Standards in the Common Core State Standards	Elements of the Construction-Integration Model
Key Idea and Details Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it. Determine central ideas or themes of a text and analyze their development; summarize the key supporting details and ideas.	This standard aligns with the **construction** phase of the comprehension model. This standard aligns with both the ***construction*** and ***integration*** phase of the comprehension model.
Craft and Structure Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone. Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole.	These standards align with both the ***construction*** and ***integration*** phase of the comprehension model.
Integration of Knowledge and Ideas Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words. Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, including the validity of the reasoning as well as the relevance and sufficiency of the evidence.	These standards align with the **integration** phase of the comprehension model.
Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity Read and comprehend complex literary and informational texts independently and proficiently.	The construction integration model operates with any level of text complexity.

Source: Used with permission from Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a. Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Lit-eracy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers & National Governors Association.

Reflect and Apply

Comprehension is an active, constructive process that is emphasized throughout this book. This means that if you want to understand, remember the ideas we present, and apply them in your teaching, you need to engage with them mentally. Ideally, based on constructivist and sociocultural principles, you will discuss your responses with others—such as a study group, your class, or your instructor.

5. In this chapter, we discussed five models of the reading process, some more explicit than others. Choose one of the models and explain what you learned about teaching reading from it.
6. Suppose one teacher teaches the word *relax* by simply saying, "*Relax* means to loosen up," while another teaches it by showing students several pictures of people relaxing, having them assume relaxing positions themselves, and then asking them to discuss situations where they have felt comfortable and relaxed. Explain how the second teacher demonstrates a cognitive-constructivist perspective.
7. A reader can be metacognitive before reading, during reading, or after reading. Now that you have read this section of the chapter, practice your metacognitive skills by reflecting on your understanding of this section and of metacognition in particular. What steps could you take to better grasp the concepts in the chapter?

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

The Reading Corner

High-Interest, Engaging Books That Motivate Reading

To motivate students to read for both learning and pleasure, it is essential to introduce and make accessible high-interest, engaging books. The books listed here have been selected from those recommended by parents, teachers, librarians, and, mostly, young readers themselves, as fitting these criteria. Many of the books are part of a series that have proven among the most popular choices for young readers. The suggested grade levels are based on averages and recommendations and are not strict rules. For instance, the picture book *Call Me Roberto!* might be enjoyed by readers of all ages, and we know capable eight-year-olds who have devoured *The Sorcerer and the Stone.*

Books for Readers K–2

Natalalie Alonso. Illustrated by Rudy Gutierrez. *Call Me Roberto! Roberto Clemente Goes to Bat for Latinos*. Calkins Creek, 2024. Inspirational story of Puerto Rican-born Roberto Clemente who endured years of racism but rose to become one of the greatest baseball players of all time. 40 pages.

Joanna Cole. Illustrated by Bruce Degen. *The Magic School Bus Lost in the Solar System.* (Part of the *Magic School Bus* series.) Scholastic Press, 1992. In this popular book, the magic school bus turns into a spaceship and takes Ms. Frizzle's class soaring through the solar system, where many facts about the planets are revealed. 40 pages.

Eric Litwin. Illustrated by James Dean. *Pete the Cat. I Love My White Shoes.* (From the *Pete the Cat* series.) HarperCollins, 2010. Pete the Cat walks down the street in white shoes that change color when he steps in piles of various colored messes. But, whatever the mess or color, it's "all good." 40 pages.

Dave Pilkey. *Captain Underpants and the Wrath of the Wicked Wedgie Woman:* Color Edition (*Captain Underpants*, #5). Scholastic, Inc., 2023. In this installment of this extremely popular series, George and Harold, who are always good at using their imaginations, accidentally create a monster. Full of outrageous silliness that kids love. 176 pages.

Gideon Sterer. Illustrated by Emily Hughes. *If You Make a Call on a Banana Phone.* Clarion Books, 2025. This is a delightfully silly story full of joy and wisdom about making friends from unexpected places. 48 pages.

Adam Wallace. Illustrated by Andy Elkerton. *How to Catch a Dragon.* (From the *How to Catch* series.) Sourcebooks Wonderland, 2019. In this book, the How to Catch kids are off to catch a dragon as they chase him through Chinese New Year celebrations. 40 pages.

Mo Willems. *My New Friend Is So Fun!* From the *Elephant and Piggie* series. Hyperion Books for Children, 2014. Elephant Gerald and Piggie are best friends, but when Piggie finds a new friend, will Gerald be ready to share? That's the question to be answered in this installment of this delightfully charming series. 64 pages.

Jane Yolen. Illustrated by Mark Teague. *How Do Dinosaurs Eat Their Food?* (From the *How Do Dinosaurs*? series.) The Blue Sky Press, 2005. One of the 25 books in the series, this story delightfully illustrates how dinosaurs have a hard time behaving at the table just as children might. 40 pages.

For Readers Grades 3–4

Aaron Blabey. *The Bad Guys in One Last Thing* (*The Bad Guys* #20). Scholastic, 2024. Final installment of the wildly popular *The Bad Guys* series about four wannabe heroes, Wolf, Shark, Snake, and Piranha, as they set out for one last good deed. 192 pages.

Judy Blume. *Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing.* Puffin Books, 2007. In this first book of Judy Blume's popular Fudge series, Fudge, who grown-ups think is adorable but older brother Peter knows better, causes mischief wherever he goes. 120 pages.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Adam Gidwitz. *Max in the House of Spies: A Tale of World War II.* (*Operation Kinderspion: Part Two*.) Dutton Books for Young Readers, 2025. In this fast-paced tale of espionage and spies, Max, in trying to find his way back home to his parents in Berlin during World War II, sets out to become a British spy. 336 pages.

Abby Hanlon. *Dory Fantasmagory: Center of the Universe.* (Book 7 in the *Dory Fantasmagory* series.) Dial Books, 2025. In this episode of the laugh-out-loud *Dory Fantasmagory* series, Dory, the imaginative rascal with an outsize personality, joins her first soccer team. 160 pages.

Erin Hunter. Illustrated by Laszio Kubiny. *Survivors: The Gathering Darkness: The Final Battle.* (Book #6 from the *Survivors* series.) HarperCollins, 2019. An animal adventure story about the dog Storm, after discovering the identity of the traitor dog who was sabotaging her former pack, becomes a prisoner in the Wild Pack's camp. 352 pages.

Lauren Tarhis. *I Survived the Dust Bowl, 1935* (*I Survived* #25). Scholastic Inc., 2025. In this installment of the action-packed historical fiction series highlighting American historical events of the 1900s, 11-year-old Ray braves the dust storms that hit the Texas Panhandle in 1935. 144 pages.

E. B. White. Illustrated by Garth Williams. *Charlotte's Web.* HarperCollins, 1974. The beloved, heartwarming tale of a pig, a girl, and a spider that continues to cast its spell and capture the hearts of readers since its publication decades ago, a true literary classic. 184 pages.

For Readers Grades 5–6

Avi. *The Road From Nowhere.* Scholastic Press, 2026. In this big-hearted, old-west adventure from master storyteller and Newbery medalist Avi, 14-year-old Ollie is desperate to find his own lode of silver and get his family out of the silver mining town high in the Colorado desert. 288 pages.

Jeff Kinney. *Diary of a Wimpy Kid: PartyPooper*. (Book 20). Henry N. Abrams, 2025. Hands down, one of most popular series ever, in this installment Wimpy Kid Greg's plan for the ultimate birthday party backfires with unexpected and hilarious results. 274 pages.

Lois Lowery. *Number the Stars* (Reissue). Clarion Books, 2011. This 1990 Newbery Award winning classic historical novel tells the story of how Annamarie's family takes in and conceals her best friend Ellen as German troops begin to "relocate" all the Jews in Denmark. 160 pages.

Philip Pullman. *The Book of Dust: The Rose Field* (*Book of Dust,* Volume 3). Knopf Books for Young Readers, 2025. For more mature readers, this fantasy adventure book is the conclusion to Pullman's series that explores some of the deepest questions of what it means to be alive to all the "splendors and horrors" around us. 672 pages.

Rick Riodan. *Percy Jackson and the Olympians*: *Rath of the Triple Goddess: The Senior Year Adventures, Book 2.* Disney Hyperion, 2026. In his continuing quest to earn college recommendation letters from the gods, Percy has to pet sit the goddess Hecate's polecat and giant mastiff during Halloween week. 336 pages.

J. K. Rowling. *The Sorcerer and the Stone.* New stenciled edge edition of Book One in the series of seven Harry Potter books. Scholastic, Inc., 2024. In this book that started a literary phenomenon capturing the imaginations of millions of young readers, orphaned Harry Potter enrolls in Hogwarts, a school of wizardry, where he learns the truth about himself, his family, and the evil that haunts the magical world. 320 pages.

Ruta Sepetys and Steve Sheinkin. *The Bletchley Riddle.* Viking Books for Young Readers, 2024. In this historical adventure, 19-year-old Jakob and his quirky younger sister Lizzie find themselves involved in Britain's World War II codebreaking factory at Bletchley Park and embark on quest to unravel a mystery surrounding their mother's disappearance. 400 pages.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

A LITERACY CURRICULUM FOR TODAY'S AND TOMORROW'S WORLD

Decades of theory and research have enabled us to identify the components of a reading program that should lead all students to the high level of literacy required in the 21st century. Before continuing, we should note that this book focuses on reading; therefore, some aspects of a comprehensive literacy curriculum are not discussed, including spelling and handwriting. Although we consider writing in relation to reading, we do not present a complete writing program. Finally, we do not provide curricula for specific subjects, such as history or science. However, the reading curriculum we describe in this book is both broad and deep.

In almost all states, the influence of the National Reading Panel (NRP, 2000), the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 (NCLB, 2002), and the Race to the Top (ARRA, 2009) continues to shape educational policy, along with the Common Core State Standards and the science of reading movement in both its narrow and broader senses. The NRP influences curriculum decisions with states and school districts emphasizing phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension, while paying less attention to motivation. NCLB and Race to the Top have instilled high-stakes testing in our schools, although in some states the stakes of these tests have been lessened.

The Common Core State Standards (NGA & CCSSO, 2010) continue to define the reading and language arts standards in 39 states and the District of Columbia. Although some states have moved away from the Standards, others have renamed them to make their state standards appear locally developed. Even states like Minnesota and Virginia, which initially rejected the CCSS, have created their own standards that resemble the Common Core. By adopting the Common Core State Standards or a similar version, school districts and schools have developed or purchased curricula that:

1. Encourage students to read, write, and speak about the ideas in the text while minimizing personal interpretation. Close reading is common in many curricula although the evidence of its effectiveness is slim.
2. Have students read progressively challenging texts. Within and across grade levels, students should be guided to read more complex texts so they are eventually prepared to encounter similar texts in the workplace and in college.
3. Shape the type of tests that are used to assess students' growth in reading.

The science of reading movement has greatly influenced reading curriculum and instruction. About 40 states have enacted laws requiring the science of reading in some form, and these states vary widely in how they define it (Neuman et al., 2025). Nearly all states have laws that include words like "evidence" and "research" in their legislation. Most of these laws mention teaching the five key components identified by the National Reading Panel: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. However, many of these laws lack any mention of building knowledge or motivating students to read. The science of reading has shaped reading curriculum and instruction, in a number of ways.

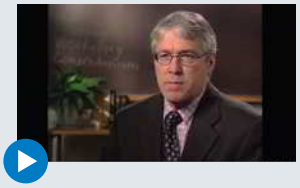
1. In most states, the concept of reading instruction has come to mean choosing the right commercial reading program (Aydarova, 2024). Most states have reviewed and approved core reading programs and created lists of recommended or required commercial options. Nine states have published mandatory lists of programs that school districts must buy, while another 30 have suggested lists. Many of these programs are labeled "High Quality Instructional Materials" on the assumption that using them will ensure that children learn to read. Despite arguments from some non-profit think tanks, no evidence has been published that commercial core programs significantly improve reading growth, beyond the benefits of a strong systematic phonics program (Slavin et al., 2009).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

2. The science of reading has established that systematic, explicit phonics instruction is essential. We certainly agree. However, developers of reading programs and states implementing them often fail to recognize that instruction must be tailored to each student. Some students learn to decode words easily, while others require more intensive instruction throughout the primary grades (Connor et al., 2013).
3. Most of the science of reading legislation has overlooked online reading to learn and the growing need for self-directed readers with critical reading skills. This is also true of commercial publishers trying to align their programs with the science of reading.
4. Most legislation related to the science of reading has also provided funds for staff development. We agree. Growing your knowledge is crucial to becoming an effective teacher. As we emphasized in this chapter, understanding the reading process will help you make informed decisions in your classroom. That understanding will guide you to instructional practices backed by research.

The rest of our book will help you select and implement instructional practices informed by research. Our text represents the current state of the science of reading.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.4



Before you read about the components of effective reading instruction, consider what Tim Shanahan, one of the authors of the National Reading Panel, has to say about the topic. How do our views diverge from Shanahan's.

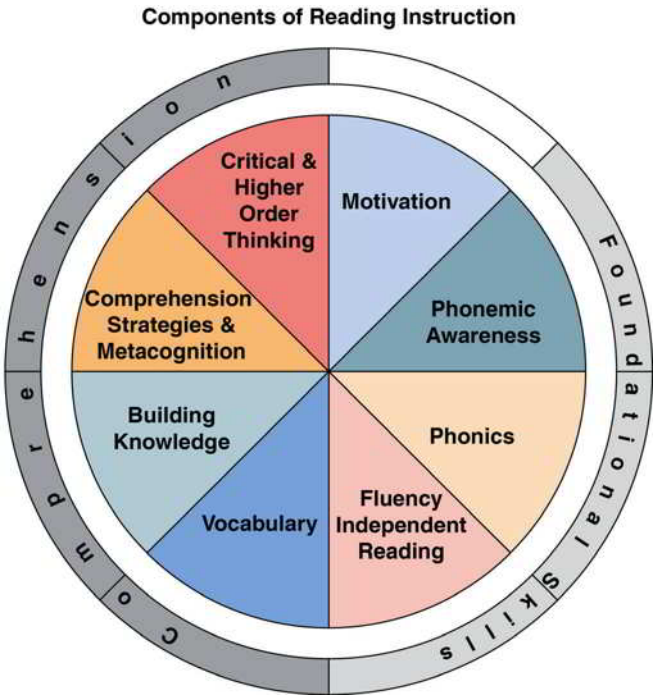
The Components of Effective Reading Instruction

Eight components are essential in reading instruction. Some like phonics and phonemic awareness lay the foundation for strong reading skills. Others, like comprehension strategies, metacognition, and critical thinking, become more important as students move into upper elementary and middle school. Some components like vocabulary, independent reading, and motivation are essential throughout schooling and beyond. In **Figure 1.15** and beyond, we expand on these eight components.

1. **Motivation**

   We recognize the huge importance of inspiring students to become literate and maintain their interest in reading over the years. It's easy to see reading as just a skill, but all skills are learned because we have goals beyond just performing effortlessly. We learn to read because it's a rite of passage into adulthood. Most kids simply want to learn to read. After enjoying the performance, there should

FIGURE 1.15
Major Components of the Present-Day Literacy Curriculum



Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

be satisfaction in the book itself. Reading offers entertainment and escape. It's a tool that helps us learn and understand the complex scientific, economic, and political world around us. Reading is crucial for success in higher education and at work. As our children increasingly get distracted by big screens and small screens—where Amazon's Alexa, TikTok, and Instagram report the news and answer trivial questions—we must find ways to make reading exciting.

2. **Phonemic Awareness and Emergent Literacy**

   As part of learning to read, students need to internalize a significant amount of knowledge about print and its connection to speech. One key element of this knowledge is phonemic awareness—the understanding that spoken words are made up of distinct sounds. However, there are many other aspects of emergent literacy. For example, students must recognize that the written language they are just beginning to learn is similar in many ways to the oral language they already know well. Additionally, as part of emergent literacy, children need to develop positive attitudes about reading and their ability to learn to read.

3. **Phonics and Word Recognition Skills**

   Phonics is the part of reading instruction that emphasizes the connections between letters and sounds. Children use their understanding of phonics to decode written words they do not immediately recognize. If an experienced reader sees the word *garment* and doesn't recognize it right away, they can follow a series of steps to pronounce it correctly. As children learn to read, they build knowledge of orthographic (spelling) patterns to identify new words. Phonics skills help children become confident, independent readers. Additionally, other word recognition skills—such as identifying syllables and managing word parts like prefixes and suffixes—also support children's independence as readers.

4. **Fluency and Independent Reading**

   Students must move from slow accurate word recognition to automatic or fluent word reading. Fluency combines accuracy, automaticity, and oral-reading prosody, which, taken together, help the reader understand meaning (Schwanenflugel & Kuhn, 2015). Additionally, students must develop fluency in their silent reading, reading at an appropriate pace and with comprehension (Kim,2015). Several effective strategies can build students' fluency, but none are more important than a robust independent reading program in every classroom. It's not enough for students to just read and understand assigned texts. They must become independent readers who choose to read voluntarily for pleasure, knowledge, and satisfaction that only reading can provide.

5. **Vocabulary Learning and Instruction**

   A substantial amount of research has examined students' vocabulary knowledge, and reliable estimates indicate that many students learn about 5,000 words from reading by the end of first grade and roughly 50,000 words by high school graduation (Graves, 2016, 2022). Clearly, vocabulary development is a vital task throughout children's school years, and effectively improving students' vocabularies requires a comprehensive, long-term approach. That approach includes rich, diverse language experiences, instruction in individual words, strategies for learning new words, and the promotion of word awareness.

6. **Building Knowledge**

   Comprehension is both a complex process and the ultimate goal of reading, so comprehension instruction must be strong, long-lasting, and multifaceted. Many building blocks contribute to comprehension, and knowledge is essential. We use our background knowledge to create meaning, and reading helps us build more knowledge. In a solid comprehension curriculum, the stories, articles, and books students read build knowledge from one text to the next, with each text providing the information needed for the following one (Kim et al., 2024). Teachers can also activate and develop knowledge before students read and help students connect what they know to the text as they read (Hattan & Lupo, 2020).

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 1.5

Instruction in phonemic awareness needs to be explicit, with the teacher directly explaining and modeling a language concept. How does the teacher make phonemic awareness explicit?

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

First, we want students to recognize that what they bring to school—the wealth of out-of-school experiences they gain when they start first grade and that continue to grow each year—is relevant to what they learn in class. For example, the pride they felt when they were first allowed to go shopping alone can help them understand a story character's emotions when they overcome a challenge. Second, we want students to see that the subjects they study in school are connected in many ways. Knowledge of the American Revolution from social studies can help them understand Johnny's motives in Esther Forbes's *Johnny Tremain*. Third, we want students to recognize that ideas and concepts learned in school apply to their lives outside of school.

7. **Comprehension Strategies and Metacognition**

   Comprehension is an active process, and readers work to construct meaning. Good readers set a purpose for reading and monitor their reading to ensure the meaning they create makes sense. They use strategies, mental acts, to help their understanding (Duke et al., 2021). Although many strategies have been identified, a few are repeatedly highlighted as especially effective: establishing a purpose for reading, using prior knowledge, asking and answering questions, making inferences, identifying what is essential, summarizing, and monitoring comprehension (Dewitz & Graves, 2024). The active application of knowledge and strategies depends on motivation. Students must care; they must want to learn from and engage with the text.

8. **Critical and Higher-Order Thinking**

   We want students to progress from simple understanding to higher-order thinking. Students should be able to handle complex tasks such as analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating. While reading, we aim to foster deep and lasting understanding—teaching in a way that helps students truly grasp topics, retain key information, and actively apply what they learn across tasks both inside and outside of school.

   Reading has always required critical thinking, but in the Internet age, it has become an essential survival skill. Information floods our lives, making it vital for everyone to find what they need and for students to evaluate the trustworthiness of what they read. Students should consider who authored the information, their credentials, and their political views. An article on the weather, for example, will have a different perspective coming from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration than from a political website. Instead of dedicating a whole chapter to critical thinking and the Internet, you will find both of these topics integrated throughout the book in chapters on selecting texts, comprehension strategies, and reading informational texts.

Technology and Artificial Intelligence

We wrote this book anticipating the upcoming storm of Artificial Intelligence. Unfortunately, little is known about how AI will affect learning to read and teaching children to read. Despite this, we want to share our thoughts and experiences with it. AI is a promising technology that could drastically change our civilization. It is also heavily hyped to ensure that the billions invested will generate profits, and this hype both amazes and frightens us (Bender & Hanna, 2025). Be very cautious with this new technology. We believe all educators can learn from past technological innovations and avoid repeating the same mistakes. Like previous technologies, there is a fear of missing out (FOMO).

When laptop computers became less expensive, schools were encouraged to give one to every student, from kindergarten through twelfth grade. The impact of providing each student with a laptop was modest and quite specific. Research has shown that moderate, intentional use of computers is linked to improved writing outcomes but not to reading outcomes. Large-scale distribution of laptops without careful planning by school administrators and teachers led to pointless work with no

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

real benefits for students (Zheng et al., 2016). When schools invested in staff training and considered how students could effectively use laptops, students experienced notable benefits for their writing.

What can we reasonably expect from Artificial Intelligence? First, AI can serve as a tool for teachers to plan their instruction. Throughout this book, we used AI to generate word lists for teaching word recognition and vocabulary instruction. AI can be used to create games for practicing word recognition or to develop meaningful sentences that demonstrate the proper use of new words. We used AI to create graphics, such as Figure 1.15, outlining the components of a reading curriculum, but it took an hour to write detailed instructions to guide ChatGPT to do so. AI can also be used to create items for assessing students' word recognition and vocabulary knowledge. Even if you rely on AI for lesson planning, you must have enough knowledge to evaluate whether the lessons, activities, and words align with your goals. Use AI carefully and critically.

Currently, we do not see a role for AI in directly teaching elementary and middle school students to read and write. We believe that learning to read involves both social and cognitive processes, and that the teacher's interactions with students are essential for modeling and supporting early attempts at word recognition and comprehension (Carlisles et al., 2011; Piasta et al., 2009). Research on assistive technologies, such as text-to-speech, in which a computer pronounces words as students read on a screen, shows how AI could support students. However, this technology provides only limited benefits to older students with reading challenges and no benefits for students in kindergarten through second grade (Cimino et al., 2025; Garzon, 2025, 2020; MacArthur, 2019).

Finally, we see little role for AI in teaching elementary students to write. Students should learn to plan, draft, revise, edit, and publish independently. Only after they can write well on their own should teachers consider allowing them to use AI as a support tool. For students who have some facility with the writing process, AI might be a useful editing tool. Remember, though, that writing is thinking, and students need to learn to think. A recent study found that when adults use AI to support their writing, they think much less than when they write without AI (Kosmyna et al., 2025). Be cautious with AI, use it for planning, but rely on what you know to critique what AI offers.

Making Instructional Decisions

To develop and implement a literacy curriculum, you need to make instructional decisions and have the tools to do so. Over the past several decades, our school populations have become more diverse. We now have many English learners, large numbers of students living in or near poverty, and an increasingly larger number of students with a special education label. The special education population grew from 8.3% in 1976 to 15% in 2015 (NCES, 2023). English learners currently make up 10.6% of the public-school population, compared to 7.3% in 1980 (Irwin et al., 2021). Beyond these groups, children vary in how they learn and at what pace. Teachers need to explore how to effectively differentiate instruction in the classroom.

Our text is designed for teachers working in general education classrooms, teaching a diverse group of students. Nearly everything we wrote applies to English learners or students who need extra support. Many of your students will require additional help, and as their teacher, you will collaborate with reading specialists, special education teachers, counselors, and educators experienced in working with students whose first language isn't English.

To meet the eight curriculum goals we listed in Figure 1.15 and the increasingly diverse needs of the students in your classrooms, you will need some tools.

- The first tool is an understanding of the reading process. You need to understand how children read and how they learn to read. A theory of the reading process underlies all instructional decisions. If you believe that reading is a series of neatly separated components, you will employ a discrete-skills approach, teaching them one at a time. If you view reading development as

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

the product of knowledge, strategies, and motivation, you favor a more constructivist approach. We discussed the reading process in this chapter.

- Next, you need to understand the fundamental principles of reading instruction. What are the main methods for teaching reading, and where did they originate? In Chapter 2, we provide a brief history of reading instruction so you can embrace time-tested instructional approaches and avoid untested fads.
- You need to know how to motivate your students, and in Chapter 3, I will explain how. Your students' classroom work should be engaging so that, at the end of each day, they look forward to the next. Beyond the classroom, we want your students to become readers, and this motivational goal is a challenge in an era dominated by cellphones, tablets, and digital games.
- You need to organize space and time in your classroom to meet the needs of all your students. The physical layout helps you teach the whole class, work with groups of students, and meet with individuals. Time is also essential. You'll quickly find that you don't have enough time to do everything you want. Some students will need more of your time and others less. Finally, you'll need to differentiate instruction and form small groups for students who need extra help. We cover these topics in Chapter 4.
- You need to learn how to assess your students so you can design instruction that meets their needs. In most schools, you'll be asked to administer and interpret a range of assessments. State assessments evaluate programs and the quality of schools and teachers. District assessments help prepare students for state tests and measure their progress each month. The formative assessments you create give you a weekly view of your students' learning. Often, observing your students and evaluating their daily work provides insight into their progress. Diagnostic tests help place students in appropriate texts and identify their strengths and weaknesses. In Chapter 5, we will explain these assessments and guide you in managing them.
- Finally, you will need to select texts for reading instruction and help students choose books for their independent reading. Today, most school districts have purchased a core reading program. A core program provides many texts and instructional materials, but usually there are not enough texts for students to become fluent readers (Brenner & Heibert, 2010). You will need to supplement these programs with additional texts for beginning reading instruction and novels or trade books to build knowledge and comprehension in upper grades. In Chapter 6, we will guide you through the process of choosing texts for reading instruction.

With these tools in hand, you will be ready to teach your students to read. The rest of the chapter deals with specific age groups and instructional approaches. All these approaches have a strong research base and some are branded as specific Instructional Routines.

- In Chapter 7, we focus on the youngest readers, children in pre-kindergarten who are just learning to read. We call these student emergent readers because there is no official start date for learning to read. Throughout the early years of life, students are learning about books and print.
- In Chapter 8, we focus specifically on learning to recognize words. We describe the process of learning to read words and include many lesson plans for teaching students to do.
- In Chapter 9, we explain how to help students transition from slow, accurate readers to fluent, expressive readers. To do so, students need to read widely and some require specific instructional activities to build reading fluency.
- In Chapter 10, we explain how to build your students' vocabulary. To do so, they need many language experiences, instruction in word meanings, and the tools to infer word meanings while they read.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

- In Chapter 11, we shift our focus to reading comprehension. First, we explain how comprehension happens and then we consider how to teach comprehension for narrative texts.
- In Chapter 12, we discuss teaching students to comprehend informational text, texts that include their science book, historical articles, and the myriad of texts they will find on the Internet.
- In Chapter 13, we explain how writing improves reading and vice versa. We discuss specific techniques for using writing to improve reading comprehension.
- Finally, in Chapter 14, we will help you apply instruction in word recognition, vocabulary, and comprehension to those students in your classroom whose first language is not English.

Reflect and Apply

Teaching reading requires substantial knowledge to make informed decisions. As one educator wrote, "teaching reading is rocket science" (Moats, 2020).

8. The science of reading and the Common Core State Standards are important influences on reading instruction. Take a moment to review what we've shared and determine if these two policy initiatives are aligned or in conflict. You might also consider listening to the podcast *Sold a Story* to understand what the science of reading truly means.
9. We have identified eight major components of a reading curriculum and reading instruction. Does each of these components have a specific place or time in a reading classroom? Which elements of reading should be integrated into everything you do in the classroom?
10. You will be teaching many computer experts and school administrators who advocate for including AI in reading education. How will you respond to these experts and supporters?

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, we highlighted four key points. First, we described the reading process that underpins this book—the cognitive-constructivist view. We also explained how the cognitive-constructivist perspective aligns with research and the science of reading, and how it offers better instructional guidance than some currently popular models of reading. Additionally, we discussed several concepts that expand and complement this view—such as the construction-integration model of comprehension, automaticity, fluency, and metacognition. Second, we briefly described U.S. students' reading proficiency, compared their current proficiency with past levels and with students in other industrialized nations, and outlined the literacy skills needed for today's and tomorrow's world. Third, we listed the components of the current literacy curriculum that serve as the foundation for this book. Fourth, we provided an overview and explained the common organizational structure shared by all chapters.

The topics in this chapter are crucial to understand because they lay the foundation for the rest of the book. As we have stressed many times, reading is enhanced by strong background knowledge. For this book, the more you learn about the reading process, models of reading, and the science behind them, the better prepared you'll be to help your students reach high literacy levels and develop a lifelong motivation to read. Understanding the curriculum components and how each chapter is structured will help you learn, remember, and apply the information and procedures more easily. Therefore, we strongly recommend reviewing the chapter, taking notes, revisiting some prompts in the Reflect and Apply sections, using suggestions from the Extending Learning section, and possibly exploring and reading some of the works listed in the references.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Extending Learning

Here we recommend several activities that extend beyond this book—to schools, students, teachers, parents, libraries, and other sources of information—to help you better understand and value your role in supporting children's literacy today.

1. One way to deepen your understanding of new and complex ideas is to consider various perspectives on them. The concepts we discussed about the reading process are described in many other texts, and all of these are complex enough to deserve further study. Choose two or three concepts that you want to explore more, and read about them in the references we have provided.
2. Visit the NAEP website (https://www.nationsreportcard.gov) and spend some time reviewing the most recent reading results for your state and a grade level that interests you. Print out a copy of the sample test items. Then, go to your state website and compare the passages and questions from the national and state tests, if those samples are available. Which test is the more rigorous assessment of reading? Does one of the tests require more higher-order thinking?
3. List the components of the current literacy curriculum we have outlined. Then, interview some elementary school teachers to find out which components they cover, which they do not, and the literacy activities they engage in that are not included in the curriculum presented in this chapter. Be sure to include teachers from primary, middle, and upper elementary grades. After completing your interviews, summarize what you have learned and comment on (1) how much the teachers you interviewed use the curriculum we have outlined, and (2) any components of the literacy curriculum that are not included among the components we consider but that you might want to add to your classroom.

Children's Literature

DiCamillo, K. (2000). *Because of Winn-Dixie*. Candlewick Press. A poignant and well-told story of a young girl building a new life after her mother left and she and her father moved to Florida—with, of course, a little help from her dog, Winn-Dixie. 182 pages.

Flake, S. G. (1998). *The Skin I'm In*. Jump at the Sun/Hyperion. Uncomfortable because her skin is extremely dark, 13-year-old Maleeka meets a new teacher with a facial birthmark and makes some discoveries about how to love who she is and what she looks like. 171 pages.

Forbes, E. (1998). *Johnny Tremain*. Houghton Mifflin. Johnny Tremain, apprentice silversmith, takes on the cause of freedom as a message carrier for the Sons of Liberty in pre-Revolutionary Boston. CD available. 293 pages.

Giff, P. R. (2004). *A House of Tailors*. Wendy Lamb Books. Set in the late 19th century, this novel for intermediate readers tells the story of how 13-year-old Dina adjusts to her new life in the United States after being sent from Germany to live in Brooklyn with her tailor uncle. 149 pages.

Hemingway, E. (1952, 2023). *The Old Man and the Sea*. Old man catches a big fish and fights off sharks. Scribner. 78 pages.

Kinney, J. (2014). *Diary of a Wimpy Kid*. A series of books about Greg Heffley as he navigates the problems of middle school. Abrams. 200+ pages.

Naylor, P. R. (2000). *Shiloh*. Marty faces moral dilemmas while secretly caring for an abused dog and lying to his parents about what he is doing. Atheneum. 144 pages.

Riordan, R. (2022). *Percy Jackson and the Olympians, Book One: The Lightning Thief*. Mythical creatures seem to be walking straight out of the pages of Percy's Greek mythology textbook and into his life. Hyperion. 414 pages.

Snicket, L. (2002). *The Carnivorous Carnival: Book the Ninth*. HarperCollins. The continued adventures and misadventures of the Baudelaire orphans in the Series of Unfortunate Events series. 286 pages.

Sun, C. F. (1994). *Mama Bear*. Houghton Mifflin. Young Mei-Mei bakes and sells cookies in order to earn enough money to buy a large and expensive stuffed bear for Christmas. Illustrated. 28 pages.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

CHAPTER 2

READING INSTRUCTION

Classroom Vignette

Work week is the week before the students return to school in August. Work week is when returning teachers set up their room, learn about the new school and district policies, and catch up on the gossip from the summer that is ending too soon. Work week for new teachers is exciting and stressful. It is the time when they try to find a match between what they learned in their college methods courses and the reality of their first job. This past work week was more stressful than many in recent memory since the state and the district has spent the last two years discussing the science of reading (SOR). Coming from the state department of education to the local school districts and to their school was a new set of standards and a new curriculum. For each school and for each teacher that means learning the standards for the grade level, learning how to use their new reading curriculum with its multi-volume teacher's edition, learning to give new assessments for screening students and learning to use a new report card that parallels the new standards and the new curriculum.

Mrs. Harrison, the principal, began the first meeting of work week facing apprehensive faculty and staff. Some teachers were versed in the science of reading, having listened to a podcast by Emily Hanford, a journalist critical of current instructional practice. And thousands of teachers participated in a Facebook discussion group on the science of reading. For many, the science of reading was new, and they were suspicious of new ideas because previous curriculum reforms had little impact on students' learning. The new curriculum had been presented over the summer through a series of webinars sponsored by the publisher. Most teachers had read the new standards, but the new assessment system had yet to be rolled out. While there was some griping, most teachers accepted the need for change.

After the initial morning meeting, two kindergarten teachers and three fourth-grade teachers confronted the principal and wanted to know why the new curriculum had replaced some of their favorite materials and lessons. The kindergarten teachers were concerned that their favorite children's books had been replaced by boring stories and articles in the new curriculum. They were also concerned that the phonics curriculum seemed more robust, demanding that kindergarten teachers teach skills such as consonant digraphs that previously been taught in first grade. The fourth-grade teachers had similar complaints. They argued that extending phonics instruction in fourth grade was unnecessary. Most of their students decoded well and were fluent readers. The teachers were also concerned that the new curriculum, focused heavily on short nonfiction articles on science and social studies topics, and would not allow them the time to teach beloved novels like *Holes* (Sachar) and *The Tale of Despereaux* (DiCamillo). This was the current reality of one elementary school that was changing its approach to reading instruction.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 2.1 Describe the history of reading instruction in America from the mid-19th century to the present and use that history to understand how the current approaches to reading reflect the tensions of the past.

LO 2.2 Discuss principles and practices of effective reading instruction including traditional and cognitive-constructive concepts and how to they apply to classroom instruction.

LO 2.3 Discuss why implicit instruction is essential for developing strong readers and contrast it with explicit instruction.

LO 2.4 Compare and contrast the major approaches to reading instruction and consider how the science of reading movement has changed our impressions of these approaches.

Change is the one constant in American education. For the past 70 years, American educators have been pushed and pulled in many directions. The current push is coming from the science of reading movement, but the influence of older movements like that of the Common Core State Standards (NGA & NCSS, 2010) and the cognitive–constructive perspective on comprehension instruction that emerged in the 1980s is still influencing instruction across the country.

Our goal in this chapter is to explain the principles of effective reading instruction. The first step in doing that will be to look back in history and see how reading has been taught. Next, we will look at highly effective schools and effective teachers and discuss some traditional perspectives on instruction and then describe the more recent advances in instruction that are part of the cognitive–constructive approach. That approach stresses being explicit in teaching, modeling how good readers think, and providing your students with support as they try out new skills and new ways of interacting with text. We will also describe implicit instruction because much of what students learn about reading and language, they learn while they are reading, writing, listening, and speaking. We want a classroom environment where students learn more than what they are taught. We will conclude this section by presenting the major approaches to reading instruction currently employed across the country. But before we begin, we will take a look back at the history of reading instruction in the United States, especially the last 75 years, a period of time that has witnessed a number of perceived literacy crises.

Instruction is the procedures and practices teachers use to help students acquire new knowledge, skills, and attitudes. When Lee Shulman described teaching, he said, "there are ways of talking, showing, enacting, or otherwise representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern, the unskilled can become adept" (Shulman, 1987, p. 14). To this, we would add that those without motivation can become engaged and interested.

To help students with these acquisitions, teachers explain concepts and skills, show students how to use them, aid students as they try out new tasks, and provide ample feedback and opportunities to practice. Teachers organize instruction so that students will use their new knowledge and skills long after they have moved on to other topics and other grades. Good teachers try to make all of this as lively and interesting as possible because motivated students are deeply engaged in reading and writing. Good teachers provide students who struggle with reading as much help as possible while guiding and encouraging those who are surging ahead.

Reflect and Apply

1. Think about the best teacher or teachers you ever had—elementary, secondary, or higher education. What made the instruction of these teachers particularly strong? Try to ignore for now the personality traits of these teachers.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

2. If you are currently working in a school, in any capacity, think about the new initiates in the school and how the teachers and administrators are reacting to them.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF READING INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

Reading instruction and how to teach reading have frequently been controversial and continue to be so. The history of the United States and its schools reveals cyclical changes in which alternating political and educational ideas at first received widespread support, only to later draw heavy criticism and disapproval (Cremin, 1990; Graves & Dykstra, 1997; Tierney & Pearson, 2021). Understanding this history will help you understand the present and perhaps avoid the pitfalls of the past. As Pearson and Cervetti (2017) write: "Ideas and practices come with ancestors and precedents, even when they appear to emerge suddenly, they persist long after their theoretical and research foundation appear to have been overturned" (p. 13).

Since the early 19th century, there have been many debates about the best methods for teaching young children to read, but fewer arguments about promoting the reading ability of older children. To understand the development of contemporary approaches to teaching reading, the history of reading instruction in the United States is best studied against the backdrop of tensions between a direct, or didactic, approach to teaching the skills of reading and a more holistic or child-centered approach that puts meaning making first. In the brief history that follows—parts of which rely heavily on information taken from Nila Banton Smith's *American Reading Instruction* (2002), Pearson and Cervetti's (2017) work on reading comprehension, and Tierney and Pearson's *A History of Literacy Education* (2021)—we focus on these tensions.

The Colonial Period and the 19th Century

The period extending roughly from 1600 to 1840 was relatively free of tensions over instructional approaches. There was tension about the content of early reading books. The purpose of reading instruction early in the period was clearly religious, as revealed by this excerpt from the Old Deluder Act passed by the General Court of Massachusetts in 1647:

> *It being one chief point of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures. . . . It is therefore ordered that every township in this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty households, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and read.* (Quoted in Smith, 2002)

Beginning about the time of the American Revolution and continuing until about 1840, the purpose shifted, and reading instruction and textbooks reflected what Smith has termed a *nationalistic-moralistic emphasis*, as exemplified in these lines from the preface to Lyman Cobb's *The North American Reader* (1835):

> *The pieces in this work are chiefly American. The English Reader so largely used in our country does not contain a single piece or paragraph written by an American citizen. Is this good policy? Is it patriotism?* (Cobb, 1835)

However, regardless of whether the reading material focused on religious or patriotic content, the method of instruction throughout the period was much the same—the alphabetic-spelling method, a plodding, step-by-step approach in which students first learned the alphabet, next learned to spell a large number of syllables, and then spelled words before they read them. At this time, students memorized sections of text (usually religious, moral, or patriotic in content) and recited them aloud (Smith, 2002).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Comprehension, however, was largely an afterthought. In the early 19th century, the goal of reading was to read familiar texts aloud, the Bible or a hymnal, with expression and intonation. Oral performance was the measure of good reading. There was a small number of educated White men and women who did read with strong comprehension, but this was not the goal for all people. Developing comprehension was not an explicit goal of instruction but a byproduct of memorizing text.

Not surprisingly, this approach eventually came under fire, most notably by educational reformer Horace Mann, who advocated instead a focus on whole words and letter sounds. In an 1842 report to the Board of Education in Massachusetts, Mann displays his disdain for the alphabetic-spelling approach and pushed for a meaning-focused approach that foreshadows the controversy that, though modified, continues today:

> *Compare the above method [the more meaningful approach Mann favored] with that of calling up a class of abecedarians—or, what is more common, a single child—and while the teacher holds a book or card before him, with a pointer in his hand, says, a, and he echoes a; then b, and he echoes b; and so on until the vertical row of lifeless and ill-favored characters is completed, and then of remanding him to his seat, to sit still and look at vacancy*. (Mann, 1884/1965)

From the American Revolution through the early 1800s, children spent little time in school so only one or two books were used to teach reading. The first textbook designed specifically for the colonies was *The New England Primer*. published from the late 17th century until the end of the 18th century. This slim volume was used to teach letters, sounds, syllables, and short sentences from the Bible. The New England Primer was replaced by Noah Webster's *The American Spelling Book*; first published in 1783, it stayed in print for over 35 years. As students stayed in school longer, Webster added a second and a third book, *The Little Reader's Assistant* (1790) and *An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking* (1787). All of these texts emphasized pronunciation and oral expression while reading selections on history, morality, religion, and popular speeches of the time. **Figure 2.1** is a list of rules for reading well by Joshua Leavitt in his *Easy Lessons in Reading* (1832).

By the mid-1800s, reading programs and reading instruction began to evolve as society and schools changed. As the country's population grew and children stayed in school longer, they were divided into grades, and eventually publishers offered

FIGURE 2.1
Rules for Reading: Joshua Levitt (1832)

If you wish to know how to read well, you must learn these rules by heart.

1. Be careful to *call* your words right.
2. Learn to *pronounce* them properly.
3. Speak with a *clear* and *distinct* voice.
4. Do not read too *fast*. Read *slow* and *carefully*, so as not to make any *mistakes*.
5. Be very particular to observe all the *Stops*.
6. Learn to use the proper *Emphasis* and *Inflections* of the voice. Ask your teacher to show you what that means, and how to do it.
7. Endeavor to *understand* every word you read as you go along. *Study* your reading lessons very carefully as you read.
8. Try to read as if you were telling a story to your mother or talking with some of your playmates. *Reading is talking from a book.*
9. Take pains to *read* the poetry and not to *sing* it.
10. The emphatic words are printed in *Italic* letters.

Source: Based on Joshua Leavitt. (1832). *Easy Lessons in Reading: For the Use of the Younger Classes in Common Schools.* J. & J.W. Prentiss.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

one book for each grade. The most popular were the *McGuffey's Eclectic Readers* published from 1835 until 1920 and selling over 120 million copies. McGuffey, a professor of moral philosophy, included a lesson plan with each selection, an idea he took from Samuel Worcester. (Worcester sued McGuffey for plagiarism and won an out-of-court settlement for $2,000.) Before students read the selection, the teacher provided a bit of background information, and after the selection was read there were lists of words and definitions to study, comprehension questions, and guides to common pronunciation errors.

By the end of the 19th and into the 20th century, reading programs began to look a bit more like they do now. These published reading programs were called basal readers because they formed the base for teaching children to read. The programs typically had one or more anthologies of stories for each grade plus a teacher's guide with lessons for teaching children to read. Over time, more robust teachers' guides were developed just as teachers received more education in the process of teaching reading. In 1900, *The New Education Readers* (Demarest & Van Sickle, 1900) contained a 13-page teacher's guide for the first-grade program. Today, the teachers' guides for *Into Reading* (Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 2020) consist of 12 separate volumes of instructions totaling over 3,000 pages.

Basal Readers from the Beginning to the Middle of the 20th Century

Basal readers at the beginning of the 20th century contained a collection of reading selections with accompanying worksheets, teacher's manuals, tests, supplementary material, and lots of workbooks. The books for the earliest grades employed strictly controlled vocabularies and generally contained very brief narratives, relying on pictures to convey much of their meaning. The books in the remainder of the primary grades continued to employ controlled vocabularies and contained largely fiction focusing on typical middle-class life, fantasy, safe adventures, and moderately preachy stories. Educators like Arthur Gates and William S. Gray believed that children should learn easy common words first, and the key was repetition. An early reading text, called a preprimer, contained language like this: Ride. See me ride. I ride fast. Fast, fast, fast.

In the fourth grade, selections became longer, vocabulary control eased, and more genres of fiction were included, along with a few expository selections. Much of the instruction students received in these programs was organized around the directed reading lesson—which included preparing students for reading, silent reading of a fiction or nonfiction selection, and follow-up questions and discussion. These lessons were often punctuated by skills work in decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension, and students spent a good deal of time completing worksheets.

As basal reading programs grew, they began to incorporate more skill work—comprehension, vocabulary, and study skills. Some argue that comprehension skills—finding the main idea, distinguishing fact from opinion, or grasping an author's organizational pattern—had their origin in survey work conducted by William S. Grey, who was the author of the Curriculum Foundation Series, better known as Dick and Jane (Dewitz et al., 2010). Others suggest that the new comprehension assessments and reading skills grew up together with each influencing the other (Pearson & Cervetti, 2017). The developers of comprehension tests had to test something, *skills*, and the authors of basal programs tended to teach what was tested, *skills*.

The increasing number of skills raised two important questions for the publishers: "In what order should the skills be taught?" and "How much time or emphasis should be given to each skill?" To answer these questions, the publishers created scope and sequence charts that identify the skills to teach and review each week. Scope and sequence charts guided instruction over the academic year. As the scope and sequence charts became more complex and the number of skills grew, there was a need to give teachers more explicit guidance in the teacher's manual.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.1

Introduced in the 1930s and used until 1965, a particular basal series. was used in teach reading in many U.S. classrooms. What theory of early reading instruction influenced the development of this program?

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=72qQKI7IYII

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

The Period of Continual Reform in Reading Education: From 1950s to the Present

From the 1950s to the present, American educators, students, and their parents lived through periods of perceived crises followed by reform efforts. Every political and economic jolt to the nation seemed to create a new reform movement in American schools influencing how reading was taught. The reform movements reflected a pull between more holistic-meaning focused instruction and more skills-based instruction, centering on letters, sounds, and words. The push and pull of these two forces were portrayed as a pendulum swinging from one side to another (Cuban, 1990). Others called it the Reading Wars (Kim, 2008), and the battle is still with us today as the science of reading movement seeks to reform instruction.

In **Table 2.1**, we present a timeline of the reforms. On the left side of the table, we list the influential books, reports, or podcasts that launched and defined the reform, and on the right side, a brief summary of the substance of the reform and its influence(s).

1950–1960: The Call for Phonics Instruction

Many believe that the first jolt to American education occurred when the Soviet Union launched Sputnik on October 4, 1957. This first man-made satellite led many Americans to doubt the prowess of our scientists and the schools that trained them.

TABLE 2.1
70 Years of Forces Pulling and Pushing on Classroom Reading Instruction

	Influential Books, Reports, Articles & Podcasts	Effects on Curriculum and Instruction
1950s	*Why Johnny Can't Read* (R. Flesch, 1955)	Awakened parents and the public to the evils of whole word method of beginning reading instruction and proclaimed the importance of phonics.
1960s	*Learning to Read: The Great Debate* (J. Chall, 1967) The First-Grade Studies (Bond & Dykstra, 1967)	Chall's review of research reinforced the importance of teaching phonics. The First-Grade Studies added weight to the teaching of phonics but also affirmed the importance of the teacher's decisions in the classroom.
1970s	*Understanding Reading* (F. Smith, 1971) *Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game* (K. Goodman, 1976)	Smith's book and Goodman's article pushed back on phonics and argued for a natural way to teach children to read—whole language.
1980s	*Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson et al., 1985) The Instruction of Reading Comprehension (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities (Palincsar & Brown, 1984)	Anderson turned the argument from just phonics and asserted the importance of the home, wide reading, and comprehension instruction. Pearson provided a model for teaching children to comprehend. Palincsar developed a method for teaching children to become strategic readers.
1990s	*Beginning to Read* (M. Adams, 1990) Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children (Snow et al. 1998)	Identified the importance of phonemic awareness and phonics in beginning reading instruction. Asserted that phonemic awareness and phonics were critical for children who struggle learning to read.
2000	*Report of the National Reading Panel* (2000) *RAND Reading Study Group* (Snow, 2002)	Identified phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension as five pillars of reading instruction. Developed a research framework to address the most pressing issues in literacy.
2010	*Common Core State Standards* (2010) *Revised Publishers' Criteria for the Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts and Literacy* (2012)	Defined national reading standards that focused on building knowledge, reading complex texts, and rigorous questioning by teachers.
2020	"Hard Words: Why Aren't Kids Being Taught to Read" (Hanford, 2018) "Sold a Story" (Hanford, 2022–2024) Fact-Checking the Science of Reading (Tierney & Pearson, 2024)	Identified balanced literacy as the cause of the *reading crisis* and declared that the *science of reading* points toward a strong focus on phonemic awareness and phonics. Questioned the assumptions and the research cited by many in the science of reading movement.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

At about the same time, parents were alarmed by the 1955 publication of Rudolf Flesch's text *Why Johnny Can't Read*. Flesch charged that American children were not learning to read because they were not taught phonics and predicted a dire future for the nation. Flesh criticized the dominate whole-word method, where children were introduced to high frequency, common words (*look, jump, see, run*), and these were repeated frequently, ensuring that students remembered them. Flesch wanted children to learn phonics and to sound out words.

A decade later, in 1967, Harvard University professor Jeanne Chall published a very influential review of research, *Learning to Read: The Great Debate* (1967), in which she concluded that phonics produced better results than the whole-word method. In that same year, the largest study of beginning reading ever conducted, the First Grade Reading Studies (Bond & Dykstra, 1967/1997), produced findings that tended to support Chall's conclusions. Although these three publications did eventually change the content of basals (it took more than 20 years), they did not seriously change the influence and prominence of basals in the schools (Pearson, 2000). Contrary to Flesch's charge, most basals had always included some phonics instruction, and basal publishers responded to criticisms by moderately increasing the amount of phonics instruction. As late as 1990, the vast majority of American children continued to be taught with basal readers, and most teachers, if asked, would have said that they used a basal reading approach (Chall & Squire, 1991).

Along with the basal reader, many school districts adopted a skills management approach to teaching word recognition, word analysis, vocabulary, and comprehension. Skills management systems identified and sequenced reading skills, provided worksheets for practicing the skills, and provided tests to monitor students' mastery. The Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development (Otto & Askov, 1971) is an example of a skills management system for teaching word attack, vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, and interpretative reading. Each of these broad areas was divided into many subskills, numbering from 100 to 400 different skills. Each week, students, based on their assessed needs, would work on different skills and take tests to determine their level of mastery.

The skills management approach proved to be so popular that it was adopted by developers of basal reading programs in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The sequence of skills instruction became more precise and robust, more skills were taught, the number of worksheets increased, and students took more mastery tests. This approach was so time-consuming that reading for pleasure and meaning became rare in many classrooms. Reading instruction was now driven by an accountability system that assessed a proliferating number of reading skills, often at the expense of reading books (Johnson & Pearson, 1975).

1970–1980: Whole-Language and Literature-Based Approaches

Advocates of more holistic approaches—whole-language and literature-based instruction—began to challenge basal reading programs in the late 1970s, particularly the practice of chopping reading up into a series of skills. The pendulum swung firmly to a focus on meaning as the key to learning to read. Whole language was popularized by influential articles by Kenneth Goodman (1976) and by Frank Smith's book *Understanding Reading* (1971). They charged that learning to read is a natural process, and breaking reading into a myriad of skills makes it challenging to learn. More specific charges were that basals included too much skills instruction, that instruction in phonics and other subskills of reading was not integrated with actual reading, that vocabulary was much too controlled, that stories were banal and not well constructed, that separating students into ability groups had dire results for less skilled readers, and that teachers were over-programmed and over-scripted.

Advocates of literature-based programs shared similar criticisms, though they tended not to be as adamantly opposed to basal anthologies as their whole-language colleagues. Both groups pushed for the use of authentic children's literature in

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

reading instruction and lamented the content of basal programs, which focused on white, middle-class characters, themes, and settings. Both groups had a marked effect on published reading programs and a huge effect on the reading instruction taking place in U.S. classrooms.

Three general characteristics of whole-language and literature-based instruction stand out: the use of authentic children's literature, a child-centered approach, and a focus on learning to read by reading. Advocates argued that authentic children's literature—books written by professional authors to engage and entertain children—should be the mainstay of reading instruction. Moreover, whole texts should be used; excerpts should be avoided. Students and their needs, desires, and interests should be the focus of attention, the primary concern. A preset curriculum is suspect. Student-initiated learning is favored over teacher-initiated instruction. Instruction comes when and as needed, while students are actually engaged in reading, and in quite brief mini lessons.

The influence of whole-language and literature-based instruction produced a significant change in basal reading programs, especially in first grade; many schools abandoned basals completely. Publishers of basals now picked reading selections for their literary merit and not based on their control and repetition of the vocabulary. Hoffman and his colleagues carefully documented these changes, examining first-grade basal programs from 1987 and 1993 (Hoffman et al., 1994). In the newer programs, students had to learn more than twice as many individual words as in the older ones. Each word appeared with far fewer repetitions, and the overall reading level for first grade was significantly more difficult. On the positive side, the material was judged to be more engaging. Educators and publishers were betting that interest and engagement would trump vocabulary control and phonics instruction.

Instruction in word recognition skills and strategies still played a part in these new basal reading programs, but the whole-language movement introduced a new and controversial method of teaching word recognition. Goodman and others erroneously believed that readers used three cues to identify words: the meaning of the sentence, the grammar, and the letter-sound patterns. Therefore, reading *house* for *home* in the sentence *John ran home* was not considered an error because the reader demonstrated that he had preserved the meaning of the sentence. The efficacy of the three-cueing system will become an issue again when the science of reading movement arises in 2018.

1980–1990: A New Focus on Reading Comprehension

In the early 1980s, many politicians and educators were again convinced that the nation faced a crisis because of the poor quality of kindergarten through college education. One report, *A Nation at Risk* (U.S. Department of Education, 1983), urged improved teacher training, a longer school day and school year, and the adoption of higher academic standards. Reading educators responded with their own report, *Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson et al.,1985), which recommended well-designed phonics instruction, a stronger focus on teaching comprehension, and improved teacher training. Other educators argued that the crisis was manufactured to serve political ends (Berliner & Biddle, 1995).

The researchers who wrote *Becoming a Nation of Readers* were among several leading a change in our understanding of reading comprehension and how it should be developed. They argued that enough was known about teaching word recognition and therefore researchers and educators should focus on developing students' comprehension. Propelled by radical changes in psychological theory and by a large-scale research effort launched at the Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois, researchers explored how background knowledge influenced reading comprehension and how skilled readers used strategies to make sense of text (Pearson & Cervetti, 2017). Pearson proposed the gradual release of responsibility model that changed the structure of comprehension instruction (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983), and Palincsar and Brown (1984) crafted an instructional technique on that model called

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

reciprocal teaching. These reports and research efforts attempted to settle the issue of how much emphasis to place on holistic-meaning-focused instruction and how much on skills-based instruction.

In the 1990s, while the federal government was funding research on reading comprehension, it insisted that educators not lose focus on word recognition instruction in beginning reading. Marilyn Adams wrote *Beginning to Read* (1990), a text that presented the research on how the mind works while we read and documented how children come to link printed words on the page to their spoken equivalents and to meaning. Once again, the importance of phonics instruction was stressed, and a new construct was added—phonemic awareness. Before children can link letters to sounds (phonics), then need to become aware of the individual sounds in the stream of speech. Adams, at the behest of the federal government, reacted against the whole language movement's lack of attention to explicit instruction in word recognition.

2000s: Massive Federal Intervention in Reading

In 1997, Congress directed the Director of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) to convene a panel of experts to "assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read." This resulted in two reports. In the first of these, the National Research Council, a prestigious scientific organization, published *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* (Snow et al.,1998), a book that reviewed and brought to prominence much of the research on early reading sponsored by the NICHD. The report focused on young children and emphasized the importance of phonemic awareness and phonics, especially for children who have difficulty learning to read.

In the second report, the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Panel published the *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching Children to Read (NRP)* (NICHD, 2000). In this report, the NRP identified five components of reading instruction that it saw as strongly supported by research: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. This report became the basis for most curriculum decisions in the years that followed. The National Reading Panel report was a back-to-basics movement that sought to fix the perceived poor reading skills of American students by strengthening early reading instruction. The message most educators took from the report was to put more focus on letter recognition, phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency but vocabulary and comprehension, particularly comprehension strategy instruction, still played a role.

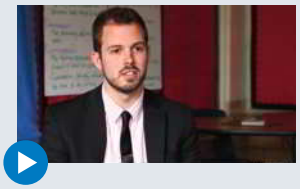
The National Reading Panel Report was part of a larger effort by the George W. Bush administration to upgrade reading standards and improve reading achievement. In 2001, Congress passed the No Child Left Behind Act, which mandated yearly testing of students in third through eighth grade in reading and math. These reformers believed that if we held teachers and schools accountable, reading achievement would improve. We will review the effects of this testing movement in Chapter 5.

The NRP Report had both strong supporters and strong opponents, but both groups agreed that it has had a significant effect on reading instruction. Most notably, *Reading First*, a massive federal funding program, was specifically designed to promote kindergarten through third grade instruction in each of the five areas endorsed by the report—that is, in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Reading First was implemented in over 1,700 school districts and had a substantial influence on reading instruction despite its only marginal results (Gamse et al., 2008). Only first-graders improved in decoding ability, and second and third grade students did not improve in reading comprehension.

Basal publishers responded to the federal initiatives by updating their programs to reflect the new research priorities. They also changed their identity becoming *core reading programs*. The change in terminology was significant (Dewitz et al., 2010). Whereas *basal* means the base from which students begin reading instruction and then move into ever-wider ranges of literature, *core* conveys the idea that these published programs are *the* reading curriculum, encompassing the entirety of reading

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.2



A fifth-grade teacher discusses his curriculum decisions as he thinks about the Common Core State Standards and the use of novels in the classroom. Why is it better to teach a few things well than to survey all the possible topics in reading/language arts?

instruction. Core reading programs were marketed as being scientifically based after a number of states and one research lab certified the research base of their instruction. However, subsequent research, especially studies of comprehension instruction, have challenged the research base of these programs (Dewitz et al., 2009; McGill-Franzen et al., 2006). As the influence of the NRP Report began to wane, other policy makers turned their focus to standards.

2010: The Common Core State Standards Provide a New Influence on Reading Instruction

Some educators and policy experts believed that raising standards was key to solving the reoccurring reading crisis. The most recent national initiative was sponsored by a consortium of state governors and superintendents and resulted in the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) (NGA & CCSSO, 2010), a set of standards adopted by 45 states and supported by the Obama administration. **Figure 2.2** presents a shortened version of the standards. The standards urged educators to think about reading instruction at three levels. Students should (1) grasp key ideas and details, (2) understand how the craft and structure of the text influenced the meaning, and (3) integrate knowledge and ideas to produce new understandings. These standards, plus the requirement that students read increasingly complex text, were applauded by many educators. Unfortunately, the writers of the CCSS quickly betrayed their own initiative by writing a second document, the Publisher's Criteria (Coleman & Pimental, 2012), designed to influence the development of instructional materials consistent with the CCSS.

FIGURE 2.2
An Abbreviated Version of the Common Core State Standards

Key Ideas and Details

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

Craft and Structure

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

Integration of Knowledge and Ideas

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

Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity

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

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

The betrayal took several forms. The Publisher's Criteria (Coleman & Pimentel, 2012) advocated an instructional method called *close reading*, which had little to no research support (Welsch et al., 2019). Students were to reread a text several times, digging into its meaning, structure, and language with each reading (Snow & O'Connor, 2013). The reader's use of prior knowledge was discouraged, so personal interpretation took a back seat to the author's ideas. The writers of the Publisher's Criteria advocated the use of complex text, believing that those were the texts that would produce the greatest growth in reading. In New York, fifth-grade students began the year by reading the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and studying it for two weeks or more. After several tortured re-readings of the text one students exclaimed, "I hate human rights."

The CCSS had a considerable influence on reading instruction and core reading programs as publishers rewrote their programs to align with the Standards (Kenavey, 2016). Four changes were evident. First, the core reading program created units of instruction that focused on developing students' knowledge of a topic or theme. Second, core reading programs championed close reading. Third, the CCSS urged publishers and teachers to assign increasingly complex texts because the developers of the standards judged that current reading texts were too easy. Fourth, the programs directed teachers to keep students focused on the ideas in the text and to minimize the use of prior knowledge and experience. This practice was in some conflict with the well documented relationship of prior knowledge and reading comprehension. The influence of the CCSS is still widely evident in current core reading programs, since most organize text selections to systematically develop knowledge and the practices of close reading are widely employed (Dewitz et al., 2026).

2018: The Great Debate Is Revived and the Science of Reading

In 2018, Emily Hanford from American Public Media and other journalists began a series of reports and podcasts on what they saw as the current *crisis* in reading instruction. Using reading scores from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP, 2018), they argued that only 34% of U.S. fourth- and eighth-graders were proficient readers. The cause of this problem was the failure of schools and teachers to follow the science of reading. In their articles and podcasts, they identified several culprits. Children were being taught to guess words from context cues using the three-cueing system: the meaning, the grammar, and the letter-sound associations. Children were not being taught to sound out words—schools were not teaching phonics. Instead, approaches such as guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) relied on teacher judgment, not on a systematic curriculum to guide word recognition instruction. They labeled these practices "balanced literacy" (Weaver, 1998), an approach that is difficult to define with several origins (Pressley et al., 2023). Some saw balanced literacy as a new name for whole language and the ideas popularized by Kenneth Goodman and Frank Smith in the 1970s.

Instead, the science of reading (SOR) advocates argued that educators should follow the research or the science, For some advocates, who took a narrow approach, this primarily meant systematic, explicit instruction in phonics and, in some cases, stretching phonics instruction into third, fourth, and fifth grades (Coyne et al., 2025). There was another strand within the SOR movement, and these educators focused on the broad scope of reading research and considered word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, motivation, and the complex problem of how all we know about reading can be integrated into a curriculum. The thinking of these educators was presented in 53 papers published in the journal *Reading Research Quarterly* from 2020 to 2021 and in many articles since. These authors were concerned with what to teach, when, for whom, and how much (Seidenberg et al., 2020). Educators with a broad view, as reflected in our book, distinguished between the science of reading and the science of teaching reading (Jensen, 2021; Kim & Snow, 2021). While much is known about reading, translating that research into curriculum and instruction is not easy (Solari et al., 2020).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

The narrow advocates of the SOR focused their efforts on phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency. Some even argued that once children learned to identify words, comprehension would be effortless (Hasbrouck, 2019). The influence of the movement grew, promoted by nonprofit organizations such as The Reading League, The National Council for Teacher Quality, and The American Enterprise Institute, for-profit publishers such as Amplify and Imagine Learning, and social media groups (Aydarova, 2023). Currently, 34 states have passed legislation mandating that school districts follow the science of reading by purchasing a core reading program aligned to the science, and in nine states, specific programs have been mandated. Tierney and Pearson (2024) debunked many of the claims of the narrow interpretation of SOR, arguing that phonics alone was not the solution to effective reading instruction.

We are going to leave the latest battle in the reading wars while it is still simmering. Our textbook has always been built on the research in reading instruction. When we wrote the first volume of this book in 1998, research was our guide. We continue to present a comprehensive view of the research on reading instruction, and we will help you build an understanding of the knowledge, strategies, and dispositions you will need in order to plan and deliver instruction.

Reflect and Apply

3. Compare the rules of Joshua Levitt (Figure 2.1) to the standards of the Common Core (Figure 2.3). Does the Common Core set reasonable expectations for students in American schools?
4. Since the 1950s, numerous books, reports, and podcasts have urged educators to increase the focus on phonics instruction. Why is phonics frequently the suggested solution to problems in reading education? What else should reformers and educators consider?

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES OF EFFECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION

Providing effective instruction has always been a concern of teachers, researchers, and policy makers, and a huge proportion of the most productive research and theorizing on the topic has taken place in the past five decades. Researchers have used two methods to unlock the principles of effective instruction. Many researchers have designed instructional studies and compared one method of instruction to another to determine which is more effective. Through these controlled studies, researchers have learned about the importance of clear explanations, modeling, pacing, practice, and feedback (Duke et al., 2021). Other researchers have studied effective teachers (Carlisle et al., 2011). They have studied schools, observed in classrooms, recorded the practices of successful administrators and teachers, as well as less successful teachers for comparison, and related instructional practices to students' growth in reading. We will first describe the research on effective schools because teachers work in a complex social and political environment. The best administrators encourage teachers and provide the resources they need for success. Next, we will take you into effective classrooms and describe successful teachers. After that, we will dissect these classrooms and highlight the instructional principles that underlie their success. We will conclude by taking a closer look at the three dominant models for teaching reading—core reading programs, guided reading, and reader's/writer's workshop.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Highly Effective Schools and Teachers

Our understanding of effective teaching begins with consideration of effective schools. Teachers exist within schools, and effective leadership facilitates their work. In 1991, Hoffman summarized research conducted in the 1980s by describing eight attributes of such schools. While these studies are dated, the principles continue to affect schools today:

- a clear school mission,
- effective instructional leadership and practices,
- high expectations,
- a safe, orderly and positive environment,
- ongoing curriculum improvement,
- maximum use of instructional time,
- frequent monitoring of student progress, and
- positive home-school relationships.

Ten years later, a group of researchers studied 18 schools that were beating the odds, schools in high-poverty areas whose students' reading achievement well exceeded what was expected (Taylor et al., 2002). They found the same factors that define effective schools, along with a few new insights. In these schools, there was a strong focus on student learning, what previous researchers called high expectations. These researchers also noted frequent collaboration among teachers to design curriculum and refine instruction.

In other studies, researchers have focused on the classroom and the teacher, looking for classrooms in which students show particularly strong achievement in reading, achievement well beyond that in average schools and classrooms. Six studies stand out, four of which deal with instruction generally (Allington & Johnston, 2002; Pressley et al., 2001; Taylor et al., 2003; Wharton-McDonald et al., 1998) and two of which deal specifically with motivation (Bogner et al., 2002; Dolezal et al., 2003). Each of these reports is well worth detailed study, and we encourage you to read them.

Studies of highly effective teachers start with the assumption that by studying experts, we can understand the tools of their trade. Thus, psychologists have studied expert airplane pilots, radiologists, and chefs trying to discern the thinking that underlies their expertise. In educational studies, researchers, with the assistance of school personnel, identify teachers who achieve superior results, as measured by both standardized tests and their supervisors' professional opinions. These expert teachers, along with some average teachers, are observed over the course of a school year, and their teaching practices are recorded, described, categorized, and then linked to outcomes such as students' test performance, reading levels, and the quality of their written work.

In the classrooms of highly effective teachers, several essential practices stand out. First, these teachers create a stimulating environment for their students. The classrooms are filled with print, including books of all kinds for students to read, student-created print—reports, books, charts, and projects—and teacher-created print—instructional charts, bulletin boards highlighting topics being studied, and graphic organizers. Second, children are constantly busy, with multiple activities underway at once. Teachers instruct the whole class but also work with small groups and confer with individual students. A wide range of texts is used to teach reading, including core readers, children's literature, nonfiction books, magazines, online information, digital texts, graphics, and children's own writing. Because children read many different texts, reading instruction is often integrated with content areas, so at times it is hard to tell if the topic is reading, science, or both.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

These exemplary teachers demonstrate a rich combination of direct explicit skill instruction (in phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary and comprehension strategies) and implicit instruction, like reading quality literature, book discussions led by the teacher, and in the upper grades, book discussion led by the students (Connor et al., 2013; Puzio et al., 2020). Process writing and writing in response to reading occur at all levels; even the youngest students plan, compose, revise, and share what they have written (Graham & Hebert, 2011). Exemplary teachers ignore the age-old fight between teaching phonics skills and engaging children with literature—they do both! They select a story from the core reading program when it is helpful to introduce a new concept and skill, and then students read more challenging texts to apply what they have learned. As students work with these more difficult texts, they meet regularly in small groups and confer with their teacher for additional help so the teacher can gauge their progress and assist them when necessary. To orchestrate all of this, the expert teachers are masterful classroom managers who use many opportunities to motivate their students. **Figure 2.3** summarizes the characteristics of these excellent teachers.

Another characteristic of effective teaching is the differentiation of instruction based on assessments (Connor, 2019). Effective teachers use data to determine which students need more time receiving explicit instruction in word recognition and comprehension and which thrive working by themselves, with a partner, or in small groups. In one school in which teachers practiced data-driven, differentiated instruction from first through third grades, 94% of students were reading at or above grade level (Connor, 2019).

Traditional Perspectives on Instruction

Over the next several pages, we will work to define the concept of instruction. Start by reading the story of Mrs. Mowry's fourth-grade classroom. From here, we will distill some traditional principles of instruction. We will then discuss a cognitive perspective on instruction, one that influences the teaching of word recognition,

FIGURE 2.3
Characteristics of Teachers Who Produce Outstanding Achievement in Reading

- The best teachers employ a rich combination of skills instruction (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension) and more holistic activities (reading quality literature and nonfiction texts, discussing and writing about what they read), focusing on important academic tasks.
- The best teachers differentiate instruction. Some children need explicit systematic instruction and others thrive reading and write with a partner or in small groups.
- The best teachers teach a lot. They work hard, and their students work hard in turn. They employ a combination of well-planned small-group activities and whole-class instruction.
- The best teachers scaffold students' efforts so that if students put significant effort into learning, they will be successful.
- The best teachers employ higher-order thinking.
- The best teachers integrate reading instruction with the language arts and the other content areas.
- The best teachers manage classrooms skillfully.
- The best teachers motivate continually and prominently and repeatedly recognize students' work.

Based on National Governors Association Center for Best Practice & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010). Common Core State Standards for English language arts and literacy in history, social studies, science and technical subjects. Authors

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

vocabulary, and comprehension. The cognitive perspective emphasizes direct explicit instruction, but there is still a place for implicit learning (Seidenberg & MacDonald, 2018). Implicit learning is vital for building reading fluency and vocabulary. The *In the Classroom 2.1* feature shares an example of Mrs. Mowry's classroom instruction.

In the Classroom 2.1

A Portrait of Exemplary Fourth-Grade Instruction

Mrs. Mowry begins the period by reading aloud and discussing the survival book *Earthquake Terror* (Kehret, 1996), the story of Jonathan, an 11-year-old boy and his family on a camping trip in Northern California when an earthquake strikes. Mrs. Mowry wants the students to describe the main character, Jonathan, who must care for his younger sister, who uses a walker, while his parents go for help. The discussion today focuses on character traits, and Mrs. Mowry first models and describes the concept of a character trait. She and the students then list character traits on the board, including *responsible, caring, problem-solver, resourceful*, and *resentful*.

The students are also working in book clubs, reading one of three related novels on the theme of survival—*I Survived* (Tarshis, 2011), *Kensuke's Kingdom* (Morpurgo, 1999), and *Hatchet* (Paulsen, 1987). Today, when the students meet with their book club partners, they will create a list of the main characters in their novel and infer each character's traits. The students are paired up so they can assist one another and apply what they learned in the read-aloud. Alongside each trait, they will provide text evidence, including actions and thoughts of the characters that they gleaned from the text. During the book club time, the students are actively engaged in reading and taking notes. The room is quiet. Occasionally, a student will confer with a partner. Mrs. Mowry provides extra help to the struggling readers in the room, conducting a guided reading lesson with their text, *I Survived*.

During book club time, four of Mrs. Mowry's students work with the school's reading specialist, who provides additional small-group instruction. These students are reading well below a fourth-grade level and continue to have difficulty with decoding and oral reading fluency. Thirty minutes later the four return to their book club.

Later in the period, Mrs. Mowry uses the concept of character traits in a writing task. She tells the students their task is to take what they have learned about character traits and write a poem about a character from their book club selection. A handout helps the students structure their poems. When they have finished writing their poem, most students return to their independent reading assignment while the teacher confers with individual students.

Mrs. Mowry conducts short reading conferences with five students each day while the rest of the class works on book clubs or independent reading. During the conferences, she discusses what the students are reading, assesses oral reading fluency as needed, assesses their comprehension, and then probes their critical thinking. The conferences allow her to praise and support the students' efforts as readers and guide their reading choices. As the year progresses, the conferences continue, and Mrs. Mowry also assesses comprehension by observing the students as they interact in book clubs. In Mrs. Mowry's class, there is a free flow of activities moving from whole-class instruction to small-group instruction to individual work.

Mrs. Mowry's class exemplifies many instructional principles that are essential for learning. These principles were gleaned from about 1960 to about 1980 as educators and researchers produced a rich body of basic information about effective instruction (Good & Brophy, 2003). These traditional principles included:

- focusing on academically relevant tasks,
- employing active teaching,

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.3

Active teaching takes place at any age and with any component of reading. In this first-grade classroom note how the teacher engages in active teaching and how she fosters active learning.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.4

Mrs. McClelland, a third-grade teacher, engages with her students to think deeply about the text they are reading. How many different ways does the teacher encourage and support her students?

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

- fostering active learning,
- providing sufficient and timely feedback so that students can learn from their mistakes, and
- distinguishing between instruction and practice.

Focus on academically relevant tasks

If you are going to get really good at something, you need to do a lot of it. You need to have what educational researchers have termed *opportunities to learn*, chances to practice whatever it is you are trying to get good at (Berliner, 1979). If students are going to become proficient readers, they need to read a lot. Certainly, plentiful reading is the central, academically relevant task in learning to read, but it is by no means the only one.

How much students should read each day remains an open question. Brenner and Hiebert's (2010) data suggest that if students read everything in their core reading programs, they could do so in 15 minutes or less daily. Clearly, that is not nearly enough reading to become fluent and skillful. Allington (2014) and Fisher and Ivey (2006) argue that students in the middle grades need to spend 30 to 45 minutes a day reading. Even more time is necessary for readers who struggle to learn to read. These students, who often receive multiple interventions from their reading teachers and tutors, typically read less than five minutes daily (Dewitz & Dewitz, 2003). Remember, the quality of reading also matters. Glancing at pictures in a nonfiction text randomly does not provide the same experience as engaging deeply with an exciting novel or reading carefully to understand a new concept like the water cycle from a science book.

In addition to reading itself, several subtasks are important. If students are to become proficient decoders—readers who can use their knowledge of letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns to decode unfamiliar words—they need to be actively engaged in tasks such as reading decodable and leveled books (Pugh et al., 2023). If students are to become proficient at responding to literature, they need many opportunities to discuss and write about what they have read. And if students are to become critical readers and writers of informational prose, they need abundant opportunities to read, evaluate, and respond critically to informational texts in print and on the Internet. These are only some of the reading-related areas in which students must become proficient, but we think we have made our point: Curriculum—what students study—matters! In Mrs. Mowry's classroom, students read and write all the time—during whole-class time, in small literature groups, and during independent reading.

Employ active teaching

The term *active teaching* refers to a set of principles and teaching behaviors that research has shown to be particularly effective, especially in teaching basic skills (Konopka et al., 2015). Teachers who engage in active teaching are the instructional leaders of their classrooms; they are fully knowledgeable about the content and purposes of the instruction they present and about the instructional goals they wish to accomplish. Active teachers do a lot of teaching. Although they use discovery learning for some purposes, they do not generally rely on students to discover what it is they are supposed to learn, particularly when the learning deals with basic skills. The concept of active teaching became even more precise when cognitive–constructivists principles defined it in terms of direct explanation and modeling. The active teacher explains concepts and strategies, models strategies and thinking, and guides students as they attempt to use the new ideas. Mrs. Mowry employed active teaching when she explained the concept of character traits and had the students generate the traits that describe Jonathan, the main character in the novel *Earthquake Terror.*

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Foster active learning

Just as it is vital that the teacher be actively involved in teaching, it is also crucial that the learner be actively involved in learning (Good & Brophy, 2003). As we explained in our discussion of the cognitive–constructivist orientation in Chapter 1, the learner must do something with the material he is studying if he is to learn much from it. The students in Mrs. Mowry classroom engage in active learning when they meet with their book club partner and together create a list of characters and traits for the novel they are reading. Fourth-grade teacher Juan Perez puts it well in *In the Classroom 2.2*.

In the Classroom 2.2

Actively Engaging Students in Reading and Responding to a Text

Juan Perez wants his students to be deeply involved when they are reading. That's simply a fact. But there are a number of ways this can happen. First, he lets the students have a say in what they will study. Early in the school year, they picked a number of topics to study, and sharks were first on the list. Second, Mr. Perez lets students select which among several shark books they will read. Third, Mr. Perez gives students the choice in how they respond to a text. Finally, students can choose with whom they want to work. Say, for instance, a student is reading a trade book on sharks, perhaps Seymour Simon's *Sharks*. As he reads, the student can:

- think about the new things he is learning about sharks,
- discuss new insights with others,
- make outlines or sketches that depict his new knowledge,
- write a brief story about how he might respond if he were in the water and saw a shark fin nearby,
- draw relationships between the new knowledge and his existing knowledge of sharks, or
- attempt to implement the new knowledge (for example, simulate an underwater environment by making a diorama of sharks and their habitat, as one of my students did).

Or the student can undertake many other activities that cause him to grapple with the new knowledge and integrate it into his existing schema. As we all know, precious little new knowledge will be absorbed passively.

Provide sufficient and timely feedback

Feedback is a long-standing precept of teaching and learning (Lipnevich & Panadero, 2021) and it has been more recently expanded as part of the formative assessment, a process in which teachers note what students say and write and then offer guidance to improve their thinking. From the dialogues of Socrates to the answers included in programmed instruction, feedback has long been a central component of instruction. In the years before school, young children get a great deal of immediate, positive feedback—fussing brings a bottle; a smile, a lot of attention; and saying *ball*, a round object to play with. During these same years, young children also receive a good deal of immediate, negative feedback—too much fussing may bring only a closed door, a smile at the television set produces no response, and begging once too often to take the iPad to the restaurant may lead to no iPad.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Once in school, students continue to receive feedback, although with one teacher managing perhaps 25 students, individual feedback isn't as easily available as it was at home. However, such feedback remains just as important. Feedback helps students refine how they identify new words or infer characters' motives in a novel. This principle applies whether the material is the sound represented by the letter *m*, the pronunciation of the word *rabbit*, or the central theme of a story. Sometimes, feedback can be part of the learning experience and doesn't require a response from someone else. Reading itself offers feedback. When a child successfully decodes the word *pint*, the rest of the sentence confirms they decoded it correctly. For example, in the sentence "John drank a pint of sour milk and he felt bad," the words drank and milk provide context for evaluating the decoding of pint. At other times, peers can give feedback; for example, a group of fifth-graders reading a novel might agree that *the* theme is the importance of friendship. However, much of the time—such as when learning letter-sound correspondences—the feedback must come from the teacher. Figuring out how to provide timely, meaningful, and supportive feedback for about 25 students is a major challenge for a classroom teacher.

The concept of formative assessment (we will expand on this idea in Chapter 5) has given a structure to the feedback process. According to Black and Wiliam's (2009) seminal work on formative assessment, the teacher and the students first discuss and clarify the learning task and criteria for success. Then, the students engage in the tasks that elicit evidence of the students' proficiency. The teacher next provides feedback on their efforts, and the students are encouraged to give each other feedback. The feedback tells the students how to modify their thinking. In Mrs. Mowry's classroom, the formative assessment process is employed as students move from an initial explanation of character traits to partner practice and then to individual work. At each step, the teacher and the students can provide feedback on the students' thinking about this new concept—character traits.

Distinguish between instruction and practice

Effective teaching requires both instruction and practice, but the two need to be clearly distinguished. Practice involves asking students to do something they already know how to do or are just beginning to learn. Instruction consists in showing or telling students how to do something that they do not yet know how to do. Simply asking students to do something does not constitute teaching them how to do it. Practice is appropriate *after* students have learned whatever it is they are to practice. Practice is a type of implicit instruction. Much of what children learn about reading, they learn while they are reading. It takes a considerable volume of reading to practice word recognition skills and learn the letter-sound patterns that are not explicitly taught. It takes a large volume of reading to learn the vocabulary needed to read at a high school level (Graves, 2022; Nagy et al., 1985). It takes a great deal of reading of texts to become a fluent reader. It takes even more reading to acquire the sort of deep and broad knowledge that leads to understanding out world.

The rich instruction we have been describing does not always take place, and many factors influence instruction in the classroom, including the reading program the district purchased and the instructional model the district and the principal endorse.

Reflect and Apply

5. Think back as far as you can in your schooling—to elementary school, if possible, or to secondary school—and jot down a list of tasks you completed that you think were academically relevant and a list of tasks you completed that you think were not academically relevant. Then write about what does and does not constitute an academically relevant task.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

6. If you have the opportunity to observe in a school, classify what you see into academically relevant tasks and what you see as busy work. Also try to classify what you see as instruction versus practice.

A Cognitive–Constructivist Perspective on Instruction

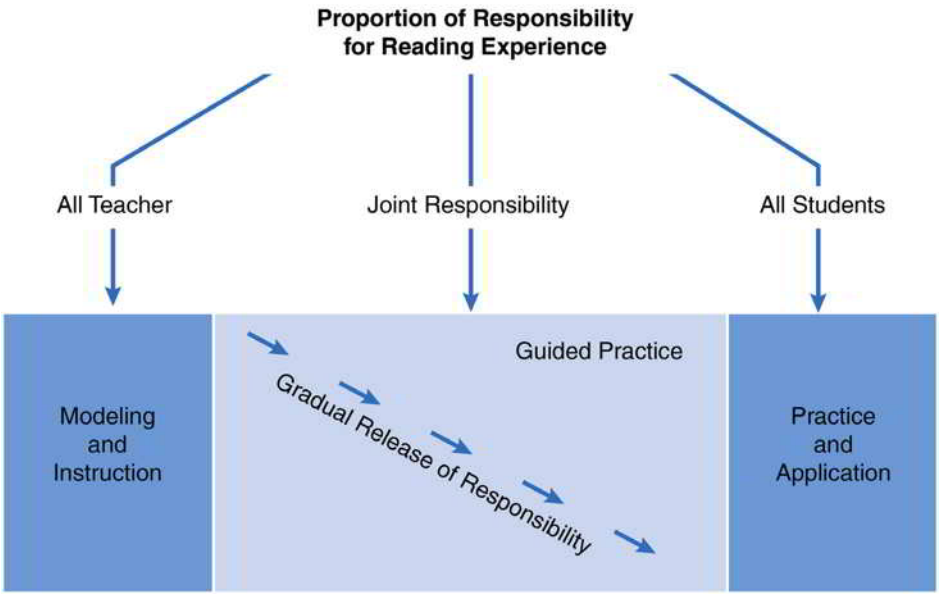
The cognitive–constructive orientation underlying this book requires us to use several terms and concepts to describe instruction because these will take us deeper into a cognitive approach. In a nutshell, the cognitive–constructive orientation makes the process of instruction more explicit. It outlines a process of learning that begins with direct instruction and ends with students using what has been taught in an effective independent manner. In the sections that follow we will describe these principles based on our cognitive orientation. These principles are:

- the gradual release of responsibility model,
- the zone of proximal development,
- teaching for transfer, and
- teaching for understanding.

The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model

The gradual release of responsibility model depicts an entire instructional cycle during which students learn new skills and knowledge and gradually assume increased responsibility for learning. Within this model are several interrelated concepts—*direct explanation*, *cognitive modeling*, *scaffolding and cooperative learning*, and *contextualized review and practice*. A particularly informative visual representation of the model developed by Pearson and Gallagher (1983) is shown in **Figure 2.4**. While the model is forty years old, it has been reaffirmed by recent research (Webb et al., 2019) and applied to the teaching of many comprehension strategies like the use of text structure (Bogaerds-Hazenberg et al., 2021), self-questioning (Joseph et al., 2016), and inferential reasoning (Elleman, 2017).

FIGURE 2.4
The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model



Based on Pearson, P. D., & Gallagher, M. C., "The Instruction of Reading Comprehension," Contemporary Educational Psychology, 8, 317–344.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

The model depicts a temporal sequence in which students gradually progress from situations in which the teacher takes responsibility for completing a reading task (in other words, does most of the work for them) to situations in which students assume increasing responsibility for reading tasks and finally to situations in which students take total or nearly total responsibility for reading tasks. This model can play out over a week, a month, or a full school year. For some skills like decoding in the fourth grade, the students should be fully independent, needing little or no assistance from the teacher. At the same time, they might just be starting to learn how to determine the author's purposes, and the teacher will assume full responsibility for explaining and modeling their thinking as one step in teaching this concept.

As is typical in education, the gradual release of responsibility model has been adopted by other educators but with a new name: "I do it, we do it, you do it" (Fisher & Frey, 2007). This simplified language helps explain the learning process to students, but it loses the original terminology's explicitness and depth. We prefer that you keep the original model firmly in mind as a guide to instruction but use the simple language when talking to your students. They don't need to hear terms like *direct explanation* or *cognitive modeling*.

As an example of this model, suppose a teacher decides that students need to learn to summarize what they have read. The teacher begins by explaining what a summary is and how to construct one, trying to be as explicit as possible. Next, the teacher models the process and lets students observe their thinking as they create a summary. Then the teacher and students work to develop a summary together in a phase called *guided practice*. During guided practice, the teacher might write a summary using a document camera or Smart Board. then asks their students questions ("Does our summary contain just the important ideas?"), provides hints ("Look for topic sentences."), and models the process again if students need it. After considerable guided practice, students are ready to try it out on their own. This instructional cycle may play out over days or weeks. The gradual release of responsibility model typically begins with whole-class instruction, but it will continue as small-group instruction to provide support for students who need it.

Use direct explanation

We use *direct explanation* to mean the first stage of the gradual release of responsibility model.

When a strategy is first introduced, the teacher provides:

- an explicit description of the strategy—what the students are going to learn to do,
- an explanation of the procedure or process for executing the strategy—how to do it,
- clear statements about why the strategy is essential and when to use it, and
- modeling of the strategy with multiple pieces of text.

Your goal is to illuminate for students the thinking that underlies the strategy. Strategies are used to solve problems when we read, and the teacher needs to point out these problems and how they can be solved. Being clear and explicit is not easy because experienced readers are rarely aware of how they determine a word's meaning, find a main idea, or make an inference. For the expert reader, these processes are largely automatic. Effective teacher reach into their own thinking as they model for students. Telling students when and why to do something provides motivation and helps the students understand how one particular strategy is related to the larger act of reading.

Engage in cognitive modeling

After an explanation, modeling is the next step in the gradual release model, but modeling should continue whenever students need greater understanding. When teachers model a task, they actually *do* something, rather than just tell students how to do it. A specific sort of modeling, cognitive modeling, is beneficial in teaching

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

students complex concepts and strategies. In cognitive modeling, teachers use explicit instructional talk to reveal their thought processes as they perform the tasks that students will be asked to perform. For example, a teacher might model the mental process of determining the meaning of an unknown word in context, as shown in *Teaching Tool 2.1*.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.5

Teachers should think aloud demonstrating how they comprehend a text, commenting on how they read and solve problems.

Teaching Tool 2.1

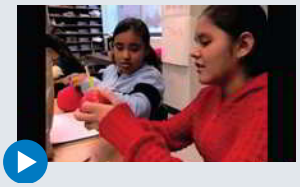
Cognitive Modeling

Teacher: Suppose I'm reading along and I come to this sentence: "It was raining heavily, and water was standing in the street, so before he left for work Mr. Nelson put on his raincoat, buckled on his galoshes over his shoes, and picked up his umbrella." Let me see—g-a-l-o-s-h-e-s. I don't think I know that word. Let me think about this. It's raining, and Mr. Nelson picks up his raincoat and umbrella and buckles something over his shoes. Galoshes must be some sort of waterproof boots that go over shoes. I can't be certain of that, but it makes sense in the sentence; and I don't think I need to look it up right now.

Cognitive modeling provides a window into the teacher's mind and constitutes one of the most powerful tools for showing children how to reason as they seek to understand a text. As we have stated, cognitive modeling is not easy. Duffy's *Explaining Reading* (2026) provides some strong examples for how to model many reading strategies. After the teacher models the strategy, the students should try it, and the teacher provides help as the students require it.

Scaffold instruction and use cooperative learning when appropriate

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.6



Concentrate on the teachers in this video and notice how pairing students supports their language development. How might students who work in pairs encourage and support their oral language skills?

As students try out new tasks and new strategies, the teacher provides support by scaffolding their efforts. We believe that the term *scaffolding* was first used in its educational sense by David Wood and his colleagues (Wood et al., 1976), who used it to characterize mothers' verbal interactions when reading to their young children. In these interactions, mothers gently yet supportively guide their children toward successful literacy experiences. Thus, for example, in sharing a picture book and attempting to assist the child in reading the words that label the pictures, a mother might at first page through the book, familiarizing the child with the pictures and the general content of the book. Then, she might focus on a single picture and ask the child what it is. After this, she might point to the word below the picture, tell the child that the word names the picture, ask the child what the word is, and provide feedback on the correctness of the answer. The important point to note here is that the mother has neither told the child the word nor asked him to say it. Instead, she has built an instructional structure, a scaffold that assists the child in learning. Scaffolding, as Wood and his colleagues have aptly put it, is "a process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts."

Teachers scaffold student learning in many different ways. Most frequently, the language of the teacher guides the student through the process. If the student is stuck trying to determine the main idea of a passage, the teacher might remind her to reread the heading and look at the bold print, what we call "moment-to-moment verbal support." In another setting, the teacher might use a graphic organizer to support or scaffold the student. A story map reminds the reader to look for the critical elements of a narrative—setting, character, problem, and so forth. Even a stack of Post-it notes can remind students to jot down questions while they read—scaffolding a self-questioning strategy. Finally, a teacher might have two students work together on a task, with each student supporting the other. *In the Classroom 2.3* expands on the idea of small-group scaffolding for English learners. In each of these cases, the teacher is assisting students in doing something that they might not otherwise be

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

able to do. Much of Chapters 11 and 12 describes ways to build supportive scaffolds for the many different types of reading students do.

One form of scaffolding is cooperative learning, a set of procedures that can be used during the guided and independent phase of the gradual release of responsibility model. Cooperative learning is an older idea that still has value today. David and Roger Johnson define *cooperative learning* as "the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning" (Johnson et al., 1994). Robert Slavin defines it as "instructional methods in which students at all performance levels work together toward a group goal" (1987). As the Johnsons have repeatedly said, "None of us is as smart as all of us." Groups of students working together have the potential to achieve well beyond what a student working alone can do. Moreover, working in cooperative groups can produce multiple benefits, such as improving students' achievement, effort to succeed, critical thinking, attitudes toward the subjects studied, psychological adjustment, and self-esteem. Cooperative learning can also foster students' interpersonal relationships, improving their ability to work with others and build relationships among diverse racial, ethnic, and social groups. Additionally, as John Seely Brown and his colleagues note (Brown et al., 1989), group learning offers learners opportunities for displaying and recognizing the multiple roles that are often required to solve real-world problems and to recognize and confront their own and others' ineffective strategies and misconceptions. The *In the Classroom 2.3* feature describes how cooperative learning can be very beneficial for English learners.

In the Classroom 2.3

Scaffolding Small-Group Instruction for English Learners

Scaffolding student learning is accomplished most easily during small-group instruction. This is especially true for English language learners. We suggest that you bring together fluent speakers of English with students who are just learning English. The students who are stronger in English act as models for the English learners and help to support them. Pair up these students, and after you ask a question, have them engage in pair-and-share activities: The two students take a moment to discuss the question and formulate an answer. Then one of the students shares the answer with another pair of students. Through this process of pair and share, the English learner learns how to formulate a response before taking a risk in front of the whole class.

The key to successful small-group instruction is thinking through how you will assist the students. Much of this assistance comes from moment-to-moment verbal support. Be prepared to ask some of the following questions that scaffold students' use of a main idea strategy. Be sure to provide pair-and-share time before students begin responding.

- Can someone retell what we have learned? (Retelling)
- What was difficult to understand in this section? (Clarifying)
- Did the title or the headings give you a clue to the main idea? (Text structure)
- How did you find the main idea?
- How did what you already know help you determine the main idea? (Prior knowledge)
- Which text features helped you determine the main idea?

Another way to support English learners is to gear the response you expect to the language level of the students. For students with limited speaking skills, you can formulate very structured questions, "Is Marty the main character?" Then follow up with a question that could expand their response, "Why is Marty the main character?" For students with greater English proficiency, you can start by asking them to retell the story.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

Cooperative learning is consistent with many constructivist and sociocultural principles that we have mentioned. It relies on the belief that the best learning is often social, giving students an opportunity to scaffold one another's work and putting them in a position to respond to, and elaborate on, one another's thinking. Because of its great potential, throughout this book we frequently suggest group activities for elementary students, and many of our Reflect and Apply sections suggest group work.

Contextualize, review, and practice what is learned

The gradual release of responsibility model produces deep and lasting learning if students use their newly learned strategies in authentic contexts. Students need many opportunities to practice the strategies and make them their own. Although review and practice are traditional instructional activities, the importance of contextualizing students' learning is absolutely vital to real and long-lasting learning, and thus we have decided to discuss all three practices in this section. The concepts are simple, but they must be heeded. If, for example, students learn the strategy of summarizing as part of reading instruction, they must be given opportunities and encouragement to use summarizing when they are working with social studies or science material or when they are gathering information in the library or studying at home. In fact, it is the content of the reading, the topics, and the subject matter that provide most of the motivation for internalizing and making use of strategies. Moreover, students need many opportunities to use the strategy in these authentic contexts.

A literature circle is another example (Daniels, 2002; Mills & Jennings, 2011) of contextualizing learning. A literature circle is a group of students who have read the same book and meet to discuss it. Each student has a specific task. One summarizes what they have read, another ies difficult vocabulary words, and others make inferences and predict what will happen next. The structure of a literature circle reminds and prompts the students to use comprehension strategies, and if the teacher detects problems, she can review the strategies and, if necessary, provide more modeling and scaffolding. As students work in literature circles throughout the year, they are regularly reviewing and practicing strategies in a natural context.

Zone of Proximal Development

To select learning tasks and activities, it is essential to consider the students' zone of proximal development. Lev Vygotsky (1978), a Russian psychologist, proposed the concept of the zone of proximal development, which emphasizes that learning is a very social phenomenon; in fact, we acquire much of what we learn through our social interactions with others. According to Vygotsky, at any particular point in time, children have a circumscribed zone of development, a range within which they can learn. At one end of this range are tasks they can complete independently; at the other end are tasks they cannot complete, even with assistance. Between these two extremes lies the zone most productive for learning, the range of tasks children can achieve when assisted by a more knowledgeable or more competent other.

If left alone, many third-graders might learn very little from a *National Geographic World* article on the formation of thunderstorms. Conversely, with your help—by engaging their interest in the topic, focusing their attention, pre-teaching key concepts like the effects of rising heat, and organizing small groups to discuss and answer questions about certain parts of the article—these students could learn a lot from it. However, with other topics and texts—for example, a chapter on gravity from a high school physics book—no amount of outside help, or at least no reasonable amount, will significantly enhance learning for these third-graders. The topic of gravity and how it's presented in the high school text are simply outside their zone of proximal development. The zone of proximal development is a helpful concept because it encourages you to consider the difficulty of the text and task and find ways to adjust them to suit your students' abilities.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Teaching for Transfer

Transfer involves applying knowledge or skills learned in one situation to a different one. It occurs at the end of the gradual release of responsibility model. After the teacher explains, models, and guides students' practice, the students should be able to independently use the strategy or concept in new contexts. The well-known Chinese proverb "Give a man a fish, and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish, and you feed him for a lifetime" highlights the significant importance of transfer. Knowledge and skills that transfer become lifelong tools for students, transfer is the main goal of education; schools focus on preparing students for the future. We aim for students to transfer knowledge from early grades to later ones, and even more critically, to apply what they learn in school to the outside world.

Given the obvious centrality of transfer to schooling, it may shock you to learn that schools have often been unsuccessful in promoting it. Transfer is one of the oldest topics in educational research, and the repeated finding is that students very frequently fail to use their school learning outside of school. The student who adds and subtracts quite competently during math class fails when she tries to calculate how much allowance she has left. The student who writes a competent letter of complaint as a class exercise never thinks of emailing Apple when his iPad has a problem. As British philosopher Alfred North Whitehead (1929) aptly put it over 70 years ago, the knowledge students have gained in school has all too frequently been *inert*—fragile, tip-of-the-iceberg knowledge that might enable them to choose a correct answer on a multiple-choice test but does not last or serve much purpose in the real world.

Teaching for transfer requires careful and intentional instruction. The teacher must design learning tasks that promote transfer and remind students to apply their new skills (Dewitz & Graves, 2014). Transfer can be achieved by following the gradual release of responsibility model. In fact, this model guides students to apply and transfer what the teacher has explained and demonstrated. During the guided practice stage of the model, students begin to transfer what has been taught, but the teacher continues to offer some support. In the independent phase, students transfer what they have learned. Helping a student transfer decoding or comprehension strategies modeled by the teacher involves using texts where these strategies can be applied and providing support, or scaffolding, to the student when they struggle.

Teaching for Understanding: Knowledge and Strategies

In the last few years, the most significant shift in thinking about reading has been the ascendance of knowledge and the downplaying of strategies as the key factor in reading comprehension (Dewitz & Graves, 2024). Forty years ago, researchers argued that knowledge was critical to understanding and persuaded teachers to link ideas in the text to what students knew (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). Ten years later, the focus shifted to teaching comprehension and metacognitive strategies. Students were taught to set a purpose for reading, self-question, make inferences, monitor their developing understanding, and fix up misunderstandings when they occurred. A decade later strategies became suspect, and knowledge was again seen as singularly important (McKeown et al., 2009; Willingham, 2006a, b). Our firm position is that both knowledge and strategies are essential to be an effective reader. A knowledge-rich curriculum which promotes deep understanding is the perfect vehicle for developing students' knowledge as well as their reading proficiency.

Today, educators are increasingly realizing the value of teaching for understanding—dealing with fewer topics but teaching them in such a way that students not only learn the content itself thoroughly but also appreciate the reasons for learning it and retain it in a form that makes it usable. As Harvard psychologist David Perkins (2004) noted, teaching for understanding promotes three basic goals of education: understanding of knowledge, retention of knowledge, and active use of knowledge. Perkins anticipated much of the thinking behind the CCSS by 25 years.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

We believe that teaching for understanding is terribly important; we address this topic especially in the comprehension Chapters 11 and 12. Relying heavily on the work of Perkins and his colleagues (Blythe, 1998; Wiske, 1998), in those chapters we examine teaching for understanding in detail. The key to teaching for understanding is teaching fewer topics and revisiting these topics across the grades building depth of knowledge. Whether the new reading programs, that put a premium on knowledge development, such a *Wit and Wisdom*, *Core Knowledge,* or English Learner education effectively embody Perkins's principles remains to be seen. However, evidence from one kindergarten study indicates that a knowledge-rich curriculum does build greater language comprehension (Cabell & Hwang, 2020). The following Reading Corner lists texts that lead students to think critically.

The Reading Corner

Informational Books That Give Students Opportunities to Make Critical Responses

One extremely relevant academic task is making critical responses to informational texts. The books listed here—science and social studies books about the world we live in—are interesting and involving and provide extended opportunities for students to make critical responses.

Henny Admoni. Illustrated by Amy Grimes. *Robots: Explore the World of Robotics and AI.* Neon Squid, 2024. Written by an assistant professor in the Robotics Institute at Carnegie Mellon University, this nonfiction book showcases the real-world application of robots, from driverless cars to life-saving machines in hospitals and can stimulate thinking about the impact on society and potential to transform the future. 80 pages.

Susannah Buhrman-Deever. Illustrated by Matthew Trueman. *If You Take Away the Otter.* Candlewick Press, 2020. A beautifully illustrated and written account of what happens when the removal of a single element, in this case the sea otter that was hunted almost to extinction, affects an entire habitat. 32 pages.

Valerie Fisher. Illustrated by the author. *Now You Know What You Eat.* Orchard Books, 2019. A deep dive into the science of what we eat and where the ingredients comes from by exploring what happens behind the scenes of kids' favorite foods like popcorn, pizza, and peanut butter. 40 pages.

Maria Gianferrari. Illustrated by Diana Sudyka. *Fungi Grow.* Beach Lane/Simon, 2023. Beautifully illustrated, this poetically written nonfiction book discloses when, how, where, and why fungi grow and the incredible work they do for humans and the forest. 48 pages.

Deborah Hopkinson. Illustrated by Nik Henderson. *Evidence: How Dr. John Snow Solved the Mystery of Cholera.* Knopf, 2024. This nonfiction book tells the story of a simple community doctor who wanted to solve a mystery and traced London's 1846–1860 cholera outbreak to a single water pump and went on to save countless lives through his groundbreaking research. 40 pages.

Charlene Rocha & Mary Beth Leatherdale. Illustrated by Drew Shannon. *You Can Be an Activist: How to Use Your Strengths and Passions to Make a Difference.* Kids Can, 2024. Using colorful graphics, charts, and informational sections, the authors have created an approachable and useful guide to empower kids to turn their frustrations with injustice into action. 112 pages.

Aida Salazar. Illustrated by Molly Mendoza. *Jovita Wore Pants: The Story of a Mexican Freedom Fighter.* Scholastic, 2023. A mesmerizing biography of Mexican revolutionary Jovita Valdovinos, who took up the cause of religious freedom dressed as a boy and who became known as Mexico's Joan of Arc. 48 pages.

Linda Skeers. Illustrated by Marta Alvarez Miguéns. *Dinosaur Lady: The Daring Discoveries of Mary Anning, the First Paleontologist.* Sourcebooks Explore, 2020. An

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

engaging picture book biography of female scientist Mary Anning who discovered dinosaur bones on beach near her home in England in the early 19th century and helped create the field of study—paleontology. 40 pages.

Christina Soontornvat. *All Thirteen: The Incredible Cave Rescue of the Thai Boys' Soccer Team.* Candlewick, 2020. Winner of several prestigious medals, *All Thirteen* tells the harrowing story of the miraculous and heroic rescue of a youth soccer team and their coach trapped by flood waters for 17 days in a northern Thailand cave. 288 pages.

Asa Stall. Illustrated by Carly Allen-Fletcher. *The Big Bang Book.* Creston Books, 2020. Written by an astrophysicist, *The Big Bang Book* presents the mystery of how the universe began in understandable language. 32 pages.

Carole Boston Weatherford. *Freedom on the Menu: The Greensboro Sit-ins.* Puffin Books, 2007. As seen through the eyes of a young southern African American girl, this book offers a unique perspective on the 1960 Civil Rights sit-ins at the Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina. 32 pages.

Reflect and Apply

7. The gradual release of responsibility model is frequently associated with developing students' reading comprehension. In what other areas of the curriculum can the model be applied?
8. Identify a strategy you use while you are reading. You might stop to make inferences, summarize, or reread. Now plan how you might model your thinking as you use this strategy with students.

IMPLICIT LEARNING AND INSTRUCTION

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 2.7

As you tour this third-grade classroom, note how many ways written language is used in the classroom and how it supports the development of reading.

Much of what students learn about language and reading is not directly taught; they learn from reading, listening, speaking, and writing. This is implicit, not explicit instruction. David Share (1995) called implicit instruction *self-teaching* and others used the less transparent phrase *statistical learning* (Seidenberg & MacDonald, 2018). Implicit instruction is what we learn about language while we are using it. Through implicit instruction, students learn letter-sound patterns that are not taught, infer the meaning of new words that are not taught, and build their comprehension by learning new concepts. While some students need a great deal of explicit instruction, other students need far less. However, every student needs time to read, write, listen, and speak.

As described by Share's self-teaching hypothesis, when students encounter new words while reading, they use their knowledge of letter-sounds correspondences and other orthographic patterns to crack the code and pronounce these new words. Share demonstrated that when second-graders encountered new words while reading, they learned their spellings and pronunciations quickly. Self-teaching occurs when students read a considerable volume of text. Books, articles, magazines, and the internet provide the raw material for self-teaching to take place.

Statistical learning goes one step beyond self-teaching and describes how the process takes place. Humans are excellent at pattern recognition. The job of the beginning reader is to learn how the orthographic code, the spelling of words, relates to the spoken word. You demonstrate your awareness of the statistical properties of language when you recognize that *glurck* could be an English word, but *ckurgl* cannot (note that we reversed the positions of *ck* and *gl*). You simply cannot start an English word with *ck* or end it in *gl*. Statistical learning is essential for learning the many patterns of English writing system and, many patterns that are not taught. For example, without instruction most first-graders eventually determine that *c* takes the hard sound when followed by *a*, *u*, and *o* as in *cat*, *cut*, and *cope*, but takes the soft

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

sound when followed by *e, i,* or *y* as in *cent*, *city*, or *cymbal*. Sometimes, when statistical learning does not help, direct instruction is necessary, but there is no way that teachers can teach all the patterns of the English writing system that students must eventually learn.

Most words are learned by reading (Nagy et al., 1985), and books play a vital role in that process (Nation et al., 2022). Books contain more words and more unique words than oral language. When listening to *Jumanji* (Van Allsburg, 1981) in just the first three pages, children are exposed to words such as *peer, slouched, unfolded, revealing, designed,* and *restless*. In books, children are also exposed to more complex grammatical structures, which aid their comprehension when they reencounter those patterns. Teachers rarely plan to teach relative pronouns, but exposure through read-alouds provides opportunities to learn and to unravel the meaning of complex sentences. *In the Classroom 2.4* presents an example of implicit learning and instruction.

It is key that teachers provide time and create experiences where implicit learning can take place. Teachers cannot teach everything students need to know to become good readers. "Reading is the primary means by which linguistic knowledge expands through the life span" (Seidenberg & MacDonald, 2018, p. 66). Teachers must create the time and the space for children to read. You must create a sense of excitement about reading so that reading will continue outside of school, not an easy task with screens of every size dominating our lives.

The last 70 years of books, reports, articles, and podcasts was not just a debate between phonics and whole language or balanced literacy. It was also a debate between advocates of explicit and implicit instruction. Some advocates of explicit instruction argue that everything—phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension—must be explicitly taught, and they leave little room in the school day for implicit learning. Some students will need a great deal of explicit instruction, especially in the early stages of learning to read, and others will not. Everyone benefits from implicit instruction because all students must read.

In the Classroom 2.4

Implicit Learning: Mrs. Jackson's Third Grade Builds Word Knowledge

Mrs. Jackson has a well-developed independent reading system and uses it to build her students' vocabulary. She reads to her students every day, sharing interesting books and expanding their knowledge of literary genres, nonfiction topics, and engaging authors. She encourages her students to share the books and authors that they enjoy. She keeps a bestseller list in her room. She enlists the school librarian to promote an interest in the latest potboilers and new authors.

Because she nurtures her students' interests, they read every day. Mrs. Jackson has her students collect words while they read (Baumann et al., 2007). Each week, students complete a Word Finder chart, essentially a large bookmark where students record the new words they found in a book. During the week, they find and record words, and at the end of the week each student decides to study two of the words in-depth. They write definitions and then write sentences demonstrating proper usage of these two words. At the end of the week, each student shares one word, which is added to the class word wall. By early February, there were over 220 words on the wall.

This activity proved to be very popular and almost competitive. Students love to share their words and see who could find the most unusual word. Eventually Mrs. Jackson had to draw some boundaries and exclude some highly technical words like *streptococcus* and *hematology*.

The students were encouraged to use the word wall in a number of ways. Students could add definitions to the words by placing a sticky-note on the word card. Students were encouraged to use the words in their writing or in their daily discussion. "Today we are going to make *scamp* the word of the day and use it as often as possible," said Mrs. Jackson.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Name Samatha Jones	
Book Title: The War with Grandpa	
Word Finder	
Find words that are interesting, unusual	**My Words**
gloom	**Word:** Cunning
sentimental	**Definition:** to be clever,
depressed	to trick someone and
conceal	get things done.
cunning	**Sentence:** Hiding
spoiled	Mom's cellphone was
retaliate	not cunning, it was
revenge	wrong.
conflict	
dashing	

At the end of the year, Mrs. Jackson created a vocabulary test. She randomly selected 20 words from the wall and constructed a multiple-choice test. On average, students knew 75% of the words on the wall, and many students were using the words in their writing.

This was not explicit instruction, but the activity encouraged students to engage in implicit learning. The activity was structured and motivating. It continued throughout most of the third grade.

Reflect and Apply

9. In this section we presented two broad concepts: the gradual release of responsibility model a form of explicit instruction and implicit instruction. How much time do you think students should spend in implicit versus explicit instruction?
10. What does the concept of teaching for understanding suggest about the organization of a reading curriculum. Should teachers follow a sequence or skills, or should the curriculum be organized around ideas and books?

MAJOR APPROACHES TO READING INSTRUCTION

Since the rise of the science of reading movement, it has become more challenging to define or distinguish separate or distinct approaches to reading instruction. Various approaches tend to borrow elements from each other. Teachers who use scripted core reading programs might pause the program to teach a novel. An advocate of guided reading could go out and buy a supplemental program for explicit phonics instruction.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

We cannot tell how frequently schools and teachers use particular approaches to reading instruction because we don't have an adequate picture of what goes on in our schools. However, recent surveys indicate that between 44% (EdReports, 2024) and 48% (Doan et al., 2023) of teachers used a published core reading program aligned with state standards when the surveys were taken. And in the last two years, legislation in 34 states prompted state departments of education to create lists of approved core reading programs, and in nine of those states, districts must purchase programs from those lists. Since 2015, 47 states have enacted or are considering legislation about reading instruction and most require a phonics program (Reinking et al., 2023). These data suggest that the use of core reading programs is on the rise. Just because a district purchases a core program does not mean teachers follow the programs instructional scripts as written.

With the influence of the Common Core State Standards and the science of reading movement, core reading programs can be classified into two types. There are legacy publishers such as *Into Reading* (HMH), *Wonders* (McGraw-Hill), and *MyView* (Savvas) that build their programs around the reading of relatively short texts organized into meaningful units of study. All of these programs have robust phonics instruction. A second group of publishers also embraces a knowledge-building curriculum, but does so by having students read complete texts—novels, nonfiction trade books, articles, poems, and, in one case, artworks. In this group are *Wit and Wisdom* (Great Minds), *The Read Side by Side Reading Program,* and *Imagine Learning* (EL Education). These programs do not have a phonics component because they are exclusive for grades 3 through 6.

The influence of the science of reading and particularly the podcasts of Emily Hanford seriously questioned the efficacy of three other approaches to reading instruction: balanced literacy (Pressley et al., 2023), guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, 2001), and the reader's/writer's workshop (Calkins, 1983). Balanced literacy was supposed to put an end to the *reading wars* and create a balance between explicit skill instruction and meaning centered experiences built around interesting texts (Pressley, 1998). Unfortunately that balance may not have been achieved.

In the guided reading classroom, the teacher begins by sharing authentic literature to build vocabulary and model reading strategies. She then guides students through leveled texts by working with small groups of students and provides skills instruction as needed; there is no scope and sequence. Students spend the rest of their time reading and writing independently. Teachers also create learning stations where students can practice word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

The reader's/writer's workshop offers even less instructional guidance. Students choose what they read with guidance from the teacher. They read independently with skill instruction delivered through whole-class lessons when the teacher detects a need. In the workshop setting, the students read independently, they confer with the teacher, and occasionally the teacher pulls a group together for a guided lesson. The research suggests that explicit instruction is effective for some children and guided reading is a better fit for others (Castles et al., 2018; Connor et al., 2004). For primary-grade students who learn to recognize words easily, a workshop approach seems appropriate. They can spend their time reading and writing, working in pairs or in small groups, meeting occasionally with the teacher to solve problems. Other students in the same classroom need explicit instruction in phonics carefully directed by the teacher as suggested by balanced literacy. Many teachers, especially those just beginning to teach, benefit from curriculum structure of a core reading program.

When you visit schools or talk to teachers, you are apt to see a variety of approaches to reading instruction. In many schools, you are likely to find a hybrid approach in which teachers use elements of a core reading program, small-group guided reading, and the reader's workshop. While some educators advocate using core reading programs with fidelity, we recognize that the situations teachers face are complex and require them to used their knowledge of their students and make many instructional decisions (Dewitz & Jones, 2013; Piasta et al., 2009).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Whole-Class Instruction

In almost all classrooms, you will find a time when the teacher works with the whole class. If the school is following a core reading program, the teacher uses this time to read aloud to the students to develop knowledge of genres and teach vocabulary. Phonemic awareness and phonics instruction are also delivered to the whole class. In a core reading program, instruction centers on a primary anthology selection, with a shorter follow-up text. Frequently, these are introduced, read, and discussed with the whole class. Teachers using a core reading program are directed to devote much of their instructional time to teach the entire class, leaving less time for small-group instruction and independent reading.

Guided reading and the reader's workshop model usually include a whole-class activity called shared reading. During shared reading, students and teachers read a common text that might be difficult for students to read on their own. Teachers use this time to introduce a new concept, strategy, or vocabulary. According to Fountas and Pinnell (2001), shared reading experiences are used best for short texts, dramatic stories, or poems. When the whole class gathers in the workshop setup, typically for 10–15 minutes, the teacher conducts a lesson. Some educators have called these kinds of lessons, mini-lessons, which can be misleading. The lesson's length depends on the complexity of the material, students' attention spans, and the teacher's motivational skills. The whole class is often used for students to share their reading progress. They give brief reports on what they're reading, on where they are in the book, and to explain something about their book.

Small-Group Instruction

Small-group instruction is central to the guided reading approach and is more peripheral to core reading programs and the reader's workshop. Guided reading takes its name from the guided reading period during which students are organized into leveled reading groups and read a text as the teacher guides them through it. The guided reading period might consume 30 to 90 minutes of the reading block. A teacher might have three to five guided reading groups and meet with them from two to five times a week. The teacher works with the students to apply decoding strategies, build vocabulary, and apply comprehension strategies. When not meeting with the teacher, the students read independently, write, or complete learning station activities.

Core reading programs have incorporated small-group reading into their instructional design. Most basal programs come with, decodable texts that repeat phonics patterns, and books leveled for students reading above, on, and below grade level. All of these texts share the same topic or theme as the anthology selection. The key vocabulary words, introduced in the main selection, are reviewed in the leveled books. In most core reading programs, the guided reading portion of the program takes place two days a week, with whole-group instruction dominating during the rest of the week.

Within the reader's workshop approach, small-group instruction is an option. Teachers might bring together a group of students who are reading in a similar genre to discuss the genre's characteristics. The teacher might also create guided reading groups with students reading at the same level. This practice blurs the lines between guided reading and reader's workshop. These small group lessons are opportunistic, with the teacher pulling together students who need help.

Independent Reading and Independent Work

Independent reading defines the reader's workshop approach, is part of guided reading, and is rarer in core reading programs (Dewitz et al., 2026). Within the workshop approach, students read individually every day, often for 30 minutes or more, selecting a comfortable place in the room to read. Students read texts at their independent reading level. During reading time, students should read, not select books or wander in the classroom. A well-stocked classroom library is essential to the success of the

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

workshop. The teacher confers with her students weekly to assess their comprehension, note difficulties they might be having with reading strategies, plan their next book, and hold them accountable. While reading, students are encouraged to *talk back* to the book by using sticky-notes or a reading journal to record their thoughts.

Independent reading is one of the activities in the guided reading setup. When students are not participating in small-group guided reading, they are expected to read and write independently or with a partner. In a typical guided reading classroom, you'll find several centers—areas where students can read, write, work on an art project, make scientific observations and record results, or play a language game. These centers are designed to promote open-ended inquiry. Naturally, the classroom library with comfortable seating remains a vital center in a guided reading classroom.

Within core reading programs, independent reading, but not independent work, takes a backseat to whole-group work, small-group instruction, and skill work in learning centers. In most core programs, the teacher is directed to spend most of her time working with the whole class and meeting with some students for small-group instruction. Phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, spelling, grammar, and writing are typically taught to the whole class, leaving little time for independent reading.

As we noted in Chapter 1 and have repeated in this chapter, we believe that phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension are vital parts of a reading program. But as we also noted, most other reading educators and we believe firmly that these five elements constitute only part of a comprehensive reading program that can lead all students to the sophisticated level of literacy necessary in the 21st century. A comprehensive reading program also requires a strong focus on motivation and building knowledge. It is important that children read frequently and widely. It is vital that children learn to read and want to read. But achieving these goals is not easy, particularly when all of us are teaching into the headwinds of social media, iPhones, tablets, video games, and other seductive technologies.

Reflect and Apply

11. Core reading programs, guided reading, and the reader's workshop each have their champions. Consider how the three approaches differ in terms of the teacher's role and the students' activities in the classroom.

12. Locate the teacher's manual from a core reading program and analyze how comprehension skills are taught. Does the lesson provide for direct explanation, gradual release of responsibility, scaffolding, and contextualized practice?

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, we discussed four topics: First, we considered the history of reading instruction, specifically the last 70 years of renewed debate between phonics-first advocates and those who stress an approach that balances phonics with meaning by building vocabulary, comprehension, and motivation. Second, we took you inside successful classrooms and looked at effective teachers. Third, we discussed traditional principles of instruction and newer cognitive constructivist perspectives on instruction. Fourth, we highlighted how reading is currently taught using various approaches.

The history of reading instruction in the United States indicates that various approaches to reading have come and gone, that we have learned a lot and come to much agreement in recent years, but that tensions continue to exist. Recently, the science of reading movement has rekindled the phonics debate, and it should have. Phonics is an important part of effective reading instruction, but it is only a part. The most effective approach to instruction, the one most likely to lead the most children to a high level of literacy is a comprehensive approach.

It is also important to realize that effective instruction differs for different parts of the reading curriculum, as students become increasingly competent readers. For example, most children will have

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

mastered most of what they need to know about phonics and decoding by the end of second grade, and thus these elements constitute a small part of the literacy curriculum after that time except for children who continue to have difficulty. Conversely, all children should receive instruction in vocabulary and various facets of comprehension beginning in kindergarten and continuing throughout their years of school.

Traditional instructional principles, such as active teaching, fostering active learning and providing sufficient and timely feedback are still vital concepts that all educators should understand and employ. The newer concepts underlying cognitive constructivist instruction take us deeper in the characteristics of effective teaching (Carlisle et al., 2011). Powerful instruction includes clear explanation, cognitive modeling, and scaffolding so that students can learn to use new strategies and concepts. Fostering implicit learning is necessary because everything students must know about language and reading cannot be taught.

Finally, surveys suggest that many states and districts are embracing published core reading programs, and a few states are mandating them. These programs differ in how reading is taught and the texts that students read. The efficacy of these programs is difficult to establish (Dewitz et al., 2026; Nietzel, 2019), and the research indicates that teacher knowledge is vital whether you are using a published program or a school is crafting their own (Piasta et al., 2009; Taylor & Pearson, 2005). Our goal is to help you build your knowledge of effective reading instruction. Instruction is not good simply because it represents an idea that has been around a long time or because it represents a new trendy idea. Instruction is good because it is motivated by solid theory, backed by research, and able to be used by real teachers in real classrooms.

Extending Learning

As we noted in Chapter 1, in this section we suggest activities that take you beyond this book to observe and work with schools, teachers, and parents and to access various sources of information that can help you more fully understand and appreciate your role in fostering students' literacy.

1. Identify a simple skill that you have mastered but that many of your classmates probably have not. Choose something specific that can be learned relatively easily, such as tying a square knot. Review the traditional and constructivist/sociocultural principles of instruction—active teaching, active learning, scaffolding, gradual release, feedback, and the like—and decide which can be incorporated into your instruction. Next, write out a specific plan for teaching your skill—a lesson plan—noting just what you are going to do and indicating which principles you are following at each point. Rehearse your instruction, with a partner if possible; then teach a small group of your classmates the skill. If possible, have a classmate who is not part of the group observe you. Finally, sit down with your classmates—both the learners and the observer—and critique your instruction, being sure to attend to how well people learned the skill, what did and did not go well, how you might improve the lesson, what instructional principles you followed, and what additional instructional principles you might incorporate to improve learning.
2. Identify two really excellent elementary teachers. These could be teachers who have been formally recognized as outstanding, teachers you know of from friends or colleagues, teachers you actually had, or teachers recommended by a principal or one of your professors. Make up an observation sheet listing the characteristics of teachers who produce outstanding achievement in reading. Go back to the section Highly Effective Teachers and Schools to develop your list. Then, observe the two teachers, and make notes on the extent to which they demonstrate each of the characteristics on the list. Plan on at least three observations, but do more if you can. For each characteristic that the teachers demonstrate, jot down a specific example or two of how they do so. Once you are finished with your observation, write a summary statement on the extent to which the teachers did and did not demonstrate the characteristics and a statement about the extent to which you expect to incorporate the characteristics into your teaching. Finally, discuss your observations and conclusions with a classmate.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Children's Literature

These works were cited in the chapter.

Byars, B. C. (2002). *Keeper of the Doves*. Viking. In this story set in the late 19th century in Kentucky, the precocious Amie McBee searches for her place in the family and discovers a talent of her own, writing poetry. 112 pages

DiCamillo, K. (2015). *The Tale of Despereaux*. Candlewick. This is the story of Desperaux Tilling, a mouse in love with music, stories, and a princess named Pea. 277 pages.

Inns, C. (2004). *Help!* Frances Lincoln. Doctor Hopper (a rabbit) and Nurse Rex Barker (a dog) zoom around to cure sick toys in this witty picture book. 32 pages.

Juster, N. (2005). *The Hello, Goodbye Window*. Hyperion. A little girl visits her grandparents' house and finds a magic gateway in the kitchen window that leads her on a voyage of discovery 32 pages.

Kehret, P. (1996). *Earthquake Terror*. Puffin. A family is camping when an earthquake hits leaving the old boy to help his disabled sister while his parents go for help.

McDonald, A. (2001). *No More Nasty*. Farrar, Straus and Giroux. Fifth grade becomes more than a bit embarrassing and challenging for Simon when his favorite, but eccentric, 74-year-old aunt becomes the substitute teacher in his unruly class. 172 pages.

National Geographic World. National Geographic Society. This richly illustrated monthly periodical is designed for intermediate-grade students.

Morpurgo, M. (1999). *Kensuke's Kingdom*. Scholastic. Washed up on an island in the Pacific with his dog, Michael a young teenager, struggles to survive on his own. 172 pages.

Paulsen, G. (1987). *Hatchet*. Simon and Schuster. Brian, a fourteen year old boy is trapped in the Canadian wilderness after the plane he is riding in crashes. Weeks of difficult challenges lie ahead. 181 pages.

Sachar, L. (2008). *Holes*. Macmillan. 225 pages.

Simon, S. (1995). *Sharks*. HarperCollins. With full-color photos and engaging text that describes fascinating details about 350 different kinds of sharks, Simon demystifies this greatly feared predatory fish. Unnumbered. 45 pages.

Tarshis, L. (2011). *I Survived Hurricane Katrina*. Scholastic. A family must cope with the terror of a hurricane and the city flooding around them. 145 pages.

Van Allsburg, C. (1981). *Jumanji*. Children play an adventure game that soon gets out of hand. 32 pages.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

CHAPTER 3

MOTIVATION, ENGAGEMENT, AND EMOTIONAL SUPPORT

Classroom Vignette

Last year, Cynthia Sanchez, who had spent five years working predominantly with inner-city Hispanic students, switched from teaching first grade to fifth grade, and her first year as a fifth-grade teacher was not an easy one. "What a difference four years make," she sometimes sighed to herself. Of course, she had to learn to teach very different aspects of reading than she had taught in first grade. Only a few of her students needed help with phonics, and most read fluently. She also had to learn to teach fairly sophisticated lessons in social studies, science, math, and other subjects. What turned out to be much more of a challenge than learning how to teach new material was motivating students. Cynthia's first-graders had come to school enthusiastic about their opportunities, excited about learning, confident that they could learn, and ready to put their best efforts into whatever subject they were studying. Some of her fifth-graders displayed very different attitudes. They were not enthusiastic about school or excited about learning. Nor were they confident about learning or prepared to put in their best efforts.

Cynthia soon decided that motivating and engaging students was her number one priority. As the year progressed, she talked regularly with her grade-level colleagues, who had many more years of experience in fifth grade. One colleague stressed that the key to motivation was selecting and reading the right books. She felt that her daily read-alouds from authors like Sandra Cisneros, Gary Soto, and Angela Dominguez would capture her students' imaginations. Another colleague urged her to incorporate Accelerated Reader software into her literacy program. She felt that students liked the computer-based assessments and that competing for points kept them motivated. Still another colleague felt that the secret to motivating these students was the projects she developed for her class. Each year they studied the tide pools along the Pacific shore, the Spanish heritage in California, and space science, including a trip to Mt. Wilson observatory. These lengthy reading and writing tasks gave her students concrete goals and a reason to dive into books, articles, and the Internet. A final colleague felt that, while motivation is critical to students' success in school, so too are other social and emotional factors such as self-awareness and their relationships with their peers.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 3.1 Understand why motivation and the creation of a literate environment are top priorities in any classroom.

LO 3.2 Describe the components of intrinsic motivation and make decisions about how to implement these factors in the classroom.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

LO 3.3 Understand the limits of extrinsic motivation but indicate how and when extrinsic motivation might be deployed in the classroom.

LO 3.4 Recognize the variety of social and emotional factors that affect students' motivation, their performance in school, and their lives beyond the classroom and consider how being aware of these will affect your teaching.

LO 3.5 Assess students' motivation to read and use the results to craft a program to boost motivation in your classroom.

MAKING MOTIVATION A TOP PRIORITY

As you will see in this chapter, Cynthia is not alone in realizing that motivation should be a top priority. Other teachers, reading authorities, researchers, and policy makers are increasingly realizing that motivation is essential to learning (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2024; Clark et al., 2023). Patricia Alexander properly focused on the role of motivation when she wrote

> *Reading is an emotional domain, not a coldly cognitive enterprise. Reader motivation and affect are powerful forces in this journey toward competence. We may be able to move individuals into low levels of competence by attending only to their knowledge or strategic needs, but they will not have the personal interest to continue this journey especially as the demands of text-based learning become greater and the text more complex, less predictable.* (Alexander, 2003, p. 45)

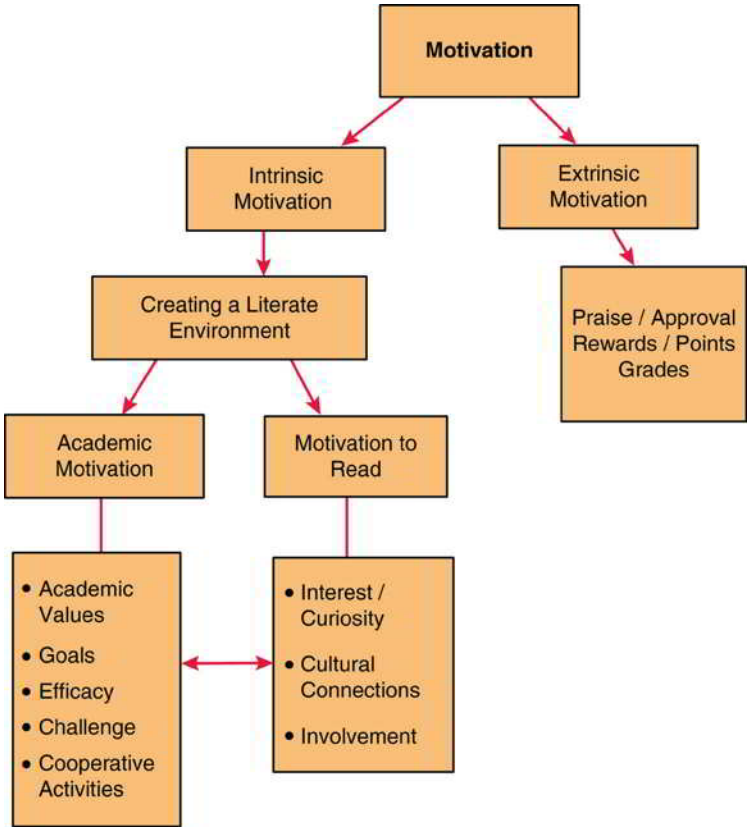
Just as we developed a theory of instruction that should guide your instructional decision making, we now turn to developing a theory of motivation that should help you shape your students' experience in school. Motivation is complex and not all students are enthused and enticed by the same activities. In order for substantive learning to occur, students must have positive attitudes about themselves as learners, about their ability to succeed in school, and about the instructional goals they, their teachers, and their schools set. Students' reading abilities will grow in proportion to the extent to which they see reading as enjoyable, worthwhile, and valuable as a tool for learning. At the same time, success in reading is likely to build motivation (Toste et al., 2020).

Figure 3.1 presents a graphic view of motivation in the classroom. The two main branches are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Children who have an intrinsic motivation to read do so "because the activity is satisfying and rewarding in its own right" (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016, p. 429). Extrinsically motivated readers read to get a positive outcome—points, praise, and better grades. To foster intrinsic motivation, teachers must create a literate environment, a physical and emotional space where literacy is valued, encouraged, and practiced. From this branch, teachers have two major but interconnected goals: creating exciting and stimulating academic tasks that promote learning and motivating children to read as a lifelong pursuit. Academic motivation is fostered by interesting tasks, personal goals, a sense of efficacy, choice, challenge, and cooperative activities. These factors, plus personal interest, cultural connections, and involvement with stories or informational text, also promote motivation to read. The other branch of the tree is extrinsic motivation: the praise, approval, grades, and points we award to keep children moving forward although they are not substitutes for longer term intrinsic motivation.

Much of the work in your classroom should revolve around interesting, gripping projects like studying a favorite author or a currently popular genre like fantasy. Alternately, you might focus for some time on a science topic such as global warming or a social studies topic such as immigration. An extended project like this must capture the interests of your students. The student must value this project and see it as an attainable goal. These projects then give you the doorway to introduce the reading strategies students need for success with the project. This is the logic

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 3.1
Some Components of Motivation



of Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI, Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Reading Rockets, 2024) that has produced significant growth in reading achievement.

Beyond completing academic projects, your students should become readers, individuals who value reading for enjoyment, escape, information, and enlightenment. The students' goal and your goal is not to reach the next reading level, be it a 40 on the Developmental Reading Assessment, or Q on the Fountas and Pinnell scales. Your goals are to foster literate students who read for information and pleasure. In the sections that follow, we discuss the motivational principles necessary for students to become lifelong readers who succeed with academic projects.

A dominant thought underlying not just this section of the chapter, but the whole of this book is the overwhelming importance of success. Research has repeatedly verified that if students are going to be motivated and engaged in school and learn from their schoolwork, they need to succeed at the majority of tasks they undertake. Students realize success when they gain a sense of efficacy after completing a challenging activity. This, of course, applies to reading just as it does to other schoolwork. Moreover, if students are to become not only proficient readers but also avid readers—children and adults who voluntarily seek out reading as a path to information, enjoyment, and personal fulfillment—then successful reading experiences are even more important.

A successful reading experience has at least three features. First, and most important, a successful reading experience is one in which the reader understands what they have read. Understanding may take more than one reading, it may require your assistance or that of other students, and it will often require the reader to actively manipulate the ideas in the text. Second, a successful reading experience is one that the reader finds enjoyable, entertaining, informative, or thought-provoking. Finally, a successful reading experience is often a means to a larger goal—to learn about galaxies or live in the fantasy world of the Hobbit.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

Creating a Literate Environment

The term *literate environment* describes the sort of classroom, school, and home in which literacy is fostered, nurtured, and necessary (Gambrell & Mazzoni, 1999; Goodman, 1986). In a literate environment, people read to themselves and to others. They write to others and to themselves. They read and write on paper and on screens. They read and write to manage their daily lives. In a literate environment, print surrounds us. There is print on our bookshelves, on our tables, hanging on our refrigerators and bulletin boards. Our laptops and tablets are filled with informational texts, novels, short stories, and news stories. Imagine managing your life without print. You could not send an email, a text, or a tweet. You could not locate a used car, find a good restaurant, or create a shopping list. For all students but particularly for students who do not come from a literate environment, we must create one in their classroom.

Modeling

Probably the most important component of a literate environment is the modeling done by people children respect and love. In the best possible literate environment, children's teachers, principals, parents, brothers and sisters, and friends read a lot and openly display the pleasure reading gives them. These adults regularly demonstrate the fact that reading opens up a world of information and imagination from which they gain knowledge, insight, and joy. Unfortunately, many children come from homes where little or no reading takes place, and schools must be their literate environment (Heath, 1985). According to the most recent Pew Research Center survey (2022), 25 percent of U.S. adults had not read a book in the previous year.

To be most effective, modeling should occur not just once but repeatedly—all the time, really. Modeling should include both repeated demonstrations during shared and guided reading, your looking up on the Internet an answer to a question children have, and direct testimonials—"Wow! What a story." "I never knew what fun river rafting could be till I read this article; I sure wish I'd read it sooner." "Sometimes I think the library is just about my favorite place."

Third-grade teacher Mary Lou Flicker has her own testimonial to the power of modeling.

> *I never realized the importance of modeling the kinds of behaviors I would like my students to emulate until one rainy day in March. Normally, the kids eat outdoors on picnic tables, but during this unusual California downpour we were forced inside for lunch. After the kids finished eating, I told them they could play games together quietly, draw on the chalkboard, read, whatever.*
>
> *Instead of doing paperwork or watching the kids, I decided to read a book that a young friend had recommended, one of Aaron Blabey's The Bad Guys books, The Serpent and the Beast (2024). It turned out to be an extremely funny book that I thought my third graders, especially the boys, would enjoy. After I finished, I looked around the room. To my amazement, there in the library corner sat Ramon, one of my least-motivated readers, a kid who hardly ever read by choice, fully absorbed in a The Bad Guys book. Later in the day, when I told Ramon I was so pleased to see him reading, he said, "Well, you looked like you were having such a great time reading that The Bad Guys book, I just had to find out why!"*
>
> —Mary Lou Flicker, third-grade teacher

Several aspects of this experience were motivating to students. First, Ms. Flicker modeled engaged reading. Second, she showed students how much she valued reading by spending class time on reading. Third, she shared her enjoyment. Fourth, she praised one of her student's good behavior.

Reading aloud to students is another way to demonstrate how much you value reading, and it also becomes an opportunity to teach students about the rewards that reading brings. What you choose to read aloud can serve to entice students to

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

broaden the scope of their reading interests. It allows you to introduce new authors, new genres, new vocabulary, and new ideas. All readers need to experience the power of a well-written story, poem, or piece of nonfiction so that they can remember the reward that reading can bring. Reading aloud offers you the opportunity to talk about writing in a way that is concrete and engaging; students enjoy learning about how writing works when they are engaged with a text.

Modeling literate behavior is not limited to reading aloud. We model literate behavior when we write a language experience story in first grade, when we record the number of students selecting pizza versus peanut butter and jelly for lunch, when we record what we have learned about snakes on a science chart, and when we write the new words we are learning on the word wall. In many classrooms, the first literate activity after the read-aloud is the teacher's use of a notebook to record what students say and do during a reading lesson. When children observe adults using written language, they begin to understand that written language is a powerful tool for recording, remembering, and planning life.

A Print-Rich Classroom

Three kinds of print should fill your classroom—books and shorter texts, print you create, and print created by your students. Hoffman and his colleagues studied literary environments and found that they could link the amount and quality of print in the room to the growth in students' reading comprehension (Hoffman et al., 2004). In the best possible literate environment, the classroom is filled with books, books that are readily accessible for students to read in school or take home. Remember, in many schools, children go to the library only once a week. Certainly, some books will be in your classroom because they're part of the curriculum. Other materials should be selected so that students have a wide variety of topics, reading levels, and genres to choose from. Still other books should be chosen to reflect the diversity of your classroom—the range of abilities, interests, and cultural, linguistic, and social backgrounds of your students—as well as the diversity of the larger society outside your classroom. Reading should become a tool students use to learn more about topics and ideas they are interested in, supplementing their understanding of the required curriculum.

Digital texts also have an important role in the classroom. How much digital text and ebooks promote motivation is an open question, but the use of digital text is definitely growing. Elementary and middle school students spend three to six hours a day on screens but only a small proportion of that time is extended reading (Common Sense Media, 2025). Results from a 2023 study in Britain indicate that elementary school students do about a third of their reading in digital texts (Clark et al., 2023). Clearly, teachers need to incorporate digital resources as they build a literate environment.

In order to provide all students with appropriate texts and to match individual students with texts, it's important that you assess your students' attitudes toward reading and their reading interests. *Teaching Tool 3.1* presents an idea for building interest in books.

Finding out about your students as readers is vital to being an effective, motivating teacher. You can find books that will appeal to your students in the following annotated lists:

- The Children's Choices and Teacher's Choices lists, which can be found by searching Children's Choices and Teacher's Choices on the International Literacy Association website www.literacyworldwide.org
- The Notable Social Studies Trade Books for Young People. Notable lists from 2000 to 2019 are available online, open access, at www.socialstudies.org/notable/trade-books. The books that appear in these annotated book lists were evaluated and selected by a Book Review Committee appointed by National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) and assembled in cooperation with the

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

Children's Book Council (CBC) cbc.org. NCSS and CBC have cooperated on this annual bibliography since 1972. Books selected for this bibliography are written primarily for children in grades K–12.

- What Kids Are Reading lists of the most popular print and digital books assembled by Renaissance Learning. Uniquely, these lists show popularity by state as well as nationally. They are available at https://www.renaissance.com/resources/what-kids-are-reading/
- The Outstanding Science Trade Books for Children. Notable lists are available online at nstc.org/outstanding-science-trade-books-students-k-12. A joint project of the National Science Teachers Association (NSTA) and the Children's Book Counsel (CBC) cbc.org since 1973, Outstanding Science Trade Books for Students K–12 represents the year's best science books, chosen by science educators.

Teaching Tool 3.1

Creating a Book Review File

Only a few students might read a book because you, the teacher, told them it was good, but most students will read a book that a peer has recommended. Kathy, a third-grade teacher who has a way of maximizing her efforts, developed a quick and effective book review system that deliberately used note cards rather than electronic media to give students a more concrete experience. When a student finished reading a book, she went to the file (a small box of 5-by-8-inch index cards) and looked it up by the author's name. If someone else had read it, there was a card on file; if not, the student created a card with the author's last name, the author's first name, and the book title. Then, either on a new card or below the comments of others on an existing card, the student wrote a one- or two-sentence opinion of the book. This file became a favorite aid when students were looking for new books for independent reading and often sparked impromptu conversations between students who had read the same book. It was also an opportunity for students to learn the difference between writing an opinion with a supporting reason and writing a brief summary. Summaries weren't allowed in the file.

Another effective strategy for identifying books that your students might enjoy is to talk with your school media specialist or the librarians at a local library. Librarians track the books that children read and check out. They have access to the American Library Association's resources and can give you lists of books that librarians have identified as interesting to readers of various ages and levels of proficiency. A third way to identify exciting books is to watch the kids. Just like adults, children have their own *bestsellers*. Right now, second-graders like the *Dory Fantasmagory* series. The latest installment is *Can't Live Without You* (Hanlon, 2024). Third-grade boys are reading Dav Pilkey, of *Captain Underpants* fame, from his *Dog Man* series, *Big Jim Begins* (Pilkey, 2024); and fourth-graders are still into the ever-popular *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* series, latest installment is #19, *Hot Mess* (Kinney, 2024). Although the literary quality of some books may be questionable, teachers must first help students develop the reading habit; then they can refine taste.

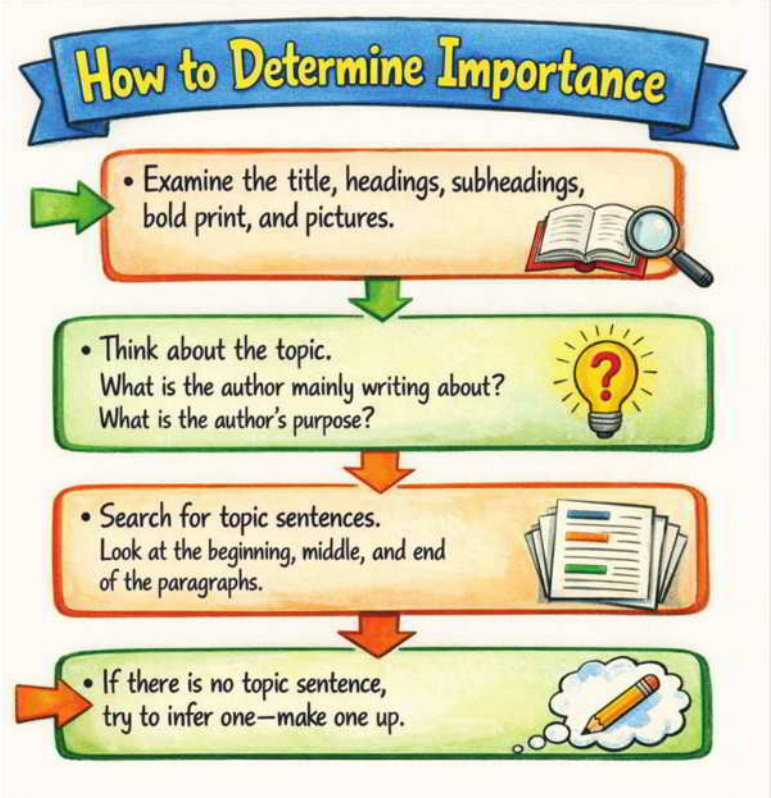
The social, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds of your students and of the greater society constitute yet another important factor in selecting books. Readers shape their views of themselves and of the world partly through what they read. Recognizing yourself in a book is a powerful affirmation that you are part of the human endeavor—and the world of books. Recognizing the humanity of others who might seem different from ourselves is an important part of becoming a citizen of the world.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Good books can act as both a mirror and a window for readers, reflecting their own lives and offering them a chance to understand the lives of others. Perhaps the best books offer an experience that is similar to looking through a window at twilight. At first you can see through the window into another place, but, as the light gradually fades, you end up seeing yourself (Galda, 1998; Galda & Cullinan, 2016). Thinking and talking about experiences like this can help students develop an understanding of themselves and others. And reading books from many cultures exposes students to many wonderful authors. The Reading Corner provides some books that reflect a variety of cultural experiences.

Beyond books, teachers can and should create print for their classrooms that informs, guides, and reflects learning. The posters, anchor charts, and graphic organizers a teacher creates are far more powerful than the ones bought at the teacher supply store. Those are just wallpaper. If students are studying how to determine the main ideas, teachers should create a chart that reflects the rules and procedures that underlie this strategy. **Figure 3.2** is an example of such an anchor chart created by the teacher and students in a fourth-grade classroom. This chart is powerful because the students' thoughts and ideas, guided by the teacher, make up the essence of the strategy. The students' thinking is then preserved as a reminder of how to find main ideas and the students can refer to the chart when they are stumped in the midst of a reading task. You and your students should create all sorts of instructional charts—charts that capture the essence of a strategy or charts that reflect what has been learned—such as a timeline of the American Revolution—or charts that serve as a model for good writing—the tall tale created by the class. The very act of creating a chart and hanging it on the wall stresses the importance of the strategy or the concept being taught.

FIGURE 3.2
Main Idea Anchor Chart Developed by Fourth-Graders



Source: © Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

The Reading Corner

Books About Food and Families in Many Cultures

Alliah Agostini, with chef Taffy Elrod. *The Juneteenth Cookbook: Recipes and Activities for Kids and Families to Celebrate.* Becker&Mayer! Kids, 2024. Introduces the history of Juneteenth through a collection of recipes, activities, and games that are drawn from Black American cultural traditions. 70 pages.

Stephen Briseño. *The Notebook Keeper: A Story of Kindness from the Border.* Random House Studio, 2022. Noemi and her mother, who are denied entry into the United States from Mexico, add their names to the notebook, an unofficial list of those waiting to cross the border. The notebook keeper inspires hope in Noemi's heart. Unpaged.

Judy Campbell-Smith. *Ice Cream Everywhere: Sweet Stories from Around the World.* Sleeping Bear, 2024. From sundaes to Syrian bouza, this book shows how in myriad ways people around the globe enjoy ice cream. 32 pages.

Tami Charles. *Freedom Soup.* Solon, Ohio: Findaway World, LLC., 2020. Every year, Haitians all over the world ring in the new year by eating a special soup, a tradition dating back to the Haitian Revolution. This year, Ti Gran is teaching Belle how to make the soup—Freedom Soup—just like she was taught when she was a little girl. Readers learn the history of this soup, Ti's family, and their Haitian roots. 32 pages.

Karina Nicole Gonzáles. *The Coquíes Still Sing: A Story of Home, Hope, and Rebuilding.* Roaring Brook, 2020. Tribute to Puerto Rico's survival and one family's resilience following devastation caused by Hurricane Maria in 2017. Unpaged.

Padma Lakshmi. *Tomatoes for Neela.* Viking, 2021. As Neela and her mother cook together, they find a way for Neela's grandmother, who lives in India, to share in both the love and the flavors of the day. Includes tomato facts. Author Lakshmi is a cookbook author and TV host. 32 pages.

Areli Morales. *Areli Is a Dreamer.* Random House Studio, 2021. Morales, a DACA (Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals) dreamer, tells the story of her journey as an undocumented immigrant at age 6 from the quiet town of Pueblo, Mexico to the bustling metropolis of New York City. Simultaneously published in English and Spanish. Unpaged.

Felicita Sala. *What's Cooking at 10 Garden Street?: Recipes for Kids from Around the World.* Prestel Junior, 2019. Multicultural meals prepared by the residents of an old apartment building on Garden Street that everyone gathers to enjoy. Recipes included. Unpaged.

Lisa Shulman. *The Matzo Ball Boy.* Puffin Books, 2007. In this Jewish version of the *Gingerbread Man*, a lonely old bubbe makes a matzo ball boy in her chicken soup so he can join her for the Passover Seder. 32 pages.

Abigail Wheatley. *World Kitchen: Family Recipes From Around the World.* Usborne Publishing, 2023. A collection of recipes contributed by families around the world. Each recipe has an introduction featuring the family who contributed it. Also includes illustrated, step-by-step instructions. 64 pages.

Janet S. Wong. *Apple Pie 4th of July.* Clarion Books, 2006. After a young Chinese American girl frets that no one will come to her parents' market to buy Chinese food on the 4th of July, she is happily proven wrong. 40 pages.

Organizing Physical Space

The layout of your room influences students' literate behaviors. You need a table at which to meet with small groups. You need desks, arranged in groups for students to work together, and places to hold the computers and print resources that are essential for writing and inquiry. One of the most important areas is the classroom library. It should be large enough, with comfortable seating, so that several children can relax and get lost in books. If at all possible, the classroom library should have at least six

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 3.1

In this video, a second-grade teacher describes her classroom and some of the changes she plans to implement in the coming year.

www.youtube.com/watch?v=452QQE1ylal

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 3.2

In this video, a sixth-grade English Language Arts (ELA) teacher gives a tour of her classroom.

www.youtube.com/watch?v=EmBPtl_1gow

to eight books for every child in the room organized by reading level, by genre, and by topic. Some of the books should be displayed with the cover forward to attract the attention of the students. Posters, puppets, beanbag chairs, and an old pole lamp help to set a mood. Rotate the books regularly so that there are always new books to discover. When you introduce new books or a new author, make sure that you call students' attention to these books. Several teachers we know let the students organize the classroom library. This is an excellent way for them to take ownership, and as they categorize the books they will learn more about genres and authors. If you want more ideas about how to merchandise books, visit a local bookstore and see how they display books to capture the interest of customers.

Choice

Of course, students need to have choices about what they read and how they respond to their reading. This does not mean that you never assign selections for students to read or prescribe tasks for them to complete after they have read. It does mean that you structure regular opportunities for students to choose their own reading materials and to also choose their own response mode. Allowing students some choice often helps motivate them to spend time reading. In one classroom we observed, the teacher started a literature circle by giving each group a choice of two or three books. The students considered the three selections and then decided which book they wanted to read. This is minimal choice, but enough for the students to exert control and to have their say in the curriculum. Too much choice, as in the expanded types of Oreo cookies or cranberry juices in your local supermarket, is overwhelming.

Independent reading provides one opportunity for students to choose. Although students, especially those who are struggling readers as well as many English learners, need support and guidance in selecting books that they can and will want to read, whenever possible students should choose their own books for independent reading. Some teachers insist that students choose only from the classroom or school library. We suggest that, if reading is the goal, students ought to be able to read all kinds of texts, print and digital, including newspapers, comic books, and magazines. If we want students to spend time reading, we must allow them to choose from a broad set of materials including culturally diverse materials. **Figure 3.3** will help you find and evaluate culturally diverse books for your students, and *In the Classroom 3.1* offers a suggestion for helping students develop an interest in poetry by making use of by making use of several motivating elements—including time for browsing through books, something that often looks unproductive but has been found to be important.

Classroom Climate

In a literate environment, everything that happens in the classroom sends the message that reading—including learning from what you read, having personal responses to what you read, talking about what you read, and writing about what you read—is fantastic! In such a classroom, students are given plenty of time to read, they are given ample opportunities to share the information they learn and their responses to what they have read with each other, they are taught to listen to and respect the ideas of others, and they learn that others will listen to and respect their ideas. A literate atmosphere is a thoughtful atmosphere in which values and ideas are respected, especially the values and ideas of others.

This kind of climate is developed when teachers, in a positive and supportive manner, help students learn how to engage in discussions and other forms of sharing what they have read. One way students learn to do this is through watching you modeling how to be positive and supportive as you scaffold students' reading experiences. Even when students' responses are wrong, try to find something in their responses that you can compliment them on. Modeling and directly teaching students ways to conduct themselves in the classroom, coming up with an agreed-on set of rules for discourse in the classroom, and prominently displaying the rules will also

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 3.3
Resources for Finding and Evaluating Culturally Diverse Books

Some basic questions to ask yourself as you are selecting culturally diverse literature:

- Does the book qualify as good literature?
- Is the culture accurately portrayed, demonstrating diversity within as well as across cultures if appropriate and avoiding stereotypes?
- Is the book a positive contribution to an understanding of the culture portrayed? (Galda & Cullinan, 2016)

As you are learning to evaluate literature in terms of literary excellence and cultural authenticity, here are some sources worth considering.

A valuable resource today for identifying books that represent diverse cultures is, of course, the internet. One such reliable source is the School Library Journal (slj.org) and another Colorín Colorado! (colorincolorado.org) a bilingual site for educators and families of English language learners and a treasure trove of information on multicultural books and how to select them; we found the article *How to Find Diverse Books* particularly useful.

You might also consult the online catalogs from publishers of multicultural books such as Lee and Low; Make Me a World imprint from Random House; Mango and Marigold Press featuring stories about the South Asian experience, Salaam Reads imprint from Simon & Schuster publishes books about Muslim life; Versify, a Harper-Collins imprint featuring multicultural children's experiences; Latina Publishing; Beach House Publishing, a Hawaiian based publisher and Agate Bolden featuring books about African Americans.

Additionally, awards lists are a good way to identify some of the best multicultural literature. Here are some of them:

- Notable Books for a Global Society, from International Literacy Association (ila.org) Special Interest Group honors outstanding multicultural books and their authors and illustrators
- Coretta Scott King Awards (ala.org) for outstanding African American authors and illustrators
- Pura Belpré Award (ala.org) recognizes outstanding Latino/Latina writers and illustrators
- Mildred Batchelder Award (ala.org) awarded to an American publisher for outstanding children's book originating in country other than the United States
- American Indian Youth Literature Award recognizes the best writing and illustrating by and about American Indians
- Asian/Pacific American Award for Literature recognizes individual work about Asian/Pacific Americans and their heritage
- Arab American Book Award honors books written about Arab Americans
- CABA: Children's Africana Book Award for outstanding books about Africa
- Sydney Taylor Book Award for outstanding books for children and teens that authentically portray the Jewish experience

help set the right tone. Trust, respect, and responsibility are important ideas in a safe and supportive classroom, and talking about these concepts and how the successful operation of the class rests on them is crucial, especially at the beginning of the year.

In the Classroom 3.1

Poetry Browsing to Create Interest

Teacher lore has it that it is often difficult to get upper-elementary students engaged in poetry. Whatever the reasons, upper-elementary readers tend to avoid poetry, unless it is humorous verse by authors such as Jack Prelutsky and Mo Williams. But this doesn't always have to be the case. As McClure and her colleagues (McClure et al., 1990) learned, given time and choice, upper-elementary students can learn to really enjoy poetry, even selecting books of poetry for independent reading. After assembling a collection of poetry that might interest their students, McClure and her colleagues added it to

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

the classroom library, displaying it so that students were tempted to look at the books. Then they gave students time to browse—to dip in and out of a variety of poetry books, finding poems they enjoyed and wanted to read to their buddies and then moving on. Over time, this freedom to simply enjoy and sample a lot of poetry without any task being assigned broke down the negative attitudes that students began with.

Grouping Students for Instruction

One of the most important decisions you make in your classroom, and one that will have a huge effect on motivation and engagement, is how to group students. Students can be grouped in a variety of ways for a variety of purposes, yet in all too many cases grouping has not been used effectively and has had a negative effect on many students, specifically those students placed in the low-ability groups.

A typical class of 20 to 25 students brings with it 20 to 25 different sets of interests, abilities, attention spans, and reading skills; and it is very difficult to attend to each of these when working with the class as a whole. When teaching the entire class as a single group, teachers tend to teach to an imaginary mean; that is, they gear their instruction to what they perceive to be the middle range of interest, attention span, and ability. Such instruction does not meet the needs of those who are not in this range. In large-group situations, the teacher must work hard to ensure that all students participate.

Dividing students into smaller groups is often helpful for a number of reasons. Keeping smaller groups on task is generally easier than keeping larger groups on task. It is easier to manage the engagement of students in small groups than the whole class. Smaller groups allow you to differentiate instruction to meet the needs of specific students. Especially in the primary grades, the amount of time students spend in small-groups has been linked to growth in reading achievement (Taylor et al., 2000). The more time spent in small-group instruction, the more students grew. Finally, smaller groups allow more students to be actively involved in discussions. In a group of six, for example, it is possible for each student to respond to a question and for you to deliver individual feedback.

Given these advantages, it is not surprising that students have often been grouped for reading instruction. But grouping has its downside and requires diligence. Grouping has typically been based on reading ability or reading level, leading to disadvantages, particularly for students in low-ability groups. As compared to students in other groups, in the past students in low-ability groups were often given less time to read, spent more time on worksheets, spent less time being actively instructed, and were asked fewer higher-order questions (Allington, 1983). None of this is ordained. As we discuss in Chapter 4, ability grouping can be effective and is particularly important in the primary grades. But teachers need to work hard to ensure that students in low groups have plenty of time to read, work with higher-order questions, and do not spend a lot of time with worksheets. Additionally, the negative impact of being in the low group can be overcome by teaching students the skills and strategies they need to become more able readers and regrouping the students when they have made progress. Periodically teachers should ask themselves, "How many students from my low group have moved to the middle group and how many from the middle group have moved to the high group?"

Recently, we have become slaves to putting students in the just-right reading level, ignoring students' interests and the knowledge they bring to the book (Hoffman, 2017). Many children can read books above their level, especially if they are interested in the topic. Groups should not be permanent; students in the low-ability group in kindergarten and first grade should not stay in that group throughout the elementary school years (Juel, 1990). Effective teachers change their instruction as students grow in reading ability (Juel & Minden-Cupp, 2000). *In the Classroom 3.2* illustrates one way for small groups of students of different reading levels to learn about genre.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

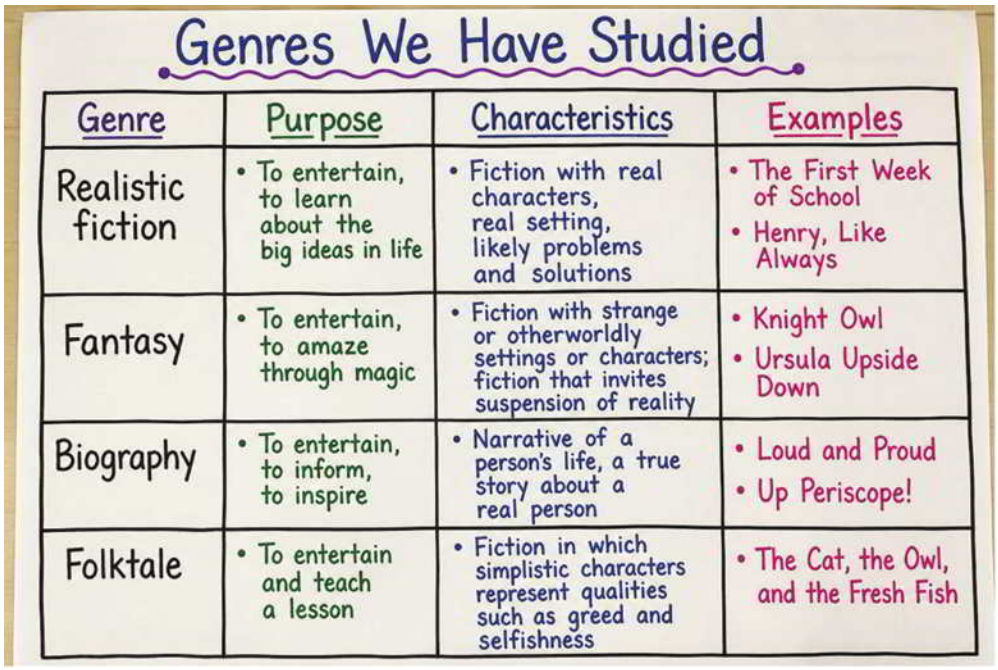
In the Classroom 3.2

Heterogeneous Small Groups Learn About Genre

Early each year Ms. Weiss sets the goal of helping her second-graders learn to work in groups and, at the same time, discover the books and genres in the classroom library. She begins with a short whole-class lesson and reads to the students a fantasy (*Knight Owl*, Denise, 2022), a biography (*Loud and Proud: The Life of Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm*, Cline-Ransome, 2023), a realistic fiction story (*The First Week of School*, Beckmeyer, 2024), and a folktale (*The Cat, the Owl, and the Fresh Fish*, Robert, 2023). She also discusses the characteristics and purpose of each genre and lists them on the board. The results are recorded on a genre chart that the class will maintain for the next few months. The chart will be kept up in the room and new titles added over the coming weeks and months as new books are read aloud. The accompanying genre chart is in its early stages. More genres and titles will be added as the students read and discuss more books.

Students are then assigned heterogeneously to separate tables and each group is handed a stack of 10 to 12 library books and four large cards labeled Fantasy, Biography, Realistic Fiction, and FolkTale. The students sort the books into genres by reading a bit of each book and noting the kinds of illustrations or photographs it includes. Because the teacher has organized each stack of books to have at least a few of each genre at a variety of reading levels, all of the students in the group will be able to read some of the books. As the students begin the work, the teacher circulates around the room and provides help as needed, agreeing, for example, with a group that discovers that it is difficult to distinguish a folktale from a fantasy. When the students have finished their sorting, each group picks one book from each pile and shares it with the class. Students learn about some interesting books, they begin to understand genre, and the classroom library gets a necessary clean-up.

Genre Chart



Genres We Have Studied

Genre	Purpose	Characteristics	Examples
Realistic fiction	• To entertain, to learn about the big ideas in life	• Fiction with real characters, real setting, likely problems and solutions	• The First Week of School • Henry, Like Always
Fantasy	• To entertain, to amaze through magic	• Fiction with strange or otherworldly settings or characters; fiction that invites suspension of reality	• Knight Owl • Ursula Upside Down
Biography	• To entertain, to inform, to inspire	• Narrative of a person's life, a true story about a real person	• Loud and Proud • Up Periscope!
Folktale	• To entertain and teach a lesson	• Fiction in which simplistic characters represent qualities such as greed and selfishness	• The Cat, the Owl, and the Fresh Fish

Source: © Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Reflect and Apply

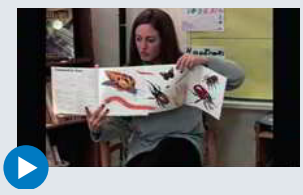
1. Think back to a time, probably high school, when you had an unsuccessful reading experience. What could your teacher have done to make the unsuccessful one more successful?
2. Think about how you choose the books you read as an adult. How do you choose your books? Do you have favorite authors, topics, genres? Do you follow the recommendations of friends? Do you read book reviews or best-seller lists? How could you share these approaches with your students and motivate your students to consider using them?

READING AND LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM—INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Students who are intrinsically motivated to read and learn do so because they expect positive and successful experiences. They do not expect praise or points (Schiefele & Loweke, 2018). Intrinsic motivation has been linked to the amount of reading, students' successful use of comprehension strategies, and their growing sense of competence (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016). Several factors promote students' intrinsic motivation in the classroom: first and foremost is interest. However, interest alone is not enough. The day the bunny escaped from Mrs. Greenwich's classroom was downright enthralling, but it promoted little learning. To promote learning students must have meaningful tasks, value the tasks they are assigned, have personal goals, and have confidence in their ability to meet those goals and, for many, working with others makes the tasks easier and engaging.

Interest

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 3.3



What motivates students to want to read?

Interest is the liking of a topic, genre, and author and the willingness to engage with that topic or read a book about it. Interest has been shown to influence a student's attention (Hidi, 2001), goals (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002), and levels of learning (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). Interest is not easily distinguished from background knowledge. When a child has a deep interest in skateboards, video games, or Marvel comics, they are also knowledgeable about the topics. At some initial point, knowledge was meager, and curiosity led the child to the topic or author. As knowledge grew, so did interest. As the student explores a topic and builds knowledge, the payoff is psychological satisfaction.

Psychologists distinguish between personal interests and situational interests. Personal interests are intrinsic and endure over time, while situational interests can be content specific and activated by the teacher or other students. The escaped bunny mentioned just above prompted situational interest. Teachers tend to think that students either have or do not have an interest in a topic or genre, because we view interests as either on or off. I like basketball, broccoli, and jazz, and dislike soccer, carrots, and chamber music. But interests come and go, and can be strong, weak, or somewhere in between. Interest can be built.

Our goal as educators is to consider how to create a situational interest and turn that into a personal or enduring interest. Hidi and Renninger (2006) suggest a four-phase model for doing so. We will explore the steps in that model.

1. *Triggered Situational Interest*. A situational interest can be triggered by personal identification with a character in a story or a topic. For example, the teacher decides to read aloud, *Chains* (2008) by Laurie Halse Anderson. In some students this sparks an interest in the American Revolution, in others slavery, and still others want to try another book in Anderson's trilogy—*Forge* (2010) or *Ashes* (2016).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

2. *Maintained Situational Interest*. The situational interest develops and is nurtured by persistent work with a book, or books, or a topic. The reader is gently hooked. Many instructional conditions can deepen this situational interest, including cooperative group work, project-based learning, or literature circles. The teacher might suggest other exciting books on the American Revolution or read one aloud to the class. The more meaningful the task the more students' interest develops.
3. *Emerging Individual Interest*. After working with a book, a genre, or a topic for some time, the student begins to embrace the author or topic. If given a choice, they are likely to read more books by the same author or on the same topic. They become curious and seek answers when new issues arise. This emerging individual interest is supported by the teacher or other students who might suggest new books or articles on a topic.
4. *Well-Developed Individual Interest*. Having a well-developed personal interest means that the student has very positive feelings for the topic, genre, or author and considerable knowledge about it. Think of the people you know who became passionate about Harry Potter. At this point, interest, knowledge, and value are all linked. A well-developed individual interest is only sometimes self-generated. Often a librarian, a classroom teacher, or another student supports that interest through modeling, providing resources, and discussions.

Making Connections to Students' Cultures and Lives Outside of School

It is not at all surprising that students are more engaged and motivated to learn if they feel that what they are learning is related to their out-of-school lives. Although not every topic in the curriculum is going to be connected to students' home lives and cultures, many of them certainly can be and should be. One of the easiest ways to do this is to carefully select the reading material for your classroom so that it reflects the issues, concerns, and cultures of your students. At the same time, however, we must admit that assuring cultural matches is easier said than done.

For example, Mr. Augustus, a sixth-grade teacher, had developed a differentiated literature unit around the theme of survival. One group of boys was reading *The Upstairs Room* (Reiss, 2019), two other groups were reading *The Voyage of the Frog* (Paulsen, 2023), and a few were reading *Baseball Saved Us* (Mochizuki, 2018). Five African American boys were giving up on *The Upstairs Room*, a story about three young Jewish girls hiding in a closet in Holland to escape the Nazis. The boys complained that they just didn't get the book. "Who cares about some girls living 75 years ago." "What does that have to do with me?" Mr. Augustus began to discuss the boys' lives and wondered if they had ever experienced any persecution or discrimination. The boys acknowledged that they and their parents had. The teacher led them from their own experience to that of their parents and grandparents under Jim Crow, the Civil Rights movement, and finally back to life under slavery. With these facts in mind, Mr. Augustus helped the boys make connections with discrimination and persecution in different times and places. The boys made a connection, and the plight of Annie, Sini, and Rachel hiding in that closet in Holland became important.

Helping students connect to literature requires selecting the right books and making deliberate efforts to link those books to students' lives. Your students all come from families and communities that have as Moll (1992) describes it *funds of knowledge*. It is up to you to tap into that knowledge. Well-crafted book talks can move that process along. Teachers should regularly give book talks, perhaps two or three times a week, that discuss the genre, theme, and characters of new books. The book talk should make an obvious attempt to relate the book to the students' lives and interests. Although a culturally diverse classroom and school libraries are important no matter whom you teach, it's also important to think about the universals that engage

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

all students. Reading fiction that explores topics such as family, friends, and issues of growing up (such as Bonnie Graves's middle-grade historical novel *Catch Me When I Fall*, 2019), nonfiction about the wonders of the natural world (such as *Fungi Grow* by Maria Gianferrari, 2023), and inspirational biographies (such as *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*, Rappaport, 2023) can draw your students into the world of reading and help them realize that reading, even the reading they do in school, often relates to their lives outside of school.

Class projects can also help students connect home and school. Rather than researching and writing about a topic that has little connection to their community, students can choose to pursue a topic that has relevance to their lives. For example, a group of sixth-grade students in the Pacific Northwest spent a year doing research and writing about how pollution had destroyed the salmon stream that ran by their school. They read, discussed, and wrote while they also cleaned up the stream. The result was a cleaner stream, heightened community awareness of issues of pollution, and a book, *Come Back, Salmon!*, that chronicled their project. Eventually, the salmon even came back.

English learners experience particular success when they can make connections between what they already know and what they are learning to do. One way to do this is to have children create an identity text. An identity text is one that is grounded in and reflective of children's lives. When completed, these texts "hold a mirror up to students in which their identities are reflected back in a positive light" (Cummins, 2001, p. 219). One way to do this is to have children create memoirs. Memoirs are necessarily grounded in and reflective of children's lives. Every child in the classroom can create a memoir. The children who are English learners can create memoirs that are dual-language texts. On each page, sentences are first written in the child's home language. Then they are written in English, one language on top of the other.

Promoting Academic Values and Goals

Ultimately, motivation and engagement are intrapersonal values, and it is the students themselves who must become motivated and engaged—with school and schooling. The fact is that a good deal of schoolwork is just that—work—and we need to find ways to help students truly value that work. Students typically approach an assignment by asking themselves a question like this: "How hard do I want to work given my interest of the task and the likely payoff?" Most worksheets are boring and there are many of them, so students place little value on completing them. In contrast, reading about aerodynamics to construct paper airplanes that will be launched from the roof of the school to win a trophy might create intrinsic interest and be a powerful goal for some students.

Most school days should start with a very short discussion about what we are going to do and why it is important. Students need to think about school not as a set of activities that they dutifully complete, but as important tasks chosen by the teacher and the students to build their skills and knowledge. In this short introduction to the day, you can plant a sense of anticipation and give students something to look forward to—perhaps, a video from the Internet, a new read-aloud, or an experiment in science. Much as the news teases us with an upcoming segment, we can keep the students engaged by previewing upcoming activities. As the day comes to an end, it is often appropriate to review and celebrate what the class accomplished and what they learned during the day.

Keep in mind that students have different goals when they enter your classroom. Some are looking forward to the book you are reading aloud or the topic they are studying. The intrinsic interest drives them. Others work hard because they want a good grade and because all A's and B's on their report card will make them and their parents proud. Others are willing to work if they can work with others and on topics that interest them. Still others are not interested in school, and it will take all of your knowledge and skills to convince them of the value of academic goals. Keep these different goal orientations in mind as you interact with different students.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Efficacy and Positive Attributions

Students' self-perceptions influence their motivation, their performance, and especially their sense of efficacy or confidence. Educators and psychologists who study motivation know that the way people view their successes and failures, what has come to be called their *attributions*, has a powerful effect on motivation. Students should enter a new task or open a new book with the sense that they will succeed. If they do succeed, their sense of efficacy grows as does their motivation. If they fail to succeed repeatedly, they acquire a sense of learned helplessness. Students need appropriate challenges, and they need to learn how to interpret their success and failures.

Attribution theory helps to explain and underscore the importance of success to student motivation and engagement. Attribution theory deals with students' perceptions of the causes of their successes and failures in learning. As Wittrock (1986) explains, in deciding why they succeed or fail in reading tasks, students can attribute their performance to ability, effort, luck, the difficulty of the reading task, or the kindness of teachers. All too often, children who have repeatedly failed in reading attribute their failure to factors that are unchangeable and beyond their control—such as their perceived innate inability. One student we knew simply stated, "I can't read; I have dyslexia." Once children develop such an attitude, they are likely to lose their motivation to read and to doubt their ability to learn. From the children's perspective, there is no reason to try because there is nothing they can do about it. Moreover, as long as they do not try, they cannot fail; you cannot lose a race if you do not enter it.

LEARNED HELPLESSNESS

As Johnston and Winograd (1985) have pointed out, one long-term outcome of children's repeatedly attributing failure in reading to forces beyond their control is the learned helplessness syndrome. Children who exhibit learned helplessness in reading are apt to be nervous, withdrawn, and discouraged when they are faced with reading tasks. They are unlikely to be actively engaged in reading, to have goals and plans when they read, to monitor themselves when they are reading to see if the reading makes sense, or to check themselves after reading to see if they have accomplished their reading goal.

Obviously, we need to avoid this debilitating cycle of negative attributions and learned helplessness. Second-grade teacher Jerry Costello suggests four approaches:

> The first, and almost certainly the most powerful, way I have found to help students understand that they are in control of their learning is something I hear stressed over and over again by my colleagues and in the literature: Make students' reading experiences successful ones; make them so frequently successful for students that they will be compelled to realize that it is they themselves and not some outside force that is responsible for their success.
>
> Second, I tell students that their efforts *make a difference*, and when they are successful in a reading task, I talk to them about the activities they engaged in to make them successful. Teaching specific strategies is critical. If students learn to predict and reread and their performance on a test or project improves, I can help them attribute their success to these very specific actions. If they understand that their success stems from specific strategies they can control, then they can alter their attributions. I usually confer with individual students and help them understand how their efforts and their strategies made a difference. This gives them a sense of control.
>
> Third, I avoid competitive situations in which students compare how well they read a selection to how well others read it and instead focus students' attention on what they personally gained from the selection.
>
> Finally, I try to provide a number of reading activities in which the goal is simply to enjoy reading, have fun, learn something, and experience something interesting and exciting rather than only offering reading activities that are followed by answering questions or some other sort of external accountability.
>
> —Jerry Costello, second-grade teacher

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

The Importance of Appropriate Challenges

All readers need to undertake some challenging tasks. Unless they are willing to take some risks and make some uncertain attempts, there is little room or reason for learning to take place (Taylor et al., 2002). As Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1990) learned from three decades of research on what makes people's lives happier and more meaningful, facing and meeting significant challenges is one of the most self-fulfilling and rewarding experiences we can have. However, when we present students with challenges, we need to be certain that they clearly understand the goals toward which they are working, to give them challenges appropriate for their skills, and to provide them with whatever support they need to meet these challenges. This is, of course, true for all students, but it is particularly true for those students who have often found school difficult. *In the Classroom 3.3*, which is based on a lesson one of us observed, shows how one teacher managed this balancing act. About half way through the lesson, the teacher and I looked at each other and nodded, acknowledging the fact that the students were so engrossed that there was little for any adult to do.

In the Classroom 3.3

Providing Both Challenges and Supports

Mrs. Montano's goal is to teach her second-graders how to read informational text. For one of her groups she has selected the book *Snakes for Kids: A Junior Scientist's Guide to Venom, Scales, and Life in the Wild* (Starkey, 2022)—an intriguing topic. She starts the lesson by discussing the features of informational texts and their purpose. She points out the title and asks the students why a book has a title. "To tell what it is about." "So you can decide if you want to read it." These ideas are recorded on the chart. Next, the students consider the purpose of the table of contents, index, headings, bold print words, charts, graphs, pictures, and captions. Each feature is noted on the chart and its purpose is described. Mrs. Montano explains how the students will use these features to help them understand what they are reading and to locate information. She models this briefly with a book about spiders.

Below is the chart the class came up with.

Chart for Exploring the Features of Informational Text

Text Conventions	Purposes
Title	Identifies topic or subject, creates interest
Table of contents	Helps to locate specific topics
Headings	Identify the topic or purpose of a section
Subheadings	Identify the topic or purpose of a paragraph or more
Bold print	Highlights important concepts that demand attention and understanding
Picture	Helps us understand more about the text
Caption	Explains a picture or a chart
Index	Helps to locate specific information

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

The class then moves to their reading groups, and one group of nine students begins to work with the teacher. In addition to *Snakes for Kids*, the teacher has brought from the library 25 additional books about snakes at various reading levels. Mrs. Montano presents the Anticipation Guide shown here. The students' task before they read the book is to guess, based on their knowledge, the truth of each statement about snakes. Working independently, the students ponder and complete the guide. Then the teacher explains that they are to work with a partner and read *Snakes for Kids* to determine which of their guesses are correct. If they can't find the information in the book, they are free to read in any of the other books from the library.

The students begin to work. They read, they search, they argue. Some answers are found and others are not. The students grab other books and turn to the index or the table of contents to locate information about statements they have not yet verified. Note how the Structure of Informational Text chart used at the beginning of the lesson helped the students locate the information they needed. There is a very high level of engagement in the group. Some students begin to argue with each other and point to books to substantiate their claims. The students talk almost exclusively to each other and the teacher is largely ignored. Occasionally, Mrs. Montano has to quiet the group, but otherwise they continue to work. Students complete the Anticipation Guide quickly, but they continue to read the library books.

Anticipation Guide for *Snakes for Kids*

Before Reading	Statement	After Reading
1. True/False	Farmers do not like to have snakes on their farms.	1. True/False
2. True/False	The more colorful a snake is, the more dangerous it is.	2. True/False
3. True/False	Most snakes are harmless, but some are very dangerous.	3. True/False
4. True/False	Most snakes' skin is slimy to the touch.	4. True/False
5. True/False	Some people have snakes as pets.	5. True/False
6. True/False	Most U.S. states outlaw keeping snakes as pets.	6. True/False
7. True/False	If you see a snake, you should run.	7. True/False

Can you see how the lesson in *In the Classroom 3.3* appropriately challenged the students? The anticipation guide provided a task that all of the students could complete. It also created a sense of intrigue or mystery. The students wanted to see if they were right or wrong. They wanted to solve the puzzle. The original book, *Snakes for Kids*, was at the students' reading level and the initial instruction on text features helped the students navigate the text. The library books provided additional information, and because these books came from a variety of reading levels, all students could find additional books they could read. Even difficult texts could be used because the students knew how to locate information. Finally, the students worked with a partner. This provided additional support; if one could not locate the necessary information, the two working together might be able to.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Using Cooperative Activities to Ensure Active Participation

Students are a lot more motivated when actively engaged in learning. This is true for elementary students and for college students; if you are using this book as part of a college class, we hope you are engaged in active learning as part of your class. Such activities include constructing models, role-playing teaching situations, doing experiments, creating examples, and observing in classrooms and reporting back to your peers. Students in one study (Boaler, 2002), for example, noted that "you learn more by doing something on your own," "you feel more proud of the projects when you've done them yourself," and "because you had to work out for yourself what was going on, you had to use your own ideas."

Cooperative learning is another form of active learning that is very widely used, and it offers significant benefits. Importantly, the advantages of cooperative learning have been found to occur in a variety of domains (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Students in cooperative groups showed superior performance in academic achievement, displayed more self-esteem, accommodated better to mainstreamed students, showed more positive attitudes toward school, and generally displayed better overall psychological health. Students in cooperative groups also displayed better interpersonal relationships; and these improved interpersonal relationships held regardless of differences in ability, sex, ethnicity, or social class. Moreover, cooperative learning has been shown to be successful in teaching students how to resolve conflicts (Johnson & Johnson, 2002). Finally, cooperative learning can create a classroom in which students share the responsibility for each other's learning rather than compete with each other—a very positive situation. This reduces the alienation of students who often do not do well in school and often on their own perform more poorly than their classmates (Cohen, 1994). For some students, the social nature of school—that's where their friends are—is more important than the academic tasks. Working in groups satisfies their social needs while they learn new content and skills.

A number of authors (Abramczyk & Jurkowski, 2020; Cohen, 1994; Johnson et al., 1994; Slavin, 1987) have described approaches to cooperative learning, and using more than one approach can provide variety and accomplish somewhat different purposes. Moreover, as the title of this section suggests, variety itself tends to be motivating and engaging for students. No one likes to do the same thing in the same way all the time, and sometimes adding variety just to add variety makes good sense.

To close this section, we want to reiterate that you have two goals: (1) engaging students in motivating academic tasks and (2) motivating students to read. Similar factors underlie each goal. Choice, challenge, and efficacy are essential for deep involvement in academic tasks and for turning reluctant readers into avid readers. Interest and tasks that students value motivate them to work on a project or read a book.

MOTIVATING STUDENTS EXTRINSICALLY

Extrinsic motivation is frequently employed by teachers and parents. They are using it when a child earns points for reading a book, praise for completing an assignment, or when a class receives a pizza party at the end of the year for reading 500 books. Even earning an A in reading can be considered an extrinsic reward. Extrinsically motivated readers strive to attain some goal that is outside the book or the task (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Extrinsic motivators such as grades, competition, and social recognition seem unrelated to how much students choose to read or to their development of reading fluency and comprehension (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016). But extrinsic motivators are not all bad, especially when students see the value of an activity and how it relates to them (Ryan & Deci, 2020).

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Praise and Points

Praise can be an effective motivator, and it is certainly a widely used tool. Nevertheless, praise is not without its potential drawbacks. Most importantly, it must be honest, and students must perceive it as honest. According to Guthrie and Wigfield (2000), effective praise is given only in response to students' efforts and achievements, specifies just what students have accomplished to earn the praise, and helps students better appreciate their work. I like that you corrected three reading errors today. Correcting your errors means you are becoming a better reader. Guthrie and Wigfield also note that effective praise makes it clear to students that they should attribute their success to effort and to the strategies that they used to accomplish the task for which they are being praised.

Before we can praise, we have to help students set goals. Students who set goals are more motivated to learn than students who do not. Teachers who work with their students to set appropriate learning goals are helping to foster students' long-term engagement and learning (Ames, 1992; Maehr & Midgley, 1996). Once the goals are set, we should help students understand how they are progressing in meeting those goals. Praise has a positive effect once students recognize their own achievements.

Grades

Grades are an essential extrinsic motivation tool. It is hard to imagine a school without some system for reporting achievement and progress to students and parents. Like most extrinsic tools, grades have little effect on the students' motivation to read, but they can be useful to motivate some learning activities. For students whose goals are earning good grades, the inducement of a higher grade can spur them on to work harder on a project. Other students might be motivated by the interest in the project and the possibility of public recognition at the school-wide science fair. As you get to know your students, you can tailor your motivational messages to each individual. Grades seem to have more effect on the motivation to read and on reading achievement for some students while others are more motivated by the project or the activity itself (Schiefele et al., 2012).

Rewards other than praise—points, stars, books, pizzas—can sometimes be effective in the short run. However, one of the most consistent and strongest cautions in the literature on motivation is that extrinsic rewards can undermine motivation in the long run (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; National Research Council, 2004; Stipek, 2002). When students become accustomed to getting extrinsic rewards for reading, they may begin reading solely to get the extrinsic reward and actually discontinue reading when the extrinsic rewards are no longer available. Our goal should always be to demonstrate to students that reading is worthwhile for its own sake—for the learning, enjoyment, and satisfaction that it brings. Our greatest tools in accomplishing this goal are giving students good books and other materials to read and scaffolding their efforts so that they can successfully comprehend them.

Technology

One computer-based program, Accelerated Reader (Renaissance Learning), is widely used to promote reading and provide motivation. This program was designed to motivate reading, promote increased time for reading, assess comprehension with computer-based tests, and reward students with points when they have successfully read a book and passed a test. Many teachers and schools believe that this program is at the core of their efforts to motivate students. However, the program has its pitfalls—some students don't like to read for points, and many books are not yet on the system. Yet the largest problem is that points or other extrinsic rewards do not build a long-term love of reading (Krashen, 2004). Students who enthusiastically use the program in school have no increased motivation to read on their own.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Factors That Undermine Motivation

In order to understand just what something is, it is often useful to understand what it is not. Although we certainly do not want to dwell on the negative, we do want to list some factors that undermine motivation. Pressley and his colleagues (Bogner et al., 2002; Dolezal et al., 2003; Pressley et al., 2003) have identified a number of these factors. A few of them are listed in **Figure 3.4**. Pressley et al. (2003) provide a much longer list. Most unfortunately, when Pressley and his colleagues (2003) observed primary-grade classrooms, they found many of these factors present.

Reflect and Apply

3. Explain two or three things you might do to help a shy second-grader who tends to lack confidence in her ability develop a more positive attitude toward herself as a learner.
4. Now explain two or three things you would not do so that you do not further undermine her attitude toward herself as a learner.
5. Suppose you want to convince your fourth-graders that (1) although schoolwork can be challenging, it is worth doing well and (2) doing their schoolwork well will give them a sense of accomplishment and pride. Jot down what you might say to them.

FIGURE 3.4
Some Factors That Undermine Motivation

Physical Environment

- Few examples of students' work and accomplishments are shown on the walls.
- The room is sparsely decorated, with few posters, pictures, or other elements to make it more attractive and inviting.

Psychological Environment

- The teacher does not have or communicate to students that she has high expectations for their learning.
- The atmosphere fostered by the teacher is not cooperative, and no sense of community and students helping and respecting each other is developed.
- The teacher communicates to students that getting the right answers and high grades are the most important part of school.
- The teacher gives students very little praise.

Classroom Instruction

- The teacher does not check for understanding before moving on.
- The teacher does not use opportunities to connect lessons to other concepts in the curriculum, to previous learning experiences, or to the world outside of school.
- The teacher does not give students time to process questions and think about answers before calling on them.
- The teacher is not fully prepared for the day's lessons.

Classroom Management

- The teacher does not check students' progress as they work and fails to notice students' confusion or off-task behavior.
- The teacher uses negative, punishing techniques to maintain order in the classroom.

Source: Based on Pressley, M., Dolezal, S. E., Raphael, L., Mohan, L., Bogner, K., & Roehrig, A. (2003). *Motivating primary grade students*. Guilford Press.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

NANCY MASTERS, A SUPERSTAR AT MOTIVATING STUDENTS

Nancy Masters is a truly outstanding teacher who was observed by Pressley and his colleagues as part of their in-depth studies of motivation in primary-grade classes (Bogner et al., 2002; Pressley et al., 2003). Here is a description of her efforts.

> On a typical day, Nancy Masters used more than 40 different positive motivational mechanisms to inspire and engage her students. Her classroom was filled to overflowing with motivating activities and a positive tone. Cooperation was emphasized consistently during both whole-group and small-group instruction. Thus, when students read books with partners, Ms. Masters reminded them that, "The point is, you're supposed to help your partner." She provided reassurance and interesting scaffolding when students took on challenging activities. Thus, before a test requiring application of phonics skills, Ms. Masters reminded her students of the phonics they had been learning and emphasized that they should apply what they knew about phonics on the upcoming test.
>
> Ms. Masters emphasized depth in her teaching, covering mature and interesting ideas. For example, during Black History Month, students not only completed detailed group book reports about five prominent Black leaders, but she also led a discussion about the Jim Crow laws, one in which the students participated enthusiastically, demonstrating they had learned a great deal about discrimination during the month. During this conversation, Ms. Masters talked about different ways that people can affect social change, covering civil disobedience, disobeying unjust laws, and working within the system to change such laws. She and the first-grade students discussed equality and inequality, with student comments reflecting their grasp of some very difficult concepts.
>
> Nancy Masters's teaching connected across the curriculum and community, between school and home. During the first month of the school year, she took her class to visit the kindergarten room. In doing so, she began to become acquainted with her future students while forging connections across grade levels for the kindergarten and grade-1 students. Her students wrote in their journals about this visit. When they wrote stories a few weeks later, Ms. Masters held out as a carrot another visit to the kindergarten room. She told her grade-1 students, "Maybe we'll show the kindergarten [your stories]." Nancy also pointed out times when students' home experience connected with school. Thus, when a student read the word *little* very quickly, Ms. Masters commented, "Have you been working at home with your Mom? I'm so proud of you!" In doing so, she simultaneously emphasized the importance of effort and homework while connecting to the student's home life. Ms. Masters also hosted a career day during which parents talked about and demonstrated their professional skills. After the visits, the students wrote in journals and did an at-home art project about their favorite profession. This special home assignment complemented the regular homework, which consisted of reading 15 minutes a night, doing a short math worksheet, and practicing spelling words.
>
> Nancy Masters gave many opportunistic mini-lessons. In-class assignments seemed appropriately challenging and engaging (i.e., students could not finish them quickly, and they seemed interested in them). Her emphasis on good literature, the writing process, and comprehension was apparent during every class visit. Also, the class constructed many products, which were tangible evidence of accomplishment, including big books that were displayed prominently in the classroom and discussed often. Ms. Masters promised the class that each one of them would be able to take home one class-constructed book at the end of the year. She made many across-curriculum connections for her students (e.g., having students use the Internet and the library to find material about Black History Month, material then used in writing an essay).
>
> Ms. Masters expressively communicated with students. As she read to students, she modeled her interest and enthusiasm, and reflected her curiosity about what would happen next in a story, often creating a sense of suspense about the events in a reading. When the class received a new basal reader, she opened it and said, "A brand new book!! It's like a present. I know you want to open it and look inside. Go ahead and look inside. See anything interesting? Anything you've read?"
>
> Ms. Masters provided clear learning objectives and goals. Thus, at the beginning of the school year, she had the students copy stories she had written on the board, explaining they were copying stories so that "You can see what good writing looks like." Similarly, when she taught strategies during writing workshop, Ms. Masters emphasized that the use of the strategies would help students write as they needed to write by the end of grade [1].
>
> Nancy Masters emphasized effort attributions. Thus, on the day report cards were distributed to students, she told the students twice that their most important grade was their grade for

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

effort. She and her students often used the term *personal best* to describe how they were doing.

Nancy Masters monitored the students well. She often said, "When I come around, I want to hear you reading or helping your partner or discussing the story." During her walk-arounds, she provided help to students who were struggling.

Of course, Ms. Masters's efforts to motivate her students paid off. There was consistently high engagement in her class. The pace was always quick. The assignments were always interesting. She excited her students about their work. Her students were always engaged in productive work!

[1]From "Nancy Masters' Teaching," in *Reading Instruction That Works: The Case for Balanced Teaching* by Michael Pressley. Copyright © 2005 by Guilford Publications, Inc. Reproduced with permission of Guilford Publications, Inc., via Copyright Clearance Center.

Reflect and Apply

6. Reread the description of Nancy Masters's motivational activities in her first-grade class and pick out five activities that would work just as well with fourth- or fifth-graders. Now look back at the description and see if you can find any activities that would be inappropriate for fourth- or fifth-graders. How many did you find? What does this suggest about the extent to which motivational principles are applicable across grade levels?
7. Because grouping can have such a strong effect on students' learning, it is important that you fully understand its possible effects. Toward this end, get together with a small group of your classmates, generate a list of positive and negative effects of grouping, and brainstorm a list of ways in which you can maximize the positive effects of grouping and minimize the negative ones.

SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING

Over the last 30 years, a concern and a movement that has been termed social emotional learning (SEL) has steadily grown. The concern of the movement is that in addition to considering students' academic strengths and weaknesses and their motivation to read and succeed in school, schools need to consider a broad range of social and emotional conditions that students face, both in and out of school. The movement deals with schooling generally and is much broader than the focus of this book. However, its importance to reading instruction was brought to our attention by a number of widely respected reading researchers (Pearson et al., 2024). The researchers' response argued for a broad understanding of the science of reading, one much like that in this book, and went beyond that to stress as their first priority the importance of social and emotional learning. There are many factors that need to be considered in planning reading instruction, and we do not want to suggest that social and emotional learning is the preeminent priority, but we certainly agree that it is an important one and a factor that has often received less attention than it deserves.

The majority of the SEL programs that have been developed and tested over the past 30 years have been whole-school projects designed to promote growth in children's social and emotional learning, competence, and behavior in a number of areas. As indicated in the framework developed by the Collaborative for Academic,

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 3.4

What are the core competencies and key settings for social emotional learning?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=ouXhi_CfBVg&t=2s

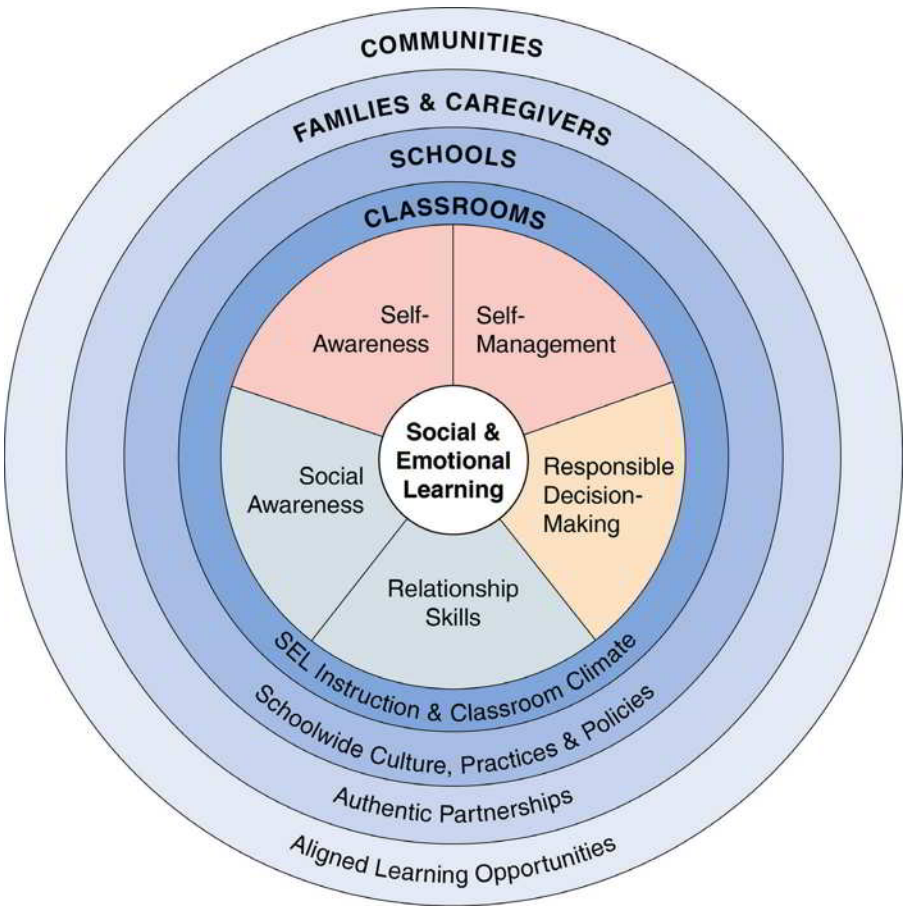
Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL), the most widely recognized SEL organization, SEL programs should focus on five outcomes. The CASEL framework is shown in **Figure 3.5**. As shown in the figure, these outcomes are Self-Awareness, Social Awareness, Self-Management, Relationship Skills, and Responsible Decision-Making. The CASEL framework defines each of these in some detail. Here is the brief definition of each of them taken from the CASEL website (https//.www.casel.org), a rich source of information on SEL: As you read this section of the chapter, you will see that there is a good deal of overlap between what we have said about motivation and engagement and the concerns of the SEL movement. This is not surprising, since concerns about motivation and engagement and SEL concerns are primarily affective considerations.

The five CASEL outcomes can be related to aspects of motivation that we have discussed and instructional activities. **Figure 3.6** lists these outcomes and pairs them with some aspects of reading instruction.

As also shown in Figure 3.6, these outcomes are influenced by children's experiences in four different but interrelated settings: Classrooms, Schools, Families and Caregivers, and Communities. While we recognize that each of these settings is important, we are concerned with SEL in Classrooms. Before we move on, however, we should note that schoolwide SEL programs have produced some notable results.

FIGURE 3.5
The CASEL Framework



Source: © "Used with permission from What Is the CASEL Framework?", CASEL at https://casel.org/fundamentals-of-sel/what-is-the-casel-framework/"

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

FIGURE 3.6
The Five CASEL Outcomes

The Five CASEL Outcomes	CASEL Outcomes within the Classroom
SELF-AWARENESS: The abilities to understand one's own emotions, thoughts, and values and how they influence behavior across contexts. This includes capacities to recognize one's strengths and limitations with a well-grounded sense of confidence and purpose.	We have discussed efficacy and positive attributions. This is how students see themselves. When you confer with students ask them to evaluate their work. If they succeeded, ask why they did. Guide them to consider that their effort, their use of strategies, and their value influenced your success. "See how much that summarizing strategy helped you complete your report."
SELF-MANAGEMENT: The abilities to manage one's emotions, thoughts, and behaviors effectively in different situations and to achieve goals and aspirations. This includes the capacities to delay gratification, manage stress, and feel motivation and agency to accomplish personal/collective goals.	Schooling requires students to manage many tasks over days and weeks and teachers should help. Teachers can explicitly state goals, identify due dates, help students keep agendas or schedules for assignments. Each morning teachers can review goals for the day, help students decide what they will accomplish during independent work time and empathize with those who find tasks onerous. Individual conferences may help those who procrastinate or rush.
SOCIAL AWARENESS: The abilities to understand the perspectives of and empathize with others, including those from diverse backgrounds, cultures, and contexts. This includes the capacities to feel compassion for others, understand broader historical and social norms for behavior in different settings, and recognize family, school, and community resources and supports.	Often during the reading/language block students work together in small groups discussing books or working on projects. Key to successful small group work is helping students learn the social norms of a success group. Teachers can work with students to follow social rules. Listen to others, share ideas, ask questions, encourage others to respond, and keep the discussion moving.
RELATIONSHIP SKILLS: The abilities to establish and maintain healthy and supportive relationships and to effectively navigate settings with diverse individuals and groups. This includes the capacities to communicate clearly, listen actively, cooperate, work collaboratively to problem solve and negotiate conflict constructively, navigate settings with differing social and cultural demands and opportunities, provide leadership, and seek or offer help when needed.	Throughout the day students work with each other in student- managed small groups, like the literature circles discussed in Chapter 11 or in paired reading activities that build oral reading fluency, a topic discussed in Chapter 9. When any of these activities is introduced, it is important for teachers to review social rules, model appropriate and successful behavior, and coach students through their initial attempts at working together.
RESPONSIBLE DECISION-MAKING: The abilities to make caring and constructive choices about personal behavior and social interactions across diverse situations. This includes the capacities to consider ethical standards and safety concerns, and to evaluate the benefits and consequences of various actions for personal, social, and collective well-being.	At the beginning of the school year teachers routinely discuss the class rules. These span rules for entering and leaving the room, going to lunch and recess, behavior on the playground, in the classroom and what to do when problems arise, and the teacher is busy. These rules should be developed with the students, so they understand the common classroom expectations and the benefits of abiding by the rules.

Source: © "Used with permission from CASEL'S SEL FRAMEWORK: What Are the Core Competence Areas and Where Are They Promoted? CASEL at https://casel.org/casel-sel-framework-11-2020/?view=1"

A recent meta-analyses of 90 SEL studies in the United States indicated that students who participated in SEL programs showed significantly improved "academic achievement, school functioning, social and emotional skills, attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of school climate and safety" (Cipriano et al., 2024, p. 1). A companion meta-analyses involving 424 studies in 53 countries produced similar results (Cipriano et al., 2023). And a recent review of SEL programs in 12 other meta-analyses showed positive effects of SEL programs on the development of social and emotional competencies, prosocial behaviors, reduction of disruptive behavior, and fostering

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

academic performance (Greenberg, 2023). For more information about SEL, including the various settings in which it can and needs to be fostered, we recommend the CASEL website, https://www.casel.org.

Our message about SEL as it relates to supporting students' reading development in classrooms is simple: As teachers, we must realize that our students have lives, interests, challenges, concerns, achievements, and disappointments outside of our classrooms. All of these social and emotional factors influence our students' academic learning in the classroom, and we need to take this into account as we plan instruction and classroom activities. Probably the first step in doing so is to know the students and let them know that we know them and care about them. *In the Classroom 3.4* illustrates one teacher's musings as she thinks about getting to know a new group of students at the beginning of the year.

In the Classroom 3.4

Getting to Know Students and Letting Them Know You Care

It's August and Alice Rodriguez is busy planning for the upcoming year. Ms. Rodriguez teaches first grade in a Texas school not far from the Mexican border. Although she does not yet know just which students will be enrolled in her class, she knows that many of them will be English learners and that some of them will be newcomers, children who not only speak little English but for whom school will be a new, and perhaps threatening experience. As a result, Ms. Rodriguez gives a good deal of attention to how she can make the classroom welcoming and her students comfortable and confident. One important step toward doing so is learning students' names, getting to know each student, and letting each student know that she cares. Unfortunately, Ms. Rodriguez is not good at learning names, and she knows this. So her plan for the first day of class includes assigning students seats, telling students why she is assigning seats (because she wants to learn their names and is not very good at doing so), taking a picture of the class with students in their assigned seats, and labeling each picture with the student's name. She will spend some of the evening following the first day learning each student's name.

The second day of class, Ms. Rodriguez will greet students at the door, calling as many of them as she can by name. She will be greeting each of them at the door each day and offers them some choices of how they would like to greet her. The options she gives them include smiles, high fives, fist bumps, pinky shakes, and little dances. After class that day, Ms. Rodriguez will put up some posters just outside the classroom door so that students can point to the type of greeting they would like to use.

Ms. Rodriguez realizes that besides learning students' names, there are many other ways for teachers to make their classrooms safe, inviting, and supportive environments for learning. Some of these are listed as follows:

- Getting to know students: Their likes and dislikes, their strengths and weaknesses, some things about their families, meeting their parents or caregivers, learning some things about their backgrounds.
- Understanding their relationship with other students: Do they have friends in the classroom or do they seem to lack friends, are they leaders or followers, do they seem to struggle to make friends and to fit in, do they seem to know their place in the social hierarchy of the classroom?
- Assessing their self-awareness and self-management: Do they seem to understand their strengths and weaknesses academically and socially, do they recognize when they need help and when they do not, can they decide what they need to do to succeed at various tasks or do they need a good deal of guidance?

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

- Considering their skills at responsible decision making: Do they make responsible decisions, ones that will lead to academic success, social acceptance, and feelings of accomplishment? Or do they repeatedly make poor decisions, ones that lead them toward academic failure, rejection and feelings of failure?
- Learning what types of books and other materials they like to read and can succeed with: Do they prefer books or shorter materials? Do they prefer fiction of nonfiction? Are there certain topics of genre that they prefer, for example, sports, animals, mysteries, coming of age stories? Do they prefer challenging material or material they can read easily?

The more you know about your students, the better equipped you will be to create classrooms that help students learn and grow academically, socially, and emotionally, both in the classroom and in their lives outside of the classroom. The Reading Corner presents some books that can foster social and emotional learning.

The Reading Corner

Books That Foster Social and Emotional Learning

Stories that highlight diverse ways of being in the world, the value of mistakes, missteps, and moments of defeat—things we all experience in different ways—are valuable for fostering social and emotional well-being. By reading stories that portray and illuminate social and emotional issues, students can learn to empathize with people different from themselves as well as characters similar to themselves and realize that, no matter who we are or where we come from, everybody experiences challenges of one sort or another, and it's how we deal with these challenges that defines us.

Christine Baldacchino, illustrated by Isabelle Malenfant. *Morris Micklewhite and the Tangerine Dress*, Groundwood Books, 2014. Morris is a little boy who loves to wear an orange-colored dress from his classroom's dress-up center. At first, the other kids tease him. But when Morris builds a spaceship, the other children want to join in. A picture book about fostering inclusion and acceptance. 32 pages.

Rachel Funez, illustrated by Kelly Kennedy. *Sonia and the Super-Duper Disaster.* Free Spirit Publishing, 2024. When Sonia forgets her mother's birthday, she's determined to make up for this mistake by making her mom breakfast. But her ADHD gets in the way, and her anxiety multiplies as the breakfast spirals out of control. Relying on strategies such as deep breathing and self-talk ("I'm capable. I've got this"), Sonia manages to save the breakfast in the end. 40 pages. Back matter expands on the book's theme, discussing ADHD, anxiety, and the strategies that Sonia uses to cope in more detail.

Ashley Granillo. *Cruzita and the Mariacheros*, Carolrhoda, April 2024. Cruzita, who feels misunderstood by her family, dreams of becoming a pop star, but for now she must help at her family's bakery, while she's also mourning the recent death of her beloved uncle. Caught between two worlds, she finds a sense of community in mariachi music, which helps her connect with her family and heritage. 252 pages.

Bonnie Graves. *Catch Me When I Fall,* Fitzroy, 2019. Thinking her father might be the famous Filippo the Flying Wonder, Emma lands a job at a traveling circus in search of the father she never knew defying her mother's strict orders not to go near the circus. The story highlights the fractures that can occur in family relationships when secrets are held and communication breaks down, but how courage, determination, resilience, and love can lead to reparations in broken relationships. 122 pages.

Harold Green III, illustrated by Andrea Pippins. *Words Are My Superpower: A Kid's Guide to Affirmations, Mantras, and Positive Thinking,* Running Press, 2024. Practical advice on how words have the power to change lives and deal with

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

some of the most powerful villains in young readers' lives such as anxiety, fear, disappointment, and failure. By providing strategies to articulate and cope with challenging emotions, the book equips tweens with the tools to navigate their inner worlds with confidence. 112 pages.

Shari Green. *Game Face*, Groundwood Books, 2023. 13-year-old Jonah learns to manage his anxiety as his hockey team's goalie. Written in free verse that is both varied and effective, *Game Face* is a story that will resonate with any young person who has faced a personal challenge and overcome it with courage and determination. 376 pages.

Thao Lam. *Happy Birthday to Me*, Groundwood Books, 2023. As a young girl waits for her birthday party, she experiences a wide range of emotions: excitement, nervousness, impatience, and feeling overwhelmed. This is a good book for helping young children understand their various feelings. 44 pages.

Stephanie V. W. Lucianovic, illustrated by Chris Park. *Touch the Sky*, Carolrhoda, 2024. Vern wants nothing more than to swing on the playground, but he struggles with pumping his legs. When he meets a girl named Gretchen, she teaches him how to do this correctly. Finally able to *touch the sky*, Vern then passes his newfound skill on to another child who's having trouble swinging. Models self-awareness, self-management, and relationship skills for children in grades K–3. 32 pages.

Kyle Lukoff, illustrated by Julie Kwon. *I'm Sorry You Got Mad*, Dial, 2024. This delightful picture book models how to write a sincere apology at a young age. When Jack knocks over Zoe's block castle, his teacher has him write an apology note. The book's title is Jack's poor first attempt. As he continues to revise his apology, his teacher provides feedback on how to try again. Jack eventually nails the apology—sincere, no excuses, seeking to make amends—and repairs his friendship with Zoe. 32 pages.

Mayu Murata, translated by Amanda Haley. *Honey Lemon Soda*, Yen Press, 2023. Uka Ishimori has one dream in life: to have fun in high school. As a self-avowed introvert who spent all her time in middle school steeling herself against a daily barrage of bullying, she finds that breaking out of her shell is easier said than done. Luckily, Uka is not alone. With the help of new friend Kai Miura, a classmate whose blonde hair reminds her of the lemon soda he so enjoys, she learns to become more confident. Intended for readers ages 13 and up, this book is an example of *shojo* manga. First volume in the series. 192 pages.

Divya Srinivasan. *What I Am*, Viking, 2021. A young narrator describes herself: a girl, a granddaughter, Indian, and American. Soon, we see the young girl as a plethora of things: selfish and generous, mean and kind, brave and mischievous. While many of these qualities oppose each other, the context and illustrations make it abundantly clear that she speaks the truth. She is a walking contradiction, and that is precisely what makes her both a unique individual and an essential piece of the greater world around her. Divya Srinivasan shows what makes us human and proud to be who we are. 40 pages.

Reflect and Apply

8. Think back to your elementary years, all the way to kindergarten or first grade if possible, and list some of the things that most concerned you. We suspect that learning to read was one priority you had. But we also suspect that making new friends and fitting in with the group were other ones. List as many as you can.
9. Select a grade level you would like to teach and describe one activity you could use on the first day of class to show students you care about them as individuals. Also, describe an approach you could routinely use to help students believe in their ability to do the work you assign them.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

ASSESSING STUDENTS' MOTIVATION

Spend a few minutes in an elementary classroom and it becomes relatively obvious who are the readers and who are not. The readers have books on their desks, often more than one. The non-readers do not, or often the book they hold is beyond their reading level or mostly pictures with captions. During free time, readers read and non-readers wander the room looking for a book. During the weekly visit to the library, readers easily find the next book, while non-readers need considerable guidance. Your observations in the classroom and the library yield many insights about students' reading motivation. Simply asking students about the book on their desk will tell you more than the Accelerated Reader report that your printer spits out. *In the Classroom 3.5* gives you another way to assess your students' motivation.

Beyond classroom observations, there are a number of tools that teachers can use to gain a deeper understanding of students' reading motivation. McKenna and his colleagues (1995, 2012) developed a survey tool that helps to quantify a student's motivation for reading at home, recreational reading, and their motivation to read in school with either print or digital sources. The students respond to questions like, "How do you feel about reading news online?" or "How do you feel about reading anything printed?" on a six-point scale—Very Good (6) to Very Bad (1). **Figure 3.7** presents some examples of the survey. The results of this survey could help you understand students' attitudes toward reading in school versus reading at home with different types of text.

In the Classroom 3.5

Assessing Students' Reading Attitudes and Interests

It's important that you get to know your students as readers early in the academic year. You can find out about their reading habits and preferences by having a one-on-one book conference with each of them, and with primary-grade children, that's what you need to do. But with older students, a faster and more efficient way to get the information you need is to have them fill out a brief written survey. You can easily create a set of questions that will give you the information you need, such as the following:

- Do you like to read? Why or why not?
- Are you reading anything for fun at this time? What is it? Why do you like it?
- Do you have any favorite authors or titles? Why are these your favorites?
- Is there a certain kind of text that you prefer—books, magazines, fiction, nonfiction, or some other format?
- How do you choose what to read when you go to a library or bookstore?
- What do you do if what you are reading is too hard or too easy for you?
- What makes a good reader?

If you want to deepen your exploration of students' motivation, you could use the Reading Motivation Questionnaire (RMQ) that looks at six factors of reading motivation (Schiefle & Schaffner, 2016). A copy of the complete RMQ can be found in *Appendix A*. Curiosity, involvement, and emotional regulation are aspects of intrinsic motivation. Grades, competition, and social recognition are part of extrinsic motivation. In **Figure 3.8**, we present a sample of items from each category.

The information from the RMQ could help you design your classroom motivational program. If a new class is highly motivated to read for intrinsic reasons, you might spend less time on developing interest yourself and let the students inform one

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

FIGURE 3.7
Assessing Home and School Preferences for Reading Print and Digital Text

	Academic Reading	Recreational Reading
Digital	• How do you feel about reading news online for class? • How do you feel about reading a book online for class?	• How do you feel about texting your friends in your free time? • How do you feel about being on a social website like Facebook?
Print	• How do you feel about reading a textbook? • How do you feel about reading a novel for class?	• How do you feel about reading a book in your free time? • How do you feel about getting a book or magazine as a present?

Source: Based on McKenna, M. C., Conradi, K., Lawrence, C., Jang, B. G., & Meyer, J. P. (2012). Reading attitudes of middle school students: Results of a U.S. survey. *Reading Research Quarterly, 47*(3), 283–306.

FIGURE 3.8
Assessing Reading Motivation from the Reading Motivation Questionnaire

Intrinsic Factors	Extrinsic Factors
I read…	*I read…*
Curiosity	**Grades**
because I can learn more about things of interest to me.	*Because it helps me get better in school.*
Involvement	**Competition**
because some stories stimulate my imagination.	*because it helps me perform better in school than my classmates.*
Emotional regulation	**Social recognition**
because it helps me when I am sad.	*because it is important for me to be among the best students.*

Source: Based on Schiefele, U., & Schaffner, E. (2016). Factorial and construct validity of a new instrument for the assessment of reading motivation. *Reading Research Quarterly, 51*(2), 221–237.

another. Sharing books would be an excellent idea. A troubled student who is high on emotional regulation might find solace in a book that addresses personal issues similar to their own. Knowing that a student reads for mainly extrinsic reasons might guide you to stimulate a student's curiosity or heighten their involvement through the selection of very compelling books. The RMQ could also be used to evaluate your success in building reading motivation over the year.

Concluding Remarks

Creating a motivating, engaging, and caring classroom means creating a literate environment—a space, a collection of texts, and an atmosphere—where reading and learning thrive. In motivating, engaging, and caring classrooms, students learn to attribute their successes and failures to factors under their control and to avoid learned helplessness. And in motivating, engaging, and caring classrooms, teachers employ myriad approaches to motivating students—including but not limited to ensuring student success, fostering higher-order thinking, employing meaningful tasks, making connections to students' cultures and lives outside of school, and recognizing the importance of their social and emotional learning.

We close the chapter with two sets of recommendations, found in **Figure 3.9**, for motivating students.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

The first is a set that Pressley and his colleagues (2003) gleaned from the work of Brophy (1987), recommendations originally made nearly 40 years ago. The second is a set that we have gleaned from the work of Pressley and his colleagues (Bogner et al., 2002; Dolezal et al., 2003; Pressley et al., 2003) and from that on social and emotional learning (CASEL https://www.casel.org; Greenberg, 2023; Pearson et al., 2024). As you read them, you will notice two points. First, the two sets of recommendations overlap a good deal. Second, both sets overlap a good deal with the recommendations we make in this chapter. Our point is this: We have learned a great deal about how to motivate and engage students; our task is to put this knowledge into action. In the remainder of this book and in our day-to-day teaching in our own classrooms, we keep these recommendations at the center of our thinking. We encourage you to do the same.

FIGURE 3.9
Research-Based Motivational Strategies

Motivational Strategies Gleaned from Brophy

- Model interest in learning: Communicate to students that there is good reason to be enthusiastic about what goes on in school. The message should be that what is presented in school deserves intense attention, with the teacher doing all that is possible to focus students' attention on important academic matters.
- What is being taught, in fact, should be worth learning!
- Keep anxiety down in the classroom. Learning should be emphasized rather than testing.
- Induce curiosity and suspense, for example, by having students make predictions about what they are about to learn.
- Make abstract material more concrete and understandable.
- Let students know the learning objectives so that it is very clear what is to be learned.
- Provide informative feedback, especially praise when students deserve it.
- Give assignments that provide feedback (to your students and to yourself).
- Adapt academic tasks to students' interests and provide novel content as much as possible. (Do not cover material students already know just because it is the mandated curriculum.)
- Give students choices between alternative tasks (for example, selecting one of several books to read).
- Allow students as much autonomy as is possible in doing tasks. Thus, to the extent students can do it on their own, let them do it.
- Design tasks to contain an engaging activity (for example, role playing), product (for example, a class-composed book), or game (for example, riddles).

Motivational Strategies Gleaned from Pressley and His Colleagues and the Work on Social and Emotional Learning

- Demonstrate your deep concern for students.
- Do everything possible to ensure students' success.
- Scaffold students' learning.
- Present appropriate challenges.
- Support risk taking and help students realize that failures will sometimes occur.
- Encourage students to attribute their successes to their efforts and realize that additional effort can help avoid failures.
- Encourage cooperative activities and discourage competition.
- Favor depth of coverage over breadth of coverage.
- Communicate to students that many academic tasks require and deserve intense attention and effort.
- Recognize the importance of students' social and emotional learning
- Guide students in learning to manage their emotions, thoughts, and behaviors.
- Help students learn to empathize with others, build healthy relationships, and make caring and constructive decisions as they interact with their classmates.

Source: Based on Pressley, M., Dolezal, S. E., Raphael, L., Mohan, L., Bogner, K., & Roehrig, A. (2003). Motivating primary grade students. Guilford Press.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Extending Learning

1. Spend some time observing a classroom at a grade level you find particularly interesting. Take notes on what you see. What opportunities for engaging in literacy activities are present? How welcoming is the physical setting? What materials are available? Then watch how the teacher and students interact in the classroom. Is the atmosphere safe and supportive? Does the teacher seem to know the students well, treat them as individuals, and encourage all to participate in classroom activities? Are students enthusiastic and engaged? Finally, create a list of things to do and a list of things to avoid doing in order to best motivate students and support their social and emotional learning.

2. The notes that you created in activity 1 represent your judgment based on your observation. There are other sources of information that deserve to be considered. One is the teacher you observed. Talk to the teacher and get their perceptions on what motivates students and which specific things they do to motivate them. The other source is, of course, students. Talk to a half dozen or so students and get their perceptions of what is and is not motivating in their classrooms. Once you have the teacher's and some students' perspectives, compare them to your notes and revise or fine-tune your notes as seems appropriate.

Children's Literature

These works were cited in the chapter.

Anderson, L. H. (2008). *Chains*. Atheneum. The author explores the themes of slavery and power during the American Revolution. This is the first in a trilogy followed by *Forge* and *Ashes*. 301 pages.

Bailey, J. (2023). *Henry, Like Always*. Chronicle Books. In this beginning chapter book, Henry, a first-grader on the autism spectrum, learns to deal with sudden changes in the classroom routine, like a parade instead of share time. 48 pages.

Blabey, A. (2024). *The Serpent and the Beast*. Scholastic. The 19th hilarious book in *The Bad Guys* series, *a New York Times* bestselling illustrated series about wannabe heroes who may look like bad guys but are really doers of good deeds. 192 pages.

Beckmeyer, D. (2024). *The First Week of School*. Atheneum. An ensemble cast of students in one classroom, experiences the first week of school, including one unexpected visitor. 48 pages.

Cline-Ransome, L. (2023). *Loud and Proud: The Life of Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm*. Paula Wiseman. A biography of the first African American woman in Congress, trailblazer Shirley Chisholm, who also, in 1972, was the first woman and African American to seek the nomination for president from one of the two major political parties. 48 pages.

Denise, C. (2022). *Knight owl*. Christy Ottaviano Books. A determined owl builds strength and confidence in this medieval picture book about the real mettle of a hero: wits, humor, and heart. 48 pages.

Gianferrari, M. (2023). *Fungi Grow*. Beach Lane Books. This poetic nonfiction book illustrates the fascinating array of mushrooms, how they grow and multiply, and their value to humans and the forest. 48 pages.

Graves, B. (2019). *Catch Me When I Fall*. Fitzroy Books. Set in Racine, Wisconsin in 1932, plucky 12-year-old Emma, suspecting the famous Filippo the Flying Wonder is the father she never knew, masquerades as a boy to land a job at the circus and find him. 122 pages.

Hanlon, A. (2024). *Dory Fantasmagory*: *Can't Live Without You*. Dial Books. In this sixth book in the popular *Dory Fantasmagory* series, Dory, after losing her mom in a hardware store, turns her separation anxiety into a goofy, ghostly escapade. 160 pages.

Kinney, J. (2024). *Hot Mess (Diary of a Wimpy Kid Book 19)*. Amulet Books. Protagonist wimpy kid Greg Heffley discovers mixing family, a tiny beach house, and blistering hot weather is a recipe for disaster. 224 pages.

Mochizuki, K., and Lee, D. (2018). *Baseball Saved Us*. Lee & Low Books. Picture book that honestly portrays the story of a Japanese American boy in an internment camp during World War II. 32 pages.

Paulsen, G. (2023). *The Voyage of the Frog*. Doubleday Dell. A boy, grieving for his uncle, inherits his sailboat and learns to survive when caught in a dangerous storm. 160 pages.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

Pilkey, D. (2024). *Dog Man*: *Big Jim Begins*. Grafix. The 13th installment of this very popular graphic novel from the creator of Captain Underpants. Characters from the *Dog Man* series join forces to stop the Space Cuties from destroying the city. 224 pages.

Rappaport, D. (2023). *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*. Little, Brown. Inspirational biography of Ellen Ochoa, the first Latina in space and director of Johnson Space Center. 48 pages.

Reiss, J. (2019). *The Upstairs Room*. HarperCollins. Two sisters must hide in a small room when the Nazis invade Holland during World War II. 196 pages.

Robert, N. (2023). *The Cat, the Owl, and the Fresh Fish*. Milky Way Picture Books. An original parable in which brains in the end outsmart greed. 36 pages.

Swanson, J. (2024). *Up Periscope!: How Engineer Raye Montague Revolutionized Shipbuilding*. Boston: Little, Brown. This picture book biography for grades 1–5 tells the story of Raye Montague (1935–2019) who overcame many obstacles because of being Black and a girl to reach her goal of becoming an engineer who designed ships—battleships, aircraft carriers, and submarines. 40 pages.

Tabor, C. R. (2024). Blazer & Bray. *Ursula Upside Down*. Ursula, a catfish who swims upside down, travels a journey of discovery—what's right, left, right, wrong, and which way is even up? 40 pages.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedy/

CHAPTER 4

ORGANIZING INSTRUCTION SO ALL WILL SUCCEED

Classroom Vignette

Mrs. Wright is concerned. It is the beginning of her second year as the principal of Pearson Elementary, a small 325-student elementary school in Virginia. Her school is in a rural area where the population is diverse—40% are White, 35% are Black, and 24% are Latinx. Twelve percent of the students are in a special education program. Her concerns are triggered by test scores, not the high-stakes scores that schools live and die by in this era of accountability, but informal assessments of beginning reading skills that were conducted at the end of first grade and again at the beginning of second grade. This test, the Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening (PALS, Invernizzi et al., 2015), is used throughout the state to assess skills like letter-name knowledge, letter-sound knowledge, phonemic awareness, spelling, and word and passage reading ability. She has just reviewed the assessments on her entering second-grade students, and many of them appear to have word and passage reading skills at or below a first-grade level. That means 25 of her 72 entering second-grade students are struggling with reading. Eight students are already in special education, and another seven students are reading at the same level as the special education students. Mrs. Wright has decided that she, the three second-grade teachers, the school's reading teacher, and the special education teacher need to talk about the problem and devise a plan for accelerating the reading growth of their second-grade students.

Three days later, at the second-grade team meeting, the teachers and Mrs. Wright began to offer ideas and suggestions. It is the district policy to group students heterogeneously into classrooms, so one option—homogeneous classrooms—is off the table. That means each teacher is likely to have students reading from a beginning first-grade reading level to a fourth-grade level. The teachers offer various suggestions; one suggests purchasing a new phonics program that would help the students catch up. Another suggests a focus on reading fluency, while others think they need more leveled texts. Some want to enlist parent volunteers to work in the classrooms and read with the students. Another suggests that the high school students who must complete community service projects can work a few hours a week with the struggling students. All agree that their current core program offers few ideas for teaching such a wide range of students in a classroom.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 4.1 Compare and contrast the reasons why some children have difficulty learning to read and others do not.

LO 4.2 Describe how you might organize space and time in a classroom to create a strong reading program that enables all students to read and love reading.

Get FULL Ebook order By email at palemonking@gmail.com or Telegram at https://t.me/megharedddy/

CHAPTER 14

READING INSTRUCTION FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS

Classroom Vignette

Cynthia studied her incoming class of third-graders and once more thought of the increasingly daunting task she faced. She had chosen to teach in a large urban district because she wanted to help the children who most needed her help, and she had never regretted that decision. But each year, there seemed to be more challenges, including preparing students for the ever-increasing and ever-more-critical annual state testing and working with more and more students who did not speak English as their first language.

The latter challenge, working with English learners, was for her the most daunting one. She had completed her teacher education program 20 years ago in the Midwest, and no attention had been given to working with children who did not speak English as their first language. This year, almost 30 percent of her students were English learners. A few of them spoke no English. Two of them did not have any sort of formal schooling. Others had received excellent instruction in their homeland schools and could read and write very well in their native languages.

What could she do? Her task, she knew, was to lead all of her English learners as well as her students who spoke English as their native language toward a level of literacy that would enable them to succeed in school and beyond. She knew a lot about effective teaching, and she was convinced that it is effective with all students. But she was constantly on the lookout for approaches that would prove particularly effective for English learners.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 14.1 Describe the number of English learners in the United States, the percentage of U.S. classrooms that include English learners, and the reading proficiency of English learners compared to that of English-only students.

LO 14.2 Identify principles for teaching culturally diverse students and assess how those principles are applied to teaching English learners.

LO 14.3 Pick three of the general instructional techniques developed by Kamil and Bernhardt that you are likely to use in your classroom and explain why you are likely to use them.

LO 14.4 Discuss and implement some specific instructional techniques for developing word recognition and comprehension with English learners.

LEARNING TO READ ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN THE UNITED STATES

As Cynthia realizes, addressing the needs of English learners (ELs) is a significant challenge. As we will note repeatedly in this chapter, good teaching is effective with all students. All students, including ELs, will benefit from more traditional instructional practices as well as practices motivated by constructivist and sociocultural theories that we have described in earlier chapters. In fact, that is the reason why this is the last chapter in the book. This chapter builds on what we have said in the previous chapters. While there are some who would disagree (e.g., Compton-Lily et al., 2023; Thomas, 2022), there is a robust body of research and writing testifying to the fact that the vast majority of reading instructional practices effective with native English speakers are also effective with English learners—but, and this is a very important *but*—in many cases these practices need to be modified to be maximally effective for ELs (August, 2018; Gersten & Baker, 2000; Goldenberg 2020, 2023; Shanahan, 2025a,b). We discussed these effective practices at some length in Chapter 2 and briefly describe those that are particularly important for ELs later in this chapter. Applying generally effective instructional practices is not all that we can do for English learners. There are many techniques that are particularly effective with ELs, and we will describe some of these techniques.

Before we describe those techniques, we want to present some current information about English learners in U.S. schools. In the remainder of this introductory section, we consider linguistic diversity in U.S. schools, note the numbers of English learners in U.S. schools, present data on their reading proficiency, and explain why mastering English is particularly important at the present time.

Linguistic Diversity in U.S. Schools

U.S. schools have always been populated with children from diverse linguistic backgrounds, and teachers have had to confront the challenges and opportunities of linguistic diversity for many years. The apparently opposing forces of the home language and English have been at issue since the birth of the United States. Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Noah Webster, for example, all argued that a common language was a key element in promoting social unity (Simpson, 1986). Indeed, during the development of the U.S. public school system during the 19th and early 20th centuries, the concept of one people/one language was central (Higham, 1988). The world wars, particularly the two decades before World War I and its aftermath, marked by extensive southern and eastern European immigration, solidified this belief in many Americans' minds, a belief that some still hold. Moreover, the current U.S. administration's proclamation that English is the official language of the United States and related efforts are in keeping with the "one people/one language position" (Najarro, 2025).

Yet other Americans have always viewed ethnic pride as a hallmark of American freedom and the suppression of language and culture as contradicting the American spirit. They argue that the strength of America lies in the diversity of culture, beliefs, and perspectives of persons who flock to the United States seeking a better life (Tollefson, 1995). This tolerance for diversity is certainly reflected in major studies of reading instruction for English learners, including Slavin and Cheung's *A Synthesis of Research on Language of Reading Instruction for English Language Learners* (2005), August and Shanahan's *Developing Literacy in Second Language Learners* (2009), Goldenberg and Rhoda's *Promoting Academic Achievement Among English Learners* (2010), and Goldenberg's "Reading Wars, Reading Science, and English Learners" (2020).

We agree with this latter group, and our position is simple: It is crucial that all students become proficient in English. This does not, however, mean that students should abandon their native language.

English Learners in Today's Schools

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics' *Conditions of Education 2024*, in 2021 there were 5.3 million English learners, 10.6 percent of all students enrolled in public elementary schools. This figure has increased substantially over the past 10 years and will continue to increase for the foreseeable future. As shown in **Figure 14.1**, the vast majority of English learners, 76 percent of them, speak Spanish as their home language. Only one other home language, Arabic, accounts for more than about 2 percent of English learners. Although all states have some English learners, the percentages of them vary hugely by state, with California, the state with the highest percentage enrolling 22 percent English learners and West Virginia, the state with the fewest English learners, enrolling just 1 percent (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2025). Yet "nearly 3 in 4 American classrooms now include at least one English learner" (Sparks, 2016).

English Learners' Reading Proficiency

According to the most recent elementary level National Assessment of Educational Progress (2024) report, the average score for fourth-grade English learners on the reading assessment was 190, while that for English-only students was 222. This is a substantial difference. It means that the average English learner scored at the Basic Level, which NAEP defines as "partial mastery of prerequisite skills," while the average English-only student scored at the Proficient Level, which NAEP Defines as "competency of challenging subject matter." The results for eighth-grade students were similar: ELs scored markedly lower than English-only students.

The Critical Importance of Mastering English in Today's World

We know that in the past most immigrant families became English dominant in less than two generations, so why is there anything to be concerned about? We know that the children in our classrooms will more than likely become speakers of English. Isn't it a simple case of waiting until this happens? The answer is no! Research indicates

FIGURE 14.1
Most Common Home Languages of English Learners

Home Language	Number of English Learners	Percentage of All English Learners in the U.S.
Spanish	4,023,289	76.4
Arabic	130,917	2.5
Chinese	95,584	1.8
Vietnamese	75,070	1.4
Portuguese	50,205	01.0
Russian	39,400	0.7
Haitian	31,122	0.6
Hmong	30,188	0.6
Urdu	26,576	0.5
Korean	24,270	0.5

Source: National Center for Educational Statistics (2025). Conditions of education. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/

that it takes English learners at least five years to reach the oral skill level of their English-only peers (Cummins, 2001). Waiting five years to begin reading instruction would mean delaying literacy learning for many children until they are adolescents. This would be educationally and morally absurd. We know that all children need to begin literacy learning as early as possible in order to become effective readers and writers.

But there is more to be said about the current situation. Several other considerations make the mastering of English for English learners even more crucial. The level of literacy needed to succeed in the United States has increased dramatically over the past decades and continues to do so (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2023). While a person can get a low paying service job with rudimentary English skills, getting a good job that pays enough to lead a comfortable life requires advanced levels of literacy and in most cases advanced schooling, which itself requires advanced levels of literacy. Also, with the advent of the Common Core State Standards and its provision that all students, regardless of their English language skills, read challenging material, undertake sophisticated tasks, and demonstrate sophisticated understanding of that material, it has become even more critical that ELs become proficient in English. Although the Common Core requires that students attain these high levels of competence and understanding, it provides very little information on how schools and teachers are to accomplish this task (Coleman & Goldenberg, 2012).

Finally, there is the issue of the importance of more Americans mastering more than one language. As Goldenberg (2015, July 10) put it in an open letter to the U.S. Congress, "Congress: Bilingualism is Not a Handicap." Supporting this position, recent reports from the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (Commission on Language Learning, 2017) and the National Academy of Sciences (2017) emphasize "the benefits of second language learning for all, the need to encourage language study, and the contributions of dual language and heritage language learners and their communities to U.S. multilingualism" (Arias, 2018). As Rampe (2023) more recently put it, "Americans' foreign language education programs are failing."

Reflect and Apply

1. Examine some discussions of English learners on television, in podcasts, or on social media. What kinds of attitudes toward nonnative speakers of English do you find in these media?
2. Imagine a 10-year-old student who has just arrived in the United States after growing up in Iraq. Brainstorm a list of just a few of the myriad topics familiar to virtually all 10-year-olds who grew up in the United States but probably unfamiliar to this student from Iraq. Now brainstorm a list of a few topics you expect are familiar to 10-year-olds who grew up in Iraq but are probably unfamiliar to U.S. students.

WHAT THE RESEARCH SAYS ABOUT TEACHING ENGLISH LEARNERS

Prompted by the huge increase in English learners in U.S. schools, a good deal of research has focused on how to best help ELs develop their English literacy skills. A number of sources published over the past two decades provide excellent summaries of this research. The research focuses on instructional issues (August, 2018; Gersten & Baker, 2000), the effects of languages used for instruction (Slavin & Cheung, 2005), and other issues (August & Shanahan, 2009; Goldenberg, 2000). Goldenberg and Coleman (2010) present a detailed but very readable review in their book, *Promoting Academic Achievement Among English Learners*. If you are looking for a

concise summary of the book, we recommend Goldenberg's "Unlocking the Research on English Learners" (2013), which can be easily Googled.

We now turn to the practical application of what we have learned from the research of others, from what we have learned in our own research, and from what we have learned from our own teaching and learning over the years. Your own situation will, of course, be unique. You may have a class in which only one language other than English is spoken, or you may have a class in which several different languages are spoken. You may have only one or two English learners in your classroom, or you may have many. Whatever your specific situation, the following guidelines and principles, will lead you to ask appropriate questions and work toward effective classroom instruction.

Compelling Instructional Practices Are Likely to Be Effective for English Learners

Nearly a century of research on teaching provides evidence on what sorts of instruction is likely to result in improved student learning. Some of the most important instructional principles are shown in *In the Classroom 14.1*. You will also have seen many of them in recommendations that we outlined at the beginning of the book and that have come up repeatedly throughout the book. This is important. There is a lot of agreement here! Additionally, most of them make good common sense. It is a big plus when research, theory, and common sense coincide.

In the Classroom 14.1

Traditional and Constructivist Instructional Principles

- Focus on academically relevant tasks. Concentrate on important topics, skills, and strategies that students really need to master.
- Employ active teaching. Give students opportunities to manipulate and grapple with the material they are learning.
- Use direct explanation. In teaching strategies, (1) give students a description of the strategy and when, how, and why it should be used; (2) model it; (3) work along with students as they use the strategy; (4) gradually give students increased responsibility for using the strategy; and (5) have students use the strategy independently.
- Provide instruction in students' zone of proximal development. Instruct students at a level that challenges them but allows them to achieve with effort and your assistance. While doing so, scaffold students' efforts. Provide students with the temporary support they need to complete tasks they could not complete independently. This will move them to higher levels of achievement.
- Distinguish between instruction and practice. Instruction consists of teaching students knowledge, skills, and strategies. Practice consists of asking students to use the knowledge, skills, and strategies that they have already been taught. Using practice when instruction is called for will seldom work. Conversely, we don't need to teach students things they already know.
- Provide sufficient and timely feedback. Whenever possible, respond to students' work with immediate and specific feedback. Ensure that students contextualize, review, and practice what is learned. Real learning takes time, effort, and a lot of practice. Feedback and scaffolding are what moves the students from depending partly on you to independent work.
- Teach for transfer. Transfer seldom occurs automatically. If we want students to take what they have learned in one context and use it in a new context, we need to show them how to do so.

English Learners Require Additional Instructional Support

Of course, English learners require additional support. They are faced with the dual tasks of learning the language and learning the content being taught. Additionally, some of them are faced with a new and challenging situation, learning to get along in the United States and in our schools. Goldenberg's (2013) recommendations for this additional support are shown in *In the Classroom 14.2*.

In the Classroom 14.2

Supporting English Learners

- Build on students' experiences and familiar content, then add on material that will broaden and deepen their knowledge.
- Provide students with necessary background knowledge.
- Designate language *and* content objectives for each lesson. Decide what students will learn about the content and about the English language.
- Use graphic organizers (tables, web diagrams, and Venn diagrams) to organize information and clarify concepts.
- Make instruction and learning tasks extremely clear.
- Use pictures, demonstrations, and real-life objects.
- Provide hands-on, interactive learning activities.
- Provide redundant information (gestures, visual cues).
- Give additional practice and time for discussion of key concepts.
- Use sentence frames and models to help students talk about academic content.
- Provide instruction differentiated by students' English language proficiency.

A lesson plan with a number of sheltered instruction components is shown in *Appendix B, Scaffolded Reading Experiences for English Learners*.

The Home Language Can Be Used to Promote Academic Development

We fully agree with Goldenberg (2013) when he says that the home language can be used to promote academic development. In fact, we would say "can and should be used." However, as Goldenberg notes and as you have almost certainly learned from the news media, this is a hotly debated issue. There are really two issues here: (1) whether to provide students with some sort of dual language education, and (2) whether to use the home language to support students in an otherwise all-English classroom by means of activities like giving students directions in their home language. **Figure 14.2** lists some of the many types of dual language programs available in the United States. Goldenberg asserts that "reading instruction in the home language can be beneficial," and we absolutely agree. However, we do not discuss dual language education or debate its merits in this chapter because whether or not you use dual language education is unlikely to be your decision; it will be up to your school, district, state and funding rules imposed by the federal government. We will, however, suggest opportunities for providing home language support that is useful regardless of what sort of classroom you teach in.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.1

In this video, a teacher with 20 years of experience gives tips for teaching English learners when your school does not have a bilingual program. Which of these tips do you think is useful even if your school does have a bilingual program?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=lZWsiQcCYw0&t=12s

FIGURE 14.2
Some Types of Programs for English Learners

- **Two-Way Immersion/Dual Language.** Native English speakers and English learners are taught academic content in both languages for an extended period of time with the goal that both groups develop academic proficiency in both languages.
- **Transitional Bilingual Education.** English learners receive academic instruction in their first language for part of the day. For the remainder of the day, they receive some ESL instruction and spend some time in regular classes.
- **ESL Pullout.** English learners attend mainstream classes for much of the day and also meet separately in small groups with an ESL instructor who focuses on language development.
- **Content-Based ESL.** English learners receive ESL instruction taught by an ESL teacher in preparation for grade-level content instruction in English. The emphasis is on language development, but attention is also given to academic vocabulary and content area concepts.
- **Sheltered English Instruction.** English learners are taught academic content in English by a regular teacher. However, the English language used by the teacher and the activities students engage in are adapted to the proficiency level of the students. While the instruction focuses on content, sheltered English instruction also promotes English language development.
- **Structured English Immersion.** English learners are taught subject matter in English by a licensed teacher who is also licensed in ESL or bilingual education. The teacher is proficient in the first language of the student. Students may use their native language for clarification, but the teacher uses only English. No ESL instruction is provided in this model.
- **Heritage Language.** English learners are taught literacy in the language students and their parents regard as their native, home, or ancestral language.

TEACHING ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS

Not all English learners live difficult economic lives, but many do, especially in our cities and rural areas. Delpit (2018) is a Black educator who has worked extensively with urban children, many of whom come from homes that struggle with difficult economic conditions. These are the children who receive additional instructional support under Title 1 in both urban and rural schools. Through her work, she has identified many of the factors that help raise their motivation and achievement. Her principles expand the scope of our previous discussion regarding English learners. Here we discuss those of Delpit's principles that we see as most important for working with ELs. As you consider the principles, you'll notice a good deal of overlap with our discussion of motivation in Chapter 3, particularly the section on Social and Emotional Learning.

Demand Critical Thinking

Often, we fall into the trap of thinking that students who speak a different language are not as bright as other students. Consequently, we often reason that they cannot handle critical thinking. No judgment could be more debilitating to students' growth. The goals of high level of literacy and the literacy curriculum that we discussed throughout this book are just as appropriate for English learners as they are for any

other students. For example, teaching for deep understanding—using techniques like Questioning the Author (Beck et al., 1996) as discussed in Chapter 11 and in *Appendix B*—is crucial to ELs.

Teaching Foundational Skills

In the past, we sometimes began teaching nonnative speakers with less emphasis on foundational skills than English-only students typically received. This will not work and the science of reading movement has ensured that all children receive explicit instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics. We are not suggesting that you teach only basic skills. But do remember that although not all children come to school with the same skills, all students need to master the building blocks that lead to literacy. Students from more advantaged homes are more likely to have had reading instruction at home, or at least they have been read to (Heath, 1983). These students are also more likely to have attended preschool and received instruction in basic skills.

As a teacher, you want to be certain that your students acquire whatever skills they need to be successful in school and in later life, something Timothy Hayden, a third-grade teacher, makes a very conscious effort to do:

> One thing I really try to work on with my Puerto Rican students is mastery of basic skills, such as standard usage and spelling, while still giving them plenty of chances to engage in critical thinking. This is a tough decision to make because I know that in many cases my kids know more than their English skills show, and so in some sense I'm slowing them down to work on the basics. Yet I also know that if they can't read when they leave school or use poor grammar or spelling when they're looking for a job, they won't get very far. That's why I feel that I have to balance attention to basics with attention to higher-level stuff. (Timothy Hayden, third-grade teacher)

Empower Students to Challenge Racist Views of Their Competence and Worthiness

Racism and classism often extend to children who are nonnative speakers of English. You must support your English learners' egos and help them build the sort of self-worth that will lead them to persevere when they encounter challenges. All students need the support and skills that will enable them to meet challenges, be successful, and realize that success is something under their control. Creating an "I can do it!" attitude in your ELs and conveying to them that you as their teacher hold an "I can help you do it!" attitude are crucial. *In the Classroom 14.3* shows how sixth-grade teacher Ann Beecher provides reading experiences that promote positive attitudes.

In the Classroom 14.3

Using the Shared Reading Experience in a Multilingual Fourth-Grade Classroom

Ann Beecher teaches fourth grade in a public school in a Los Angeles suburb. Most of the students in her class speak Spanish as their primary language, with a few of students speaking a variety of other languages. Ms. Beecher has found that the shared reading experience—students and teacher reading aloud and discussing the text together—is a highly effective technique for developing confidence and building on students' skills in reading and speaking English "My English learners are often reticent to risk being wrong or making mistakes when it comes to speaking or reading in English," Ms. Beecher says. "So I need to think of ways to create a safe environment that will support their learning. One of those ways is the shared reading

experience. It's a risk-free way for them to use oral English." Here are the steps Ms. Beecher usually follows in preparing a shared reading experience:

- Choose a selection. Ms. Beecher always chooses a short selection, something like one of the 15 selections in Wondery's *How to Survive Against the Odds: Tales and Tips for Animal Attacks and Natural Disasters* (2025) or a poem from core program's anthology. One of the class favorites is "The Shark" by John Ciardi. Students enjoy reciting the colorful words Ciardi uses to describe the shark, such as *gulper, ripper, snatcher,* and *grabber*. "The key is choosing something that will engage students, something that they will really enjoy and can relate to, and something that builds what we study in science, social studies, or language arts." Ms. Beecher says. "One of the values of using the shared reading experience is that the students are reading 'at grade' materials. This is a big boost to their confidence. It gives them a real sense of accomplishment."
- Set up the document camera, and make copies of the selection for each student.
- Prepare and motivate students for the selection. "This usually takes very little effort," Ms. Beecher says. "When the kids see the document camera, they know it means we're going to read something together. It's one of their favorite things we do. Like singing or reciting jazz chants, they enjoy the rhythm of the language and the community experience of speaking the same words together."
- With expression and enthusiasm, read through the selection and then invite students to read along in unison.
- Focus on a particular reading skill or strategy. "If we are reading rhyming poetry, usually I will circle the rhyming words on the document camera and have students do the same on their copies. I then talk about certain words and check for students' understanding. Also, sometimes when I first read the piece through, I will stop occasionally and have students predict what will happen next."
- Follow up the reading with a variety of activities. Use art (illustrating the shark gulping, ripping, snatching, and grabbing, for example), writing, or evaluating. Ask questions such as, "How did we do? Did you like the piece? Why? What did you like about it? Is there anything we should do differently next time? What's your favorite new word you learned?"

Build on Students' Prior Knowledge

Using metaphors and experiences from the children's world is another technique good teachers use instinctively. We know the importance of background knowledge. As Delpit suggests, instead of assuming that all children have the same background knowledge at the beginning, deal with the knowledge and background students have and use that as the basis of teaching. This means you will need to learn something about your students' cultures. For example, if you are teaching about the destructive power of tornadoes and have Vietnamese children in your class, you can use their knowledge of the awesome power of typhoons as a bridge to understanding the power of tornadoes.

Create a Sense of Family and Caring

For some students, school can seem a daunting place, unwelcoming and perhaps even frightening. ESL teacher Lillian Colon-Vila knows how crucial it is that all students feel that they are a valuable part of the class and will be supported in their efforts by both the teacher and the other students in the class:

> To welcome my English learners, I always begin the semester by telling a story. It's usually a simple one to welcome them to the United States and my classroom.

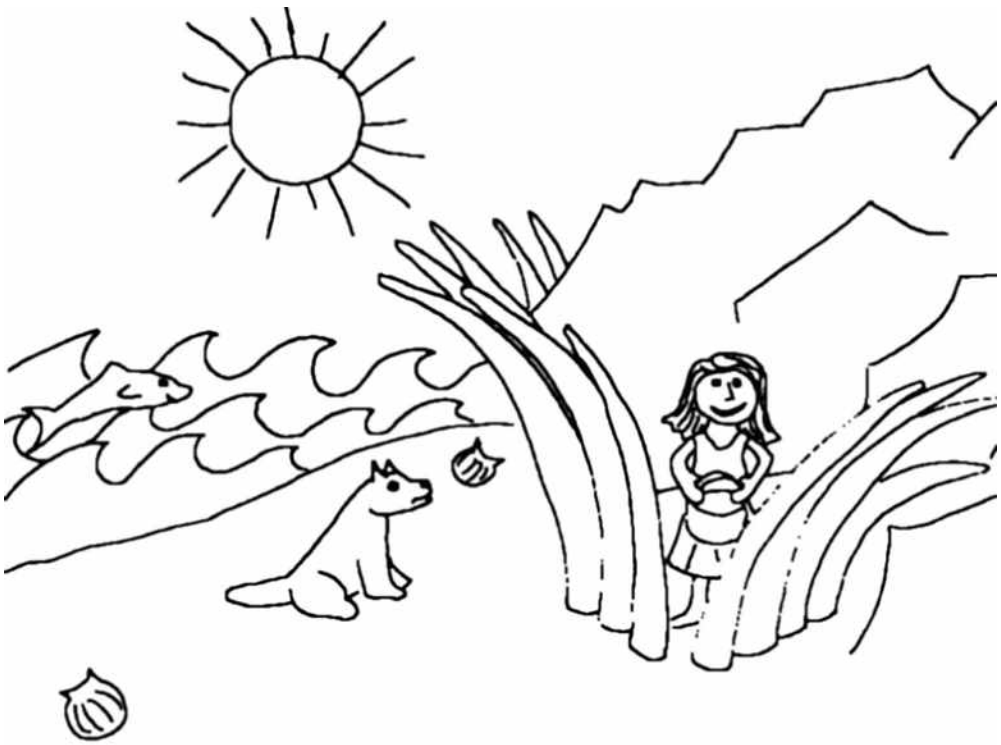
I make sure to include the students' names and their native countries in the stories. And I use puppets, pictures, and flash cards or the whiteboard to draw pictures as I go along.

I make it a point to share my own first day of school, too—how I stuttered, mispronounced the teacher's name, and wished for the floor to swallow me. The students laugh and relate to my experience. The iceberg between us breaks, and I can begin to teach. (Lillian Colon-Vila, ESL teacher)

Monitor and Assess Students' Needs

Effective teaching cannot be done without careful assessment and evaluation of what students know and learn. Teachers need to be vigilant and prepared to discontinue teaching techniques that prove inappropriate for some students. Students can often benefit from a different teaching strategy when the one initially attempted was not effective. Such choices require careful reasoning based on data gathered in assessing the students. As we emphasized in Chapter 5, assessment does not simply mean formal assessment. You will need to use a wide range of techniques to gauge students' strengths and weaknesses and then create ways to build on their strengths. These techniques are likely to include benchmark and interim texts, but they will also include talking to students, carefully observing them as they work at school tasks, and evaluating their daily written work. **Figure 14.3** illustrates how a drawing can show a student's understanding of a story. The drawing could be interpreted to show that the student understands the story is about a girl, by herself, on an island, in a hut made of whale bones, and with a dog for a companion.

FIGURE 14.3
Maria's Drawing of *Island of the Blue Dolphins* by Scott O'Dell (1960) Reveals Her Understanding of the Story



Source: Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

Honor and Respect Children's Home Cultures

It would be difficult to imagine anything seemingly easier than honoring and respecting children's home cultures, but unfortunately honor and respect is sometimes lacking in classrooms. Knowledge that has been gained in children's home cultures constitutes a strength that can be brought into the classroom and used as the basis for learning to read about all manner of topics. Besides, changing children's cultural orientations and allegiances is not really an option. Children come to school having spent a huge amount of time within their cultures and their families, and once they begin school, they will continue to spend far more time at home than in the classroom. Your goal must be to support students' attempts to maintain their cultural identities and to support them in becoming successful in the mainstream culture represented by the school. One small step toward doing this might be taken during birthday celebrations. Inviting English learners to share their birthday traditions with the class gives status to those traditions and adds to other students' store of knowledge about different cultures.

Another and more significant step toward demonstrating and fostering respect for children's home cultures is to provide students with literature that accurately and fairly represents a variety of cultures, including literature involving Hispanic figures such as Nathalie Alonso's *Call Me Roberto! Roberto Clemente Goes to Bat for Latinos,* Doreen Rappaport's *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*, and fictional Hispanic characters such as those in Julio Anta's graphic novel *Speak Up, Santiago!* The last book is perhaps particularly useful as it deals with the combined issues of immigration, economic displacement, and second language learning.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.2

This video highlights four ways to make classrooms more inclusive for multilingual learners. Which of these ways do you think you will be more likely to use, and just how would you implement it?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=hYqTM0caS3o

Reflect and Apply

3. Think about attitudes toward English learners that you have observed. Have you encountered attitudes that might negatively influence the ways in which teachers interact with students? How might you guard against allowing those attitudes to negatively affect your interactions with students?
4. Consider your own family traditions. Can you think of any holiday celebrations you and your family enjoy that are not widely observed? Do you think they are any less valuable because they are not more widely observed? How might you use these holiday celebrations when you are teaching culturally diverse students?

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES FOR WORKING WITH ENGLISH LEARNERS

There are a number of instructional techniques that assist English learners as they learn to read, write, listen, and speak. Bernhardt and Kamil (1995) wrote the chapter on instruction for English learners in the first edition of this book and many of their ideas have stood well the test of time. We have updated their ideas with recommendations from more recent research (Gersten et al., 2007). We have placed these techniques in an order reflecting their utility. Thus, you should probably attempt to implement these principles in the order given. Also, you are likely to have more success if you employ a number of the suggestions rather than just one or two of them.

Take Advantage of the 20 Percent Rule

Recognize that although languages are different there is considerable overlap between them. In fact, the overlap between English and Spanish vocabulary can be as much as

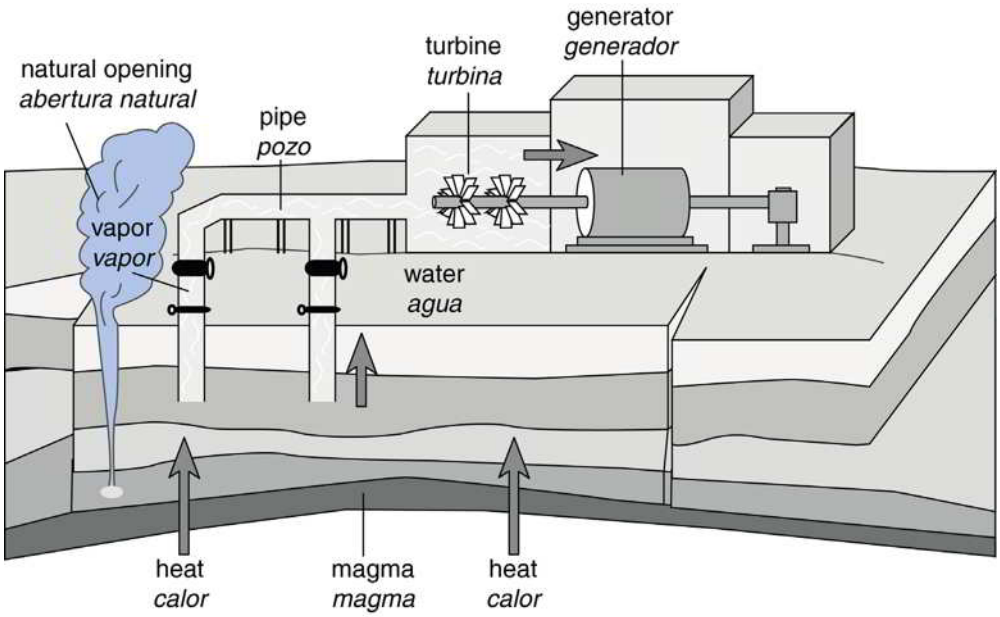
20 percent. Thus, your task in teaching literacy in a second language is easier than if there were little or no overlap. You do not have to start at the beginning with English learners; rather, you can consider yourself as being one-fifth of the way to success.

Figure 14.4 shows the 20 percent rule in action. In this graphic display of the generation of electricity, there are 17 Spanish words used. Three of the words—*natural, vapor,* and *magma*—are identical to the equivalent terms in English. Another seven words—*turbina, generador, uso, energía, geotérmica, producir,* and *electricidad*—are almost identical and certainly recognizable. Words that have a very close spelling in both languages are called cognates. This simple example illustrates the overlap between English and Spanish and reminds us that children do possess substantial information that they can draw on for reading second-language texts.

Of course, as we all know, there is never a guarantee, even as this rule holds true for the 20 percent dividend. The percentage will be different for each language. In some languages, the overlap may be greater than 20 percent, but in others, considerably less.

When students in your classroom have some English language literacy and are able to work with content, have them conduct Internet searches on topics you are covering in current events. For example, major new geologic discoveries, such as finding the bones of an ancient mammal, are often reported in magazines like *Scholastic News* or *Time for Kids* (which are available in both print and digital form) or in books that children naturally gravitate to. Such findings are almost always discussed on the Internet. Have your students read something about these findings in their native-language press and report on any differences between reports in English and what they have read. Such an activity reinforces using their first language to support their learning of the second. It also enhances their critical thinking skills by asking them to compare and contrast information presented in an array of sources, and it boosts their self-esteem by demonstrating to their peers that bilingualism actually provides greater access to information than monolingualism does.

FIGURE 14.4
Graphic Display of Overlap Between Spanish and English Vocabulary



The use of geothermal energy to produce electricity
El uso de la energía geotérmica para producir electricidad

Source: Ciencias *by Mallision, Mallision, Smallwood, & Valentino. Copyright © 1985 by Silver Burdett Ginn, Simon & Schuster Elementary.*

Provide Intensive Small-Group Instruction

Throughout the book, we have stressed the importance of small-group instruction, and this is true for English learners. Your small groups should consist of four to six students, with a mix of English learners, English-only speakers, and students who speak English and a second language. These students can partner with English learners and provide translations and support. Plan to meet with these small groups 30 minutes a day, five days a week.

First, provide explicit instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency. You can also provide explicit instruction to build prior knowledge, teach about text structure, and comprehension strategies. Provide multiple opportunities for students to respond. As students learn to read words, you can link decoding and vocabulary to ensure they understand the meanings of the words they are pronouncing. As students read and spell individual words, you can provide clear feedback, correct errors, and encourage partial attempts. When you are leading comprehension discussions, you can clarify new concepts and direct students' attention to ideas in the text.

Throughout this book, we have provided guidelines for conducting small-group instruction. In Chapter 4, we have provided lesson plans for teaching foundational skills. In Chapter 8, we have provided lessons for explicit phonics instruction, and in Chapter 11, you will find lessons for comprehension instruction.

Screen for Reading Problems and Monitor Students' Progress

In Chapter 5, we presented a list of screening tools that assess foundational skills, such as phonemic awareness, alphabet knowledge, phonics, and fluency. These tools are equally useful for English learners and help determine their strengths and weaknesses (Lesaux & Siegel, 2003). Beyond screening at the beginning of the year, it is useful to use one or more of these tools to monitor students' progress at least twice more during the school year. It is not necessary to monitor all components of foundational skills, and a periodic oral reading fluency assessment is very useful in monitoring students' progress.

Assessing students' vocabulary and reading comprehension is difficult, and few easy screening or monitoring tools are available (Lenski et al., 2006). To learn about your students' reading comprehension abilities, listen and take notes during small group instruction. First, ask students to retell what they have read and note how much they can recall. Do they include ideas from the beginning, middle, or end of the selection? Later in the year, you might ask the students to summarize what they have read and note whether they include the important ideas in the text. Ask literal and inferential questions to determine if they can locate information within a text and interpret what they have learned. Additional recommendations for assessing reading comprehension are included at the end of Chapter 12.

Give English Learners and Yourself Plenty of Time

It is important to remember that children who do not speak English as a native language will, in all likelihood, not be as fast as native speakers at completing any English-language task, including, of course, reading. **Figure 14.5** provides an example of the very different amounts of time it would take students reading at three different rates to complete a typical intermediate-grade book, in this case Gary Soto's *The Skirt*. If children are reading a longer book, something like Erin Entrada Kelly's Newbery award-winning *The First State of Being*, the amounts of time needed vary even more: To complete this book, Maria would need about 5 hours, Carlos would need about 8 hours, and Chen would need over 20 hours. The instructional implication of these illustrations is straight-forward: Provide English learners with extra time to complete the linguistic tasks you ask them to do.

FIGURE 14.5
Times Required for Three Students, with Varying Reading Rates, to Read Gary Soto's *The Skirt*

Student	Reading Rate (Words per Minute)	Chapter One (1,000 Words)	Whole Book (8,000 Words)
Maria	250	4 minutes	32 minutes
Carlos	150	7 minutes	53 minutes
Chen	50	20 minutes	2 hours, 40 minutes

Following this simple suggestion can minimize what is perhaps the greatest difficulty teachers face in multilingual classrooms. The question, of course, is how you can provide this extra time, and we have several suggestions. Students who need the time can be given opportunities to complete their work as part of free-choice activities. Or they might be allowed to take home work that isn't completed during class. Or you might give students the questions you will ask ahead of time during reading lessons, being sure to give *all* students sufficient time to do the reading and thinking necessary to answer them. Still another option is to shorten some of the selections students are asked to read by summarizing parts of them. *In the Classroom 14.4*, for example, includes a summary of the first half of Pegi Deitz Shea's *The Whispering Cloth: A Refugee's Story*. It is worth a reminder here that AIs such as ChatGPT can summarize many texts and save you a good deal of time when you need a summary. Of course, it is also necessary to remember that AI summaries need to be checked for accuracy.

To be an effective teacher of English learners, you also need to give yourself extra time, particularly when making day-to-day informal assessments of their progress. You will have to train yourself to perceive EL's progress in different ways, as that progress will not look or sound the same as progress for native speakers. The extra moments to think through whether you have made the right instructional decision for an EL will pay off in the end, both for the children and for your self-confidence as a teacher.

In the Classroom 14.4

Summarizing Part of a Selection

The Whispering Cloth: A Refugee's Story is a touching story about a young Hmong girl, Mai, who learns to create embroidered tapestries—*pándau* in the Hmong language—while in a refugee camp in Thailand. The book is beautifully illustrated with both watercolors and reproductions of the pándau Mai creates. Although the book is not a long read for students who read fluently, it is a formidable task for students beginning to read English. Summarizing the first half of the book would simplify that task considerably, particularly for Hmong students, who come from a culture that does not have a written language.

Introduce the book in a fashion that you and your students will be comfortable with. You might tell children that it is the story of a young Hmong girl in a refugee camp in Thailand. Using a map, show children the location of the refugee camp and the Hmongs' homeland in northern Laos, and discuss the situation that forced the Hmongs to become refugees. Then, explain to children what embroidery or pándau is, show a sample of embroidery (actual Hmong pándau, if possible), and explain that pándau plays an important part in the story. You might also tell children that the main characters in the story are Mai and her grandmother, who is simply called Grandma.

Finally, tell children that you are going to summarize the first half of the book for those who would like it summarized and that they can either listen to your summary or begin reading on their own. After children have made their choices, perhaps

with some guidance from you, students who want to hear your summary can gather around you as you summarize it, perhaps saying something like this:

> As *The Whispering Cloth* opens, we learn that Mai lives in a refugee camp with her grandmother and that Mai can remember little of her life outside of the camp. She knows, though, that many people leave the refugee camp and that some of them go to America, and it seems that she would like to go there, too. Partly to give her something to do and partly to provide the family with some income, Grandma teaches Mai to make pándau. Mai learns very quickly and is soon very good at making this beautiful "flowery cloth." One day, Mai begins to work on a pándau in which she tells a story that is filling her head with thoughts.

After reading the summary, introduce the reading itself, saying something like:

> As you read the rest of the book, you will see pictures of the pándau that Mai stitched. Now read the rest of the book to see the pándau and what it meant to Mai and her Grandma and what they decided to do with it.

Use the Rosetta Stone Technique

We have all heard about the wonder of the Rosetta Stone. This tremendous discovery, shown in **Figure 14.6**, contains the same text in Egyptian hieroglyphics, Egyptian demotic script, and several ancient Greek languages. The discovery of the Rosetta Stone allowed linguists to decipher Egyptian hieroglyphics, which they could not read, by using their knowledge of ancient Greek, which they could read.

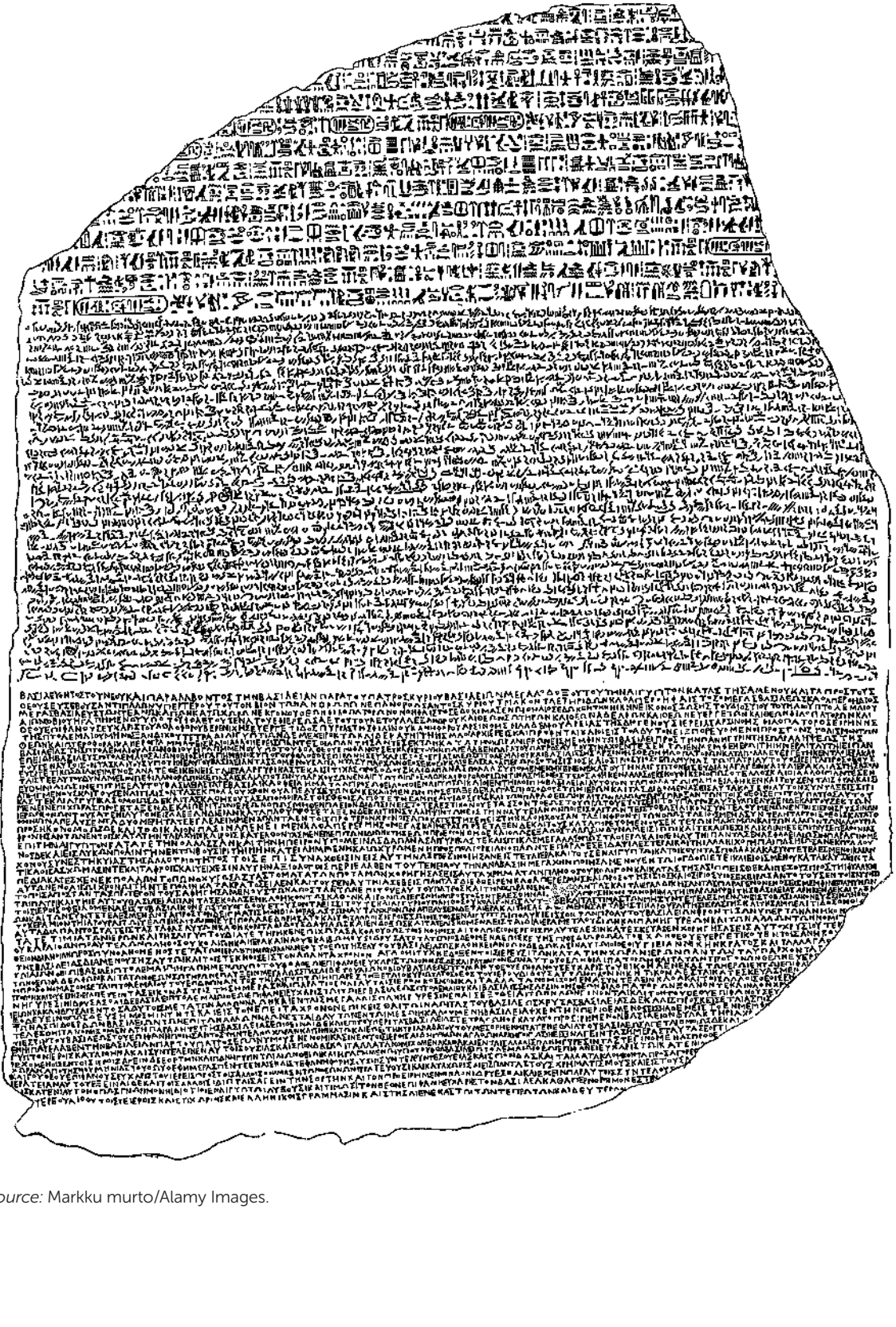
One useful vocabulary technique for working with a class that includes English learners is based on this approach. If you make a chart of everyday English words in one column, your students who speak other languages can contribute the equivalent words from each of their languages in other columns. Alternatively, your ELs might periodically add words from their native languages to the chart and solicit the equivalent English words and words in other languages represented in your class. Or, as you encounter words in a content lesson, you could use them as entries on a Rosetta Stone chart and have students add the equivalent words from their languages, creating a multilingual word wall.

The Rosetta Stone word wall can be used to build vocabulary and as a source of words for writing. It supports both word choice and pronunciation. Whatever the specific source of words you put on the chart, be certain to practice pronouncing both non-English and English words with ELs as well as with the entire class. In this way, all students will be able to do well at some parts of the task. Also, not only will your English-only students begin to learn some vocabulary in another language, they will also begin to appreciate the challenges some of their classmates face. And they will be able to see that ELs know a great deal that native English speakers do not know.

Involve Parents, Siblings, and Other Speakers of the Children's Languages

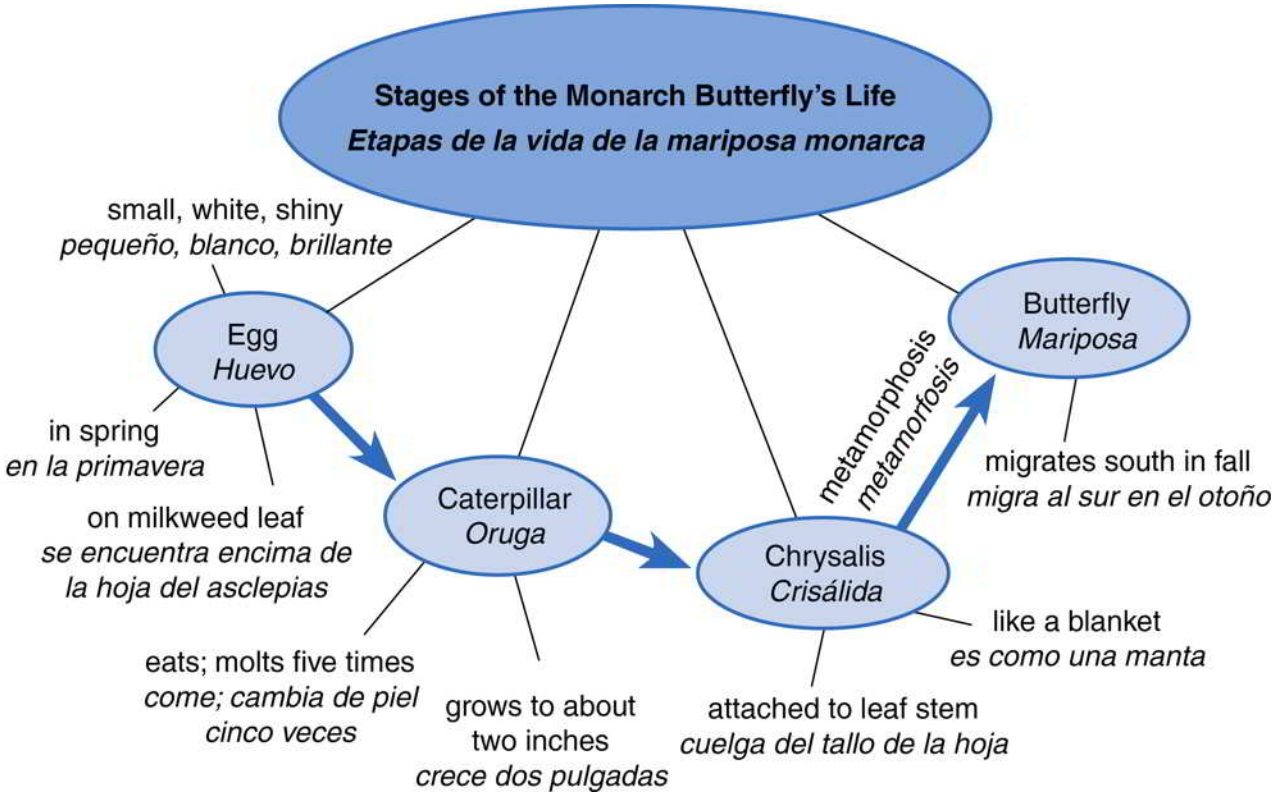
Often, parents, siblings, other relatives, and caregivers can help translate between the native language and English, or vice versa. Sometimes all it takes is a bridge between languages to get children started. Translating the first page or so of a text they are going to read, or creating a graphic organizer of what they are going to read, such as the example shown in **Figure 14.7**, can be extremely helpful. Moreover, such a bridge can work both ways. As students become more proficient in English, they can assume the role of translator for parents who are not quite as proficient. This will give students a reason to learn more English and may encourage the parents to learn more English as well. In addition, as students become increasingly competent in English, they will be motivated to become still more competent.

FIGURE 14.6
The Rosetta Stone—Showing Greek, Demotic, and Hieroglyphic Scripts



Source: Markku murto/Alamy Images.

FIGURE 14.7
Graphic Organizer in English and Spanish for a Section of Lynn Rosenblatt's Monarch Magic!



Siblings can sometimes be particularly helpful in the classroom. Older brothers or sisters who may be reluctant to participate in their own class because they are not as proficient as their English-only classmates may work extremely well with their younger brothers or sisters. An added bonus here is that, when tutoring these younger students, the older siblings may very well realize that they know more English than they thought and consequently feel encouraged to attempt to read when they would have otherwise been reluctant to do so.

Use Peer-Assisted Learning

Older students who speak the same languages as your students and are somewhat more proficient in reading English than your students can be a great benefit (Saenz et al., 2008). Again, sometimes the older students may realize that they know more English than they thought and be encouraged to attempt more challenging reading tasks themselves. They may also be motivated to learn more because they begin to realize how much they do not know yet or because they wish to do a better job in helping the younger students.

Of course, students who are the same age as the tutees but have somewhat more advanced English reading skills can also serve as classroom tutors. As is the case with cross-age tutors, peer tutors are likely to benefit from the teaching they do. The research strongly demonstrates that students tutoring other students is a true win-win situation in which both tutor and tutee benefit markedly (Cohen et al., 1982), and recent research indicates that this can be particularly true with English learners (Marieswari & Prema, 2016). Finally, students are not the only people who may be of help in your classroom. Aides, volunteers, college students preparing to be teachers, and sometimes even administrators and maintenance personnel, can perform a variety of helpful tasks with English learners.

Bilingual teacher Margaret Thayer suggests one powerful way to motivate students and foster interactions between English learners and English-only students—establishing a buddy system:

> One of the most successful things we have done in our classroom is to set up a buddy system in which we deliberately pair our native English speakers with our English learners. We do this at the beginning of the year or whenever an English learner enters the class, and from that time on the two students do many things together. They work as a pair doing in-class assignments, talk about what they have read, and work together on homework. Of course, in many cases, the native speaker serves more often as the tutor and the English learner as the learner. But whenever possible, we try to get the English learner in the teacher's role. Often, for example, the English learner teaches his English-speaking buddy some things about his language or culture. And, in many cases, the pairing doesn't end at the school. Buddies often visit each other's homes, share holidays, and chill out together. As I said, the buddy system has been a real success. Also, it does not take up a lot of the teacher's time, always an important consideration when you are trying a new approach in the classroom. (Margaret Thayer, fifth-grade teacher)

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.3

This video celebrates the use of peer tutors working with high school English learners. What do you see as the challenges and opportunities of elementary grade peer tutors working with their classmates who are learning English?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=9ec_m5LwhJk

Give Students the Freedom to Choose the Language in Which to Respond

Research tells us that students often demonstrate greater abilities when they are given the option of responding in the language in which they feel most comfortable. This is particularly true, of course, when the text is in English and the students are not fluent in English.

Allowing students to respond in their native language is a very easy change you can make, and it can pay off big dividends. In addition to demonstrating better understanding when using the language of their choice, students may also be able to remember more of what they have learned in their native language, because they don't have to translate from on language to another. Also, students' language preference may vary for different reading materials. For example, a reading passage about a student's native country might be best responded to in the student's native language. In reading a passage about American history, however, a student might choose to use English. The key is to allow the student to choose the appropriate language in which to respond.

One concern some teachers have about this technique is that they may not be able to understand and assess what the students wrote or said. However, even if you cannot understand the language the student chooses, all is not lost. The easiest way to handle the situation is to have the student respond in his native language and then have him do the translation into English. Note that going back and forth from one language to another is terrific practice for students.

In addition to giving students the opportunity to respond in the language they choose, you can sometimes give them the opportunity to read in the language of their choice. Bilingual books, a growing set of children's books in which the same book contains both English and another language, make providing this option very convenient. A small sample of the books in this growing genre is shown in The Reading Corner.

If you, aides, parent volunteers, or other volunteers speak the home languages of your students, you have still other opportunities to tap their native-language skills. Directions for classroom work and homework can be given in both English and the students' native languages. This can be a huge help to students in doing their class work, and it can be a tremendous help to parents in assisting their children with homework.

We will conclude our general section about teaching English learners with a brief discussion of the SIOP model, which we mentioned earlier. Echevarria and her colleagues' Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model was developed over the course of a 7-year research project and is the most widely used approach for teaching English learners. The SIOP model is specifically designed to promote English learners' English language skills and their academic literacy in content areas. Echevarria and her colleagues' *Making Content Comprehensible for Multilingual Learners: The SIOP Model* (2024) provides a detailed description of the approach and is certainly worth reading for those who will be working with English learners in content areas. Here are the major tenets of the model:

- Identify the language demands of the content course.
- Plan language objectives for all lessons, along with reading and content objectives.
- Emphasize academic vocabulary development.
- Activate and strengthen background knowledge.
- Promote oral interaction and extended academic talk.
- Review vocabulary and content concepts.
- Give students feedback on language use in class.

In *The Instructional Routine 14.1* we present a lesson for teaching students to infer character traits following the SIOP model. This model has eight characteristics and we have labeled each on in parentheses.

Instructional Routine 14.1

Teaching Students to Infer Character Traits with the SIOP Model

Purpose

English language learners face two challenges. They must learn the concepts and strategies necessary for strong reading comprehension, and they must learn the language necessary to understand these strategies and express their understanding (Echevarria et al., 2024).

Procedures

- *Objectives*

  1. Students will learn to infer character traits from actions, dialogue, and thoughts, and to cite evidence to support their conclusions (content objective).
  2. Students will use academic vocabulary such as *infer, evidence, traits*, and *support* in their classroom discussions (language objective).

- *The Text*

  A Year Down Yonder by Richard Peck (2001). A novel set during the Great Depression with a poor family in Chicago finding a way to cope with difficult financial times.

- *Vocabulary Instruction (academic vocabulary)*

  For each vocabulary word, read the sentence below. Explain what the word means. Ask the students for examples of each word and non-examples.

  To **infer** means figuring something out when we read, watch a movie, or see something in a real-life event. If you see a dark shadow over your window at night, you might infer that someone is trying to look into your house. To infer means to make an educated guess and you know more than you first think you do.

Evidence can be clues in the text, ideas left by the author that tell us about the character.

A **trait** is a quality or characteristic of a person. Some people are generally happy, others are sad. Some are honest, others lie.

When you have an opinion or idea about a story, and you can point to a sentence or words that prove you are correct, you have provided **support**.

- *Vocabulary Instruction (content vocabulary)*

  The **depression** was a time when many people in the country had no jobs, people had little money, and life was difficult.

  You are **welcoming** when you are friendly to people, shake their hands, give them a hug. You are friendly and not distant.

- *Developing background knowledge* (background knowledge)

  The novel we are about to read takes place during the Great Depression. The Depression started almost 100 years ago. It was called the Depression because many people lost their jobs, and there was little money for food, clothing, or shelter. The Depression lasted for almost 10 years. Many people had to leave their homes to live with other family members or to look for a job. It was a time of great suffering.

- *The Strategy – Inferring Character Traits*

  You will be using the same strategy we presented in Chapter 11. The students will search the text for clues, use what they know, and then make inferences. Draw the following chart on the board or on chart paper.

What are the Clues in the Text?	What do You Already Know? (Prior Knowledge)	What is Your Inference?

- Text discussion, inferring character traits (promoting oral interaction/ academic talk)

  Mary Alice, a 15-year-old girl, gets off the train in southern Illinois and meets her grandmother, who will be taking care of her for the next year. Mary Alice is carrying her suitcase, a picnic hamper with a cat inside, and her portable radio. We are going to read a few paragraphs to infer one of grandmother's traits.

  Remember, we can infer a person's traits from their actions, their thoughts, and the dialogue, and how they talk to others in the story.

  Here is a short summary of when Mary Alice first gets off the train and meets her grandma.

  > "What's in there?"
  >
  > "Bootsie," I said. "My cat."
  >
  > "Hoo-boy," Grandma said. "Another mouth to feed." Her lips pursed. "And what's that thing?"
  >
  > "My radio." But it was more than a radio to me. It was my last touch with the world.
  >
  > "That's all we need, more noise."

  Questions

  1. What does Grandma say when she sees Mary Alice's cat and radio?
  2. How do you think Grandma feels about the cat and the noise?
  3. Is Grandma's world about to change?
  4. How do you feel when your life is about to change in a big way?
  5. What does this tell us about Grandma? What kind of person is she? What character trait does that reveal?

- Extend the discussion and focus on language use (feedback on language use)

  Pair students so that a stronger English speaker is paired with an English learner. Have the students discuss what kind of person Grandma is, then share their ideas with each other. Students' comments affirm what they say and expand upon it.

  As students offer their thoughts, expand on their language and model more expanded use of language.

  Student: Grandma not nice.

  Teacher: Yes, Grandma does not seem very nice; maybe she is uncomfortable with change.

In addition to the general instructional techniques for assisting English learners discussed here, two Institute for Educational Science Practice Guides—*Effective Literacy and English Language Instruction for English Learners in the Elementary Grades* (Gersten et al., 2007) and *Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School* (Baker et al., 2014)—provide a host of instructional techniques and are easily available as PDFs by Googling "IES practice guides on teaching English learners."

The Reading Corner

Books Available in Bilingual Formats

Books with text in two languages, usually on facing pages, provide an outstanding opportunity for English learners to practice reading in both their own language and English. Moreover, the text in the reader's stronger language acts as a scaffold for reading the text in their weaker language. The books listed below are a small sample of the many books available. Searching sites such as Amazon with the terms "bilingual books" and "dual-language books" will yield hundreds more.

Rebecca T. Anonuevo. *The Shy Rooster/Ang Mahiyaing Manok*. (Filipino-English). Pan Asia Publications, 2000. In this picture book, a shy young rooster who cannot crow as well or as loud as the other roosters proves his worth. 32 pages.

Enebor Attard. *Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves*. (Hindi-English). Language Lizards, 2011. Colorfully illustrated version of this classic tale. This is available in English and over 20 other languages. 32 pages.

Stella Blackstone. Illustrated by Debbie Harter. *Bear in a Square/Tus Dais Hauv Lub Plaub Fab*. (Hmong-English). Barefoot Books, 2022. Readers discover a lot of different shapes with rhyme, repetition, and counting. This book is also available in Russian, Vietnamese, Amharic, and Spanish. 24 pages.

Eric Carle. *From Head to Toe/De la cabeza a los pies*. (Spanish-English). HarperCollins, Bilingual edition, 2020. The animals of Head to Toe invite young readers to copy their antics as they play. 28 pages.

Daniel Chacón. Illustrated by Steven James Petruccio. *Gecko Girl/La gartijita*. (Spanish-English). Arte Publico/Piñata, 2025. A bilingual story about a little girl who wakes up having been magically transformed into a gecko. 32 pages.

Hans de Beer. *Little Polar Bear/jag-eun buggeuggom*. (Korean-English). NorthSouth Books, Inc., 2020. This picture book, beloved for more than 30 years, tells of little bear's adventure drifting on an iceberg in the Arctic. Also available in these bilingual editions--Ukrainian, Vietnamese, Russian, Chinese, Arabic, Italian, French, German. 32 pages.

Angéle Delaunois. Illustrated by Augusto Mora. *Carlito's Butterfly/La mariposa de Carlito*. (Spanish-English). Orca, 2025. A lyrical text in which Carlito makes discoveries about the monarch butterfly and its migration from one country to another, something people also sometimes do. 36 pages.

Lucky Diaz. Illustrated by Micah Player. *The Rock Star/La guitarrista*. (Spanish-English). HarperCollins, Bilingual edition, 2024. Tenacious Canta achieves her wildest dreams with a broken guitar and a little help from her community. 40 pages.

Anneke Forzani. Illustrated by Maria Russo. *Who Are We? Peb Yog Leej Twg? (Hmong-English).* Language Lizard, 2021. This multicultural book helps readers understand and appreciate diverse communities. 26 pages.

Chris Huang. *Mama's Home in Taiwan: A Bilingual Children's Book*. (Traditional Chinese-Zhuyin-Pinyin-English). Cloud Learning, 2021. Actually written in four scripts, this is a story of modern Taiwanese immigrants nurturing the next generation to identify with their motherland and to be proud of being Taiwanese-Americans. 37 pages.

Xaviar Garza. *Racing at Devil's Bridge and Other Stories/Carreras en le Puente del Diablo y otros cuentos*. Translation by Alaide Venura Medina. (Spanish-English). Arte Publico Press, 2024. A collection of stories for 8-12-year-old readers featuring creepy creatures from Latin American lore. 185 pages.

Pang Hlub Xiong. *Kashia's Family. Kaj Siab Tsev Neeg*. (Hmong-English). English & White Hmong Publisher: Project Hmong Children's Books, 2025. A simple, repetitive story about Kashia and her love for her intergenerational family. 24 pages.

DEVELOPING WORD RECOGNITION AND COMPREHENSION

Thus far in the chapter, we have presented a number of general recommendations for teaching English learners. Now we will focus on some specifics for teaching word recognition, vocabulary, and comprehension. It is important to keep in mind that the more support you provide, the better the students will grasp the new skills and concepts. The set of ideas and strategies we present here was developed by the American Educational Research Association (AERA, 2004), the major educational research association in the United States, and parallels the more recent recommendations made by August (2018), Goldenberg (2023), and Shanahan (2025a,b). *Teaching Tool 14.1* lists these ideas and strategies.

Teaching Tool 14.1

AERA's Recommendations

Word Recognition

- Emphasize decoding skills early. Like other children, English learners can learn to decode words relatively quickly—in two years or so.
- Provide systematic training in phonemic awareness.
- Give students lots of practice reading.
- Provide explicit instruction in phonics.
- Use frequent in-class assessment to find out where students need assistance, and then provide that assistance.

Comprehension

- Allot a substantial period of time to building sophisticated language skills. Engage students in substantive reading, writing, and discussion on academic topics.
- Provide in-depth instruction in both oral and reading vocabulary, and be sure to teach a significant number of words using powerful approaches.
- Provide instruction in learning from text.
- Provide comprehension strategy instruction.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.4

Here, English as a second language expert Diane August discusses the special needs of English language newcomers, emphasizing the importance of peer tutoring. What sort of training do you think is necessary for elementary grade peer tutors?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=FTrjo3H89bY

Beginning Reading Instruction with English Learners

Many of the instructional recommendations we have discussed thus far in this chapter apply primarily to students who have mastered the rudiments of reading in English. Here, we look at beginning reading instruction for English learners.

An English learner must learn to decode written English and acquire the alphabetic principle. In several ways, teaching young English learners to read is similar to teaching monolingual students, but with some added complications. When a child is learning to read in their first language, word recognition problems are simpler. Once the child has decoded a new word, sounded it out, the word is likely to be in their oral vocabulary and they can see that the task was successful. In many cases, the student only has to produce an approximation of the word before the mind completes the task of pulling a known word from the child's oral vocabulary. When an EL decodes a new word, that rich vocabulary is not available. So when the student gets close to the correct pronunciation there is no moment of recognition, there is no "aha" experience. The EL often does not know that they have correctly identified the word. Having only a small oral English vocabulary, the student is hampered in both word recognition and comprehension. So word recognition for ELs must proceed carefully and be supported by concurrent vocabulary instruction where word meanings are discussed after students decode new words.

Another set of problems confronts English learners just learning to read English because there is often a mismatch between the phonemes in the student's first language and the sounds of English. While the teacher is diligently trying to get the students to pronounce one sound, the students are hearing another. A few common language interference problems are presented in **Figure 14.8**. Being aware of these potential problems, you can minimize language confusions by careful pronunciation and by guiding students through the proper mouth movements.

FIGURE 14.8
Sources of Sound Confusion Between English and Spanish

English		**Spanish**
Sounds	*Words*	*Problems of Recognition*
"u" schwa	fun	Spanish has no schwa. The closest would be the "aw" in *fawn*.
"a" There are eight basic ways to pronounce *a*.	cat, about, play	Spanish has one sound for "a." The nearest sound to short *a* in Spanish would be the "e" in *hen*.
"i" There are four basic ways to pronounce *i*.	pig, till, bike	It is difficult for the Spanish ear to hear the short sound of *i*. The Spanish speaker will hear "ill" as "eel" or "ell."
"ch" The digraph is pronounced with a high volume of air.	chair, church,	"sh" and "ch" are very similar in Spanish because Spanish is spoken with a low volume of air, making the sounds similar.
"wh"	why, what, where	The "wh" does not occur in Spanish and it will be perceived as "gwai," "gwhat," and "gwear" in Spanish.
"sc," "sp," or "st"	scan, speak, stick	In Spanish the "s" at the beginning of a word is followed only by vowels. So these words will be perceived as "escan," "espeek," or "esteek."

Given the problems associated with teaching phonics to English learners, the teacher must craft phonics lessons that ameliorate potential difficulties. *In the Classroom 14.5* presents a phonics lesson you might use with a mixed group of ELs and English-only students. The integration of phonics and vocabulary development is essential for the development of decoding skills and vocabulary. Students will fail to benefit from the phonics unless their English vocabulary builds at the same time. For the English-only students in the class, the extra emphasis on vocabulary helps to ground the decoding work in a meaningful context, making the work much less abstract. The lesson in *In the Classroom 14.5* is based on Beck and Beck (2024) and reflects the same structure for phonics lessons we presented in Chapter 8.

In the Classroom 14.5

Phonics Instruction for English Learners and the Rest of the Class

Phonics instruction for English learners follows the same general lesson plan as for English-only students. In teaching the lesson, it is best to work with small groups of four to six students composed of both English-only students and English learners. Begin the lesson by developing phonemic awareness and then move to letter-sound associations and finally decoding practice. The lesson should weave in words from Spanish, if that is the English learners' home language, and English words. As noted, there should be a heavy focus on vocabulary, so that words are not just decoded but the meanings explained and discussed.

Phonemic Awareness

Develop phonemic awareness by focusing attention first on the initial sounds in words. The major differences between the sounds in English and Spanish are the vowels. While Spanish has five vowel sounds, English has twelve. Additionally, there are sounds in English like the digraphs *sh* and *ch* that are difficult for Spanish speakers to distinguish.

English learners will be more successful if teachers keep it simple and begin with initial consonant sounds. Students might conduct a picture sort and then isolate the initial sound in the word. Use words like *dog* /d/, *perro* /p/, *cat* /c/, and *gato* /g/. After each picture is sorted, the students name the picture and identify the initial consonant sound. The activity can be repeated to identify the final sound in each word using both English and the child's first language.

Connect Letters to Sounds

Show students a large letter card and explain that this is the letter *m* and it makes the /m/ sound as in Maria, Michael, Miguel, madre, manana, mother, and milk. Say something like, "Each time I point to the letter, you say the letter sound." Using the students' names grounds the lesson in the familiar. Next, show the students several words that contain an *m* and have them point to and say /m/ as in *man*, *ham*, or *jamón*. Always use a visual so that ELs can make the transition between their first and second languages.

Discriminate Sounds

Students can next discriminate among words that contain the /m/ sound and words that do not. "If the word I say begins with the /m/ sound, hold up your *m* card and say /m/. If it doesn't begin with the /m/ sound, shake your head no." Then say words like *milk, leche, money, dinero, mother, madre,* and so forth. After the students respond, discuss and define the words, or share pictures that represent them. Note that vocabulary is being developed alongside phonics.

Blending/Decoding

The last step in the lesson is to build words with the letter-sound associations that have been introduced. The students will be decoding words, but the lesson must also emphasize their meanings. After each word is decoded, define the word or share a picture. Again, English learners are building both decoding ability and vocabulary.

Place the letters *h a m* in a pocket chart and give each student the same set of letters. Point to the letters one at a time and say the sounds of each letter. Then, have the students repeat the process. Slide the letter *a* over to the letter *h* and say /ha/. Slide your finger under the *ha*, pronounce it, and hold it until you point at the letter *m* and say /m/. Have the student repeat what you say with their letters. Move the *m* over to the *ha*. Slide your finger under *ham* and say /ham/. Have the students repeat the process. Discuss what ham is and when you might eat it. Say it in Spanish: *jamón*. The process continues as students sound out additional words—*ham, him, hit, hid, had,* and *dad*. With each word make sure the students understand what it means and have them try it out orally in a sentence. You can have the students work together to develop a sentence for each word with English-only students assisting ELs.

As with any learners, the process does not stop with students' initial work on phonemic awareness, learning letter sounds and blending. The students have to apply and practice their new skills in context. Two concerns stand out—text selection and guided practice. When selecting texts, we believe the guidelines we discussed in Chapter 6 apply equally well to English learners. Select texts, in which students can practice the phonics patterns they have been taught in isolation. This helps to ensure transfer. Second, select texts in which the phonics patterns and the individual words are repeated often so that the students have a sufficient amount of practice. This means that reading level should not be the only criteria used to select text. Examine the texts closely and determine if the phonics patterns you have taught receive a generous amount of practice.

Much of students' reading practice will come during small-group work, and it is during that time that the teacher can provide support and guidance in the use of word recognition strategies. Avalos and her colleagues (2008) recommend that the ideal time to assist English learners with word recognition problems is after they have read the passage. The instructional routine might look something like this:

- After a student finishing reading, ask if they encountered any difficult words.
- If the student identifies a difficult word, discuss the process of decoding the word. Ask how they identified or figured out the word. If not, model a strategy for the group.
- It is best to help the students to identify chunks within the word that they already know. Especially for English learners, we recommend the decoding-by-analogy strategy we presented in Chapter 8. By using this strategy, ELs do not have to deal with the complexity of the English vowel structure and can decode the word as syllables. For example, the word *advertise* is best decoded as *ad*, as in *had*, *ver*, as in *her*, and *tise* as in *size*.
- After the student has decoded words from the text, have them try a few similar words. For example, after the word *advertise* have them try *advertisement*, *likewise*, and *downsize*.
- A bit of practice with each student each day will help to improve their decoding skills. But remember to do as much of the work in context as you can.

Like all students, ELs need to build their reading fluency. In Chapter 9 we stressed the importance of both wide reading and specific practices like repeated readings or neurological impress or dyad reading. For ELs who are not ready to read widely for long periods of time, we strongly recommend repeated readings. This will give ELs the fluency practice they need to build their reading rate and their prosody. These

activities can begin in a small group and then continue with partner work. Pair an English learner with a stronger English speaker and reader so they can provide assistance. Follow the same instructional routines we presented in Chapter 9, but with one modification. Review some of the vocabulary words before the students begin their repeated reading practice.

Developing Comprehension

Since much of what we have written about the development of reading comprehension applies to English learners, here we will focus on some of the differences. As with all students, comprehension is a product of knowledge, inferential reasoning, strategies, and motivation. ELs come from different cultures with different funds of knowledge. Much of what they know may not be useful in comprehending texts in our country. So comprehension requires ways to bridge cultural divides. We will focus on four issues: developing vocabulary, building background knowledge, reading fiction, and reading informational text.

Vocabulary Instruction

In Chapter 10, we introduced a procedure called SWIT, and we elaborate on it in *Appendix B, Selecting Words from Instructional Text*. That process will help you choose words particularly important for English learners. In the process new words in a text are classified as either *essential, valuable,* or *accessible*. Like all students, ELs must learn the words that are essential for comprehending the text, but you should also focus on the accessible words. These are words that most of the class might know, but that ELs might not.

For English learners, academic vocabulary or the language of the classroom is of particular concern (Gersten et al., 2007). The words that abound in reading/language arts are terms like *genre, passage, sentence, paragraph, analyze,* and *summarize*. Other content areas have their own terms, some reflecting the topics being taught and others common across disciplines. Words such as *compare, contrast, explain, evidence, conclude,* and *structure* are likely to be used across several content areas. It is worthwhile setting aside designated time for teaching academic vocabulary.

The process we described for teaching individual words in Chapter 10 works well for English learners with two additions. Use as many visual images as possible. ELs can use the pictures to connect the concept to the word. Also, it is important to use many examples. Using examples, non-examples, and rich discussions is more effective than simply presenting the definitions of words. Definitions are often abstract statements where examples are much more concrete and easier to grasp.

Building Background Knowledge

Building knowledge before students read is a vital part of comprehension activities, and we discussed how to build background knowledge in Chapters 11 and 12. It is equally important to help students use what they know while they are reading. With English learners, knowledge development is particularly vital since the stores of knowledge they bring to the text are different from what English-only students bring. ELs are likely to have difficulty with cultural differences, the idioms of English, and figurative language, especially metaphors and similes. Imagine reading; *The dude hoofed it over to the hoosegow*. This means that fiction, especially realistic fiction or historical fiction with long passages of dialogue, is often more difficult for ELs than nonfiction, in which many science concepts and some social studies concepts are universal.

Reading Fiction

When reading and studying fiction we recommend the C.I.A. (Collect-Interpret-Apply) process that we described at the end of Chapter 11. With C.I.A. students' knowledge

and understanding are carefully built during a read-aloud of a chapter book where the teacher models the process of reading a book. The class develops character lists, draws the setting, outlines the plot, considers the conflict, and develops themes. Each section of a book is specifically supported by a graphic organizer unique to the task. Students work with a partner for additional support. What is learned is transferred and applied during a book club in which students replicate the same process. Each student has a book club partner, and for ELs this is essential. The structure and support in the C.I.A. process suits the need of ELs.

When reading, English learners often encounter difficult grammar or syntax, and these problems deserve some attention. Because English grammar differs from that of other languages, it is important to stop during a lesson to unravel a complex sentence. Consider this short sample from an essay about Martin Luther King, Jr. written for sixth-graders.

> And even though prejudice and poverty still exist, the important lesson that King taught, Branch told TIME, was that "first, we have to believe we can do something about this."

This sentence is complex for a number of reasons. First, the subject of the sentence follows an introductory clause. "And even though prejudice and poverty still exist . . . " and the predicate of the sentence follows the embedded idea that the someone else, Branch, is reporting this information. Also, there are several ideas embedded in this one sentence and it helps to unpack them and other complex sentences. Sometimes, when guiding students' reading, your attention and support should be at the sentence level helping the unravel the meaning of just one sentence.

Reading Informational Text

In the past, informational texts were seldom used for reading instruction (Duke, 2004), but this is changing with the Common Core State Standards, which require that 50 percent of instruction be conducted with informational text (Cummins, 2013). We strongly recommend that you use informational texts with English learners for several reasons.

First, students can read informational texts to find out things that they can use in their lives outside of the classroom. This may be a greater motivation to learn to read in English than anything else you can do. It will give students a reason to work as hard as they can to understand texts in English. The task can be as simple as reading a recipe for making chocolate chip cookies or as complex as reading a science article on hibernation. Being able to read informational texts may also contribute to the stature of a child, as the new knowledge can be taken home and used to help others in his family.

Second, informational text benefits English learners in that it avoids slang and literary devices. Narrative fiction is full of slang, idioms, similes, and metaphors, language that brings stories to life but makes comprehension more difficult for English learners. The language of informational text is concrete.

Third, in any language, a volcano, a vertebrate, and the moon is the same concept. Moreover, many concepts that are discussed in informational texts can be illustrated with pictures, so ELs have easier access to meaning.

Fourth, it is possible to find informational texts dealing with topics that English learners have a lot of background knowledge about and that do not demand background knowledge specific to U.S. culture or to English, such as Anna Desnitskaya's simple picture book *A Star Shines Through* or Leslie Barnard Booth's *One Day This Tree Will Fall*. Knowledge of basic facts about common animals, for example, is independent of the language and culture in which those facts were learned. Conversely, in stories written for U.S. children, there is often a good deal of cultural knowledge that some ELs may not have assumed.

Additionally, informational text can expand opportunities for home–school connections (Duke & Purcell-Gates, 2003). Some parents, older siblings, and relatives of ELs may seldom have the time or interest to read fiction. These same people,

however, may welcome opportunities to work with their children in reading and understanding newspapers, Internet articles and other nonfiction texts, either print or digital, that deal with real-world topics. Involving parents, siblings, and other speakers of students' native languages can be a huge benefit for all parties.

A note of clarification is needed here. We are not advocating the elimination of narrative texts from the reading curriculum. We are, however, recommending that nonfiction be used as a major component in reading instruction. A study by Duke (2000) showed very little expository text used in the elementary grades while the Common Core State Standards (2009) recommend 50 percent expository text through grade 5 gradually raising to 70 percent in high school. This seems like a reasonable balance of these two different and important text types. Of course, some books—for example, Bonnie Graves's *The Whooping Crane*—both tell a story and provide a good deal of information on a topic.

One important concept to keep in mind when giving English learners informational texts is not to require them to learn large bodies of new knowledge in English. ELs need plenty of scaffolding, using such techniques as teacher-guided questions, working with a peer, and well-structured graphic organizers. Expecting ELs to learn large amounts of new information by reading English texts without sufficient scaffolding is simply an invitation to failure.

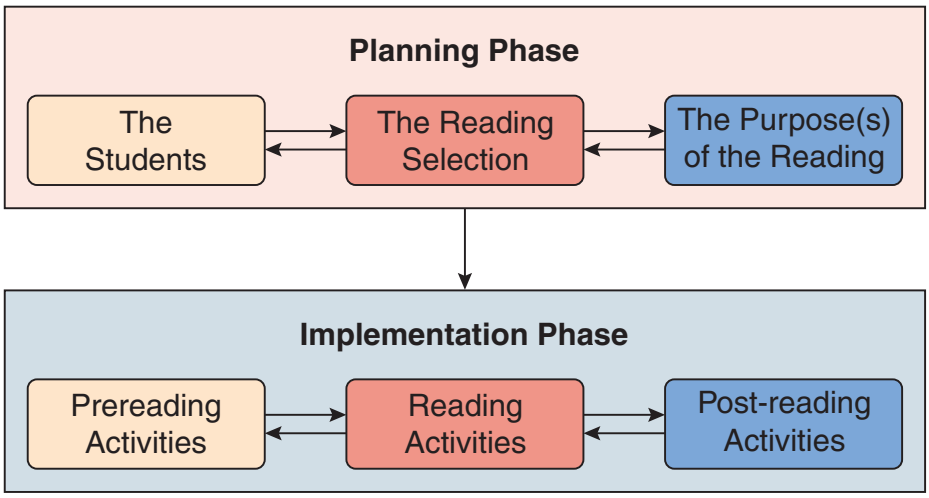
In addition to the teaching suggestions and the descriptions of informational books provided throughout this book, Duke and Bennett-Armistead's *Reading and Writing Informational Text in the Primary Grades* (2003), Cummins', *Close Reading of Informational Texts: Assessment-driven Instruction in Grades 3–8* (2013), and, for a different perspective, Shanahan's *Leveled Texts, Leveled Lives* (2025) can be very helpful.

Finally, we suggest using the Scaffolded Reading Experience (SRE), which we discussed in Chapter 11, with English learners. In fact, one of us coauthored a book on just that topic, *Scaffolding Reading Experiences for English Language Learners* (Fitzgerald & Graves, 2004). Here, we briefly review what we said about SREs in Chapter 11, say a bit more about them and their use with ELs, and give some examples of SREs with ELs. Importantly, although we discussed SREs in a section dealing with narratives and are discussing it here using a biography as an example, SREs are useful with all types of texts, fiction and nonfiction. They are particularly useful with ELs because they suggest many different ways of supporting students' reading. But at the same time they emphasize that just those supports needed to enable students to successfully read the selection they are dealing with should be used.

A Scaffolded Reading Experience is a coordinated set of prereading, during-reading, and postreading activities designed to assist a particular class or group of students to successfully read, understand, learn from, and enjoy a particular text. As shown in **Figure 14.9**, creating an SRE is a two-phase process. In the first phase, the Planning Phase, you consider the Students, the Reading Selection, and the Purpose(s) of the reading. As the two-way arrows suggest, these considerations are interdependent. For example, the students with whom you are working determine the reading selections that are appropriate and the purpose or purposes that can be achieved. For another example, the purpose(s) of doing the reading determine the reading selections that are appropriate and the students who can read the selection. As is also shown in Figure 14.9, in the second phase, the Implementation Phase, you select the Prereading, During-Reading, and Post-reading activities that can best help the students you are working with achieve the purposes you, and your students, wish to accomplish. Again, these three sets of activities are interdependent. What you do for Prereading effects what you do During reading and for Post-reading and vice versa.

A list of *possible* prereading, during-reading, and post-reading activities that *might* be included in an SRE is shown in **Figure 14.10**. Note that this is a list of *possible* activities that *might* be included. No actual SRE would include all of these activities or anything like this number of activities. Instead, in planning an SRE you choose just those activities that will best assist your students in successfully reading the narrative or informational selection they are dealing with.

FIGURE 14.9
The SRE Framework



Source: The SRE figure is taken with permission from Scaffolding Reading Experiences: Designs for Student Success *(1994), Christopher-Gordon.*

FIGURE 14.10
Possible Components of a Scaffolded Reading Experience for English Language Learners

- Prereading Activities
  - Motivating
  - Activating or Building Background Knowledge
  - Providing Text-Specific Knowledge
  - Relating the Reading to Students' Lives
  - Preteaching Vocabulary
  - Preteaching Concepts
  - Prequestioning, Predicting, and Direction Setting
  - Using Students' Native Language
  - Engaging Students and Community People as Resources
  - Suggesting Strategies
- Reading Activities
  - Silent Reading
  - Reading to Students
  - Supported Reading
  - Oral Reading by Students
  - Reading Short Segments of the Text
  - Modifying the Text
- Post-reading Activities
  - Questioning
  - Discussion
  - Building Connections
  - Writing
  - Drama
  - Artistic, Graphic, and Nonverbal Activities
  - Application and Outreach Activities

An example will illustrate what actual SREs look like, how different they can be, and how they are adjusted for different situations. Consider two SREs you might use with *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth,* a biography by Joan Patrick. It's about Jackie Mitchell, a 17-year-old pitcher and the first female member of a minor league team called the Lookouts. In 1931, Jackie struck out New York Yankee legends Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig. While many English learners might be familiar with the game of baseball, others might not. Thus with some, but not all ELs, a fairly healthy scaffold would be appropriate. Here is one for a small group of second-graders.

SRE FOR *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth*

Students	**Selection**	**Purpose**
Second-graders (3 English language learners and 1 academically challenged student)	*The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth* by Joan L. S. Patrick	To understand and enjoy an inspiring biography
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Post-reading**
• Motivating • Preteaching Vocabulary • Building Background Knowledge • Suggesting Strategies	• Guided Reading • Oral Reading by Teacher • Silent Reading	• Discussion • Drama • Artistic Activity • Reteaching (This became part of the SRE when it became apparent that students were having problems using the strategy suggested during prereading.)

Now here is another SRE for the same selection but with a different group of students. These are above average and gifted third-grade, native-English speakers and ELs who have been in dual-language classes since kindergarten, and they are unlikely to need as much scaffolding as the second-grade group.

An Alternative SRE FOR *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth*

Students	**Selection**	**Purpose**
Third-graders (above average and gifted), native-English speakers and English-language learners who have been in dual-language immersion classes since kindergarten	*The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth* by Joan L. S. Patrick	To understand and enjoy an inspiring biography
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Post-reading**
• Building Background Knowledge (which combines motivation and purpose setting)	• Guided Reading • Silent Reading	• Discussion • Artistic Activity

By comparing these two SREs, you can see the effects that students, the texts being read, and the purposes of the reading have on the types and numbers of activities you create. In the first SRE the teacher provides more support, scaffolding, by preteaching the vocabulary, reading a portion of the text aloud to the students, and reteaching the strategy at the conclusion of the lesson. At this point, we want to again note that the purpose of an SRE is not to fill up precious reading time with a lot of activities, no matter how engaging or purposeful in their own right they might be, but rather to provide a scaffold for students to successfully comprehend, learn from, and enjoy what they read.

Some activities in the SRE may be quite brief, taking a only a few minutes, while others will take much longer. For example, a motivational activity might include no more than your saying, "I learned more about the United States Civil War by reading

this article than from anything I've read before." Whereas, a concept-building activity that includes demonstrations of Newton's Laws of Gravity may take 20 minutes or more. What you need to consider is the cost-effectiveness of each activity: How much scaffolding do students need to successfully comprehend and respond to this selection? How much help will they need to understand and enjoy a folktale? To write a mathematical sentence for a story problem? To recall and respond to the significant events that led up to the Civil War?

Another point to keep in mind is that what is important is the function or functions an activity serves, not what it's labeled. For instance, if you know from experience that you really have to motivate your fourth-graders before they read any expository material, then, when planning an SRE for an informational trade book on Japan, you know you must include motivation. As you create the motivational activity, you discover that it serves several purposes simultaneously. It serves to relate the reading to the students' lives, activate their prior knowledge, and introduce vocabulary. You sought motivation and ended up with additional aids in the scaffold. This overlapping of functions will cause no problems. You know what your activity is accomplishing, and that should be enough—unless you also want to tell your students the purpose of the activity—something we recommend you do frequently.

Reflect and Apply

5. Think about reading activities that are not specific to a particular language. For example, the process of using a table of contents in a book is much the same, regardless of the language used. What other reading tasks are similar across different languages?
6. Create your own Rosetta Stone chart, with words or phrases that you know in English and in one or two other languages. For example, you might already know that *mesa* is the Spanish word for "table." If you cannot construct much of a chart by yourself, get together with your classmates who speak other languages and create a chart together.

ASSESSMENTS FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS

Two of the major themes of this chapter are that (1) English learners may require additional support, and (2) students' home languages can and should be used where appropriate. These themes are at the center of our recommendations for assessing ELs. Here, we consider some types of modifications and supports that can be useful in assessing ELs, make some recommendations for using modifications and other supports, and provide some examples of what modifications and supports might look like and how appropriate they might be in assessing students' motivation and in assessing their vocabulary knowledge.

Types of Modifications Useful in Assessment

Probably the easiest type of modification you can provide for English learners during assessments is to give them more time to complete the assessment. The additional time can range from giving students a few minutes to letting them work until you think they have done as much as they can or are willing to do. Another relatively easy type of modification is having students complete the assessment in a place where they are particularly comfortable and likely to produce their best work. This might be the front of the classroom near you, in a quiet corner of the classroom, or in a separate room where there will be as few distractions as possible. A third, and probably more challenging logistically, type of modification is to give the

assessment at a time of day when students are likely to be at their best. The optimal time of day will vary from student to student and from situation to situation, but in many cases this might mean mid-morning. It probably does not mean first thing in the morning, just before or just after lunch, or late in the school day. A fourth, and definitely more demanding in terms of resources, modification is to pair students with an adult, probably an aide, who can keep them on track, encourage them, and perhaps answer questions.

The next type of modification to consider are supports to provide before the actual assessments take place, systematically preparing students to take assessments. See Appendix C for test-taking strategies. The first step here might be to explain upcoming assessments and their purpose. Another step might be to give students test-taking tips such as completing items they understand and can readily respond to in their first pass through the test and then circling back to work on more problematic items, being sure to complete all items on the test, and keeping the time allotted in mind and proceeding at an appropriate pace. Next, you might have students take a practice test that mirrors the format and content of the upcoming assessment. Finally, it would be useful to debrief students after they have taken the practice test, helping them to understand what they did well, what they did not do as well, and how they can improve their test taking skills.

Another type of modification, a very different one and one you will want to use with care, is reading some or all of the test to the student. Obviously, the more of the test you read to the student, the more the assessment becomes a listening test rather than a reading test.

Still another type of modification, and one that may not be easy to accomplish, is using the student's home language. There are a number of options here: You could give the directions in the student's home language. You could allow the student to answer questions in his home language. You could read the possible responses in the student's home language. You could read the entire test in the student's home language. Or you could present the written test in the student's home language.

Some Recommendations for Using Modifications and Supports

Remember that the major purpose of reading assessments from a teacher's perspective is to find out what students can and cannot do so that you can assist them in becoming better readers. ELs in U.S. schools need to become more proficient in reading English, so the more your assessments reflect their skills in reading English, the more they will help you help your students. Our first recommendation is to fully realize how you are changing the assessment and how its results are affected by these modifications and supports. We are talking about thoroughly considering how your supports or modifications affect the assessment outcome. Our second recommendation is closely related to the first. Make a written record of your support or modifications so that both you and others who look at the results of the assessment will understand just what was and was not being measured. This is particularly important when using standardized assessments because the norms for standardized assessments will be affected by any changes you make to the standard procedures. However, it is important for all assessments, because all assessment results need to be interpreted in light of just what modifications and supports you included. Finally, use only as many and as powerful modifications and supports necessary to get the information you need.

Examples of Modifications and Supports

Let's consider some appropriate modifications for assessing motivation and vocabulary. We hope these examples will give you an idea of what to consider as you look at possible modifications and supports for both these and other types of assessments.

Motivation is probably the area in which modifications and supports are most appropriate and do the least to change the intended purpose of the assessment. Consider, for example, the set of questions on reading attitudes we presented in Chapter 3:

- Do you like to read? Why or why not?
- Are you reading anything for fun at this time? What is it? Why do you like it?
- Do you have any favorite authors or titles? Why are these your favorites?
- Is there a certain kind of text that you prefer—books, magazines, fiction, nonfiction, or some other format?
- How do you choose what to read when you go online or to a library or bookstore?
- What do you do if what you are reading is too hard or too easy for you?
- What makes a good reader?

The first thing to consider when using this assessment with English learners is to note whether you are asking about reading in English, reading in the students' home language, or both. Once you have clarified this point, you could include such modifications as reading the questions to students, letting them respond in their home language, or presenting the questions in the students' home language. With any of these modifications, you would still be assessing students' reading attitudes and interests, just what the original assessment was intended to assess.

The situation with vocabulary and a standardized test is quite different. Consider the vocabulary section of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (MacGinitie et al., 2000), a test we discussed in Chapter 10. Here is a sample test item with four answer choices.

It was an interesting **era**:

a. kind of food
b. type of sport
c. period of time
d. way of talking

The Gates-MacGinitie is norm referenced, and any modifications you make will affect the norms, meaning the results for students receiving a modification are likely to be stronger than they would achieve without your assistance. Consider one of the easiest modifications we have suggested, having students complete the assessment in a place where they are particularly comfortable, perhaps in a room with just a few students and an aide. You would make the modification because you believe the students might score better without the distractions of the typical classroom, and they might. They might score higher, and this higher score might be a truer indication of their vocabulary knowledge. But you could not compare their scores to the scores of students in the norm group, who took the test in a classroom setting. The same applies to giving students more time to complete the test. The results might be a better representation of what the students are capable of if given enough time, but you could not compare these students' scores to the scores of students in the norm group.

Now consider a very different modification, reading the test items to the student. Now you are no longer using the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, you have created a "Gates-MacGinitie Listening Test." You are not testing reading at all, you are testing listening. And while your test will provide you with some information about the students' listening skills, it tells neither you nor any other teachers who see the results of your assessment anything about the students' reading skills. You might think that the students' scores on a listening test would be higher than their scores on a reading test. However, some ELs have stronger written English skills than oral English skills, so it is very difficult to make a conclusion about students' proficiency with reading vocabulary based on a listening test.

Our general message about providing extra support or modifications when assessing English learners can be summed up this way: Supports and modifications

can certainly be useful, but before you use them you need to carefully consider what you are assessing and what effects the supports and modifications are likely to have on students' scores. Additionally, you need to keep a written description of your supports and modifications so that you and others who might look at students' scores in the future can interpret them correctly.

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, we began by considering linguistic diversity in the United States, the number of English learners in today's schools, and the reading performance of ELs. Then, in the major portion of the chapter, we described instructional approaches that can be used with ELs and some modifications to consider when assessing ELs. In concluding the chapter, we want to emphasize seven points.

First, realize that English learners are both learning to read and learning a new language. This is a hugely more difficult task than that of learning to read in their first language, one the students already know quite well. Keep this in mind in all your work with ELs.

Second, practices that are generally effective are likely to be effective with English learners. Good teaching is good teaching in a variety of contexts and with a variety of students.

Third, English learners will profit from, and in many cases require, additional instructional supports. Good teaching by itself is not sufficient.

Fourth, using students' home languages will help promote English learners' success.

Fifth, with English learners, as with all children, it is not merely low-level literacy or the rudiments of literacy that we must assist ELs in reaching. The goal is full literacy in English—the ability to use the English language as a vehicle for thinking, for problem solving, and for communicating—in other words, the ability to use English in a way that makes possible full and productive participation in our society.

Sixth, vocabulary instruction was the focus of many suggestions in this chapter. Vocabulary is absolutely crucial to English learners. Besides the instructional suggestions discussed in this chapter, consider the many techniques for vocabulary instruction we described in Chapter 10. Additionally, you may want to consider the fuller discussion of vocabulary instruction one of us presents in *The Vocabulary Book* (Graves, 2016) or in a summary and updating of that book (Graves, 2022) that is readily available online.

Finally, the task of assisting English learners in reaching the level of English literacy sufficient for success in the 21st century is clearly a challenging one. Yet it is a task we can and must accomplish.

Extending Learning

1. Visit a school with English learners, and volunteer to work with some students whose first language is not English. If you cannot find such a school, many social service agencies, religious organizations, and other nonprofit groups have programs that target reading for English learners. Volunteering to work in these settings, or even simply observing, will allow you to see how many of the principles in this chapter play out in real life.
2. Study the instructional recommendations made throughout this chapter. There are over 40 of them, many more than you can implement at one time. Identify half a dozen or so that you see as particularly useful and as steps that you definitely could take in your present or future classroom. Explain in writing why you selected each of these recommendations and in what order you are likely to implement them.

Children's Literature

Alonso, Nathalie. (2024). *Call Me Roberto! Roberto Clemente Goes to Bat for Latinos*. Astra/Calkins Creek. Inspirational story about Major League Baseball great Roberto Clemente and how he endured racism and discrimination and became one of the greatest players of all times. 40 pages.

Anta, Julio. (2025). *Santiago! A Hillside Valley Graphic Novel*. Random House Graphic. When 12-year-old Santiago's family sends him to Hillside Valley, a Latinx enclave in the Hudson Valley, to visit his Spanish-speaking grandmother in order to learn Spanish, he encounters many challenges with his

new bilingual friends. First book in the Hillside Valley series. 224 pages.

Booth, Leslie Barnard. (2024). *One Day This Tree Will Fall*. Margaret K McElderry Books. Lyrical picture book about how a tree's wounds and decay bring new life to the forest ecosystem. 40 pages.

Ciardi, J. (1975). "The Shark." In *Fast and Slow: Poems by John Ciardi*. Houghton Mifflin. This poem provides a colorful and engaging description of a shark. 1 page.

Desnitskaya, Anna. (2024). *A Star Shines Through*. Eerdmans Books for Young Readers. Poignant story of a displaced family making a home in the aftermath of war. 40 pages.

Entrada, Erin. (2024). *The First State of Being*. Greenwillow Books. This 2025 Newbery Award Winning Book is a science fiction tale of twelve-year-old Michael Rosario who meets a mysterious boy from the future and his life is changed forever. 272 pages.

Graves, B. (1997). *The Whooping Crane*. Perfection Learning. While on an airplane ride from Texas to Maryland, a young girl sits next to a biologist transporting a whooping crane chick to the Patuxent *Wildlife Research Center* and learns about this endangered species. 64 pages.

O'Dell, S. (2010). *Island of the Blue Dolphins*. Clarion. By using her wits and the resources at hand, a young Indian girl survives alone on an island for several years. Newbery Medal winner. Audio and videotapes available. Spanish text also available. 154 pages.

Patrick, J. L. S. (2000). *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth*. (2000). Fifth Avenue Editions. The story of Jackie Mitchel, a 17-year-old girl and member of a minor league team, who struck out the Yankees' Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig in the same game. 48 pages.

Rappaport, Doreen (2023). *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*. Little, Brown Books for Young Readers. An engaging picture book biography about the first Latina in space and director of the Johnson Space Center, astronaut Ellen Ochoa. 48 pages.

Rosenblatt, L. (1998). *Monarch Magic!* Williamson Publishing Co. Simple text and colorful photographs depict the life cycle of a monarch butterfly, from egg to caterpillar to chrysalis to butterfly. Includes 40 butterfly activities. 96 pages.

Shea, P. D. (1995). *The Whispering Cloth: A Refugee's Story*. Boyds Mills Press. A young Hmong girl in a Thai refugee camp creates a pándau (embroidered tapestry) that tells her own story. Includes glossary. Illustrated by A. Riggio, with reproductions of pándau by Y. Yang. 32 pages.

Wondery. (2025). *How to Survive Against the Odds: Tales and Tips for Animal Attacks and Natural Disasters*. William Morrow. Fifteen real life-or-death scenarios and how to survive them. 304 pages.

Soto, G. (1997). *The Skirt*. Yearling. When Miata leaves the skirt she is to wear for the folklorico dance performance on the school bus, she must use all her wits to get it back before her parents find out. Illustrated by Eric Velasquez. Audio CD available. 74 pages.

Appendix

Table of Contents

Appendix A: Assessment Tools

- Emergent Reading Inventory
- Answer Key for the Emergent Reading Inventory
- Tile Test
- Tile Test: Word Files
- Tile Test Recording Sheet
- Motivation for Reading Questionnaire
- Scoring for the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)
- Reading Interest Survey
- Reading Progress Report

Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials

- Selecting Words for Instructional Text: The SWIT Procedure
- Semantic Mapping
- Vocabulary Lesson: Using Context Clues to Infer the Meaning of Unknown Words
- Vocabulary Lesson: Using Prefixes to Unlock the Meaning of Unknown Words
- Comprehension Materials
- Role Sheets for Literature Circles
  - Vocabulary Monitor
  - Visualizer
  - Discussion Director
  - Critic
  - Predictor
  - Summarizer
  - Character Cartographer
- Comprehension Lesson: Teaching Students the Strategy of Making Inferences
- Comprehension Lesson: Inferring Character's Feeling, Traits, and Motives
- Comprehension Lesson: A Description of Questioning the Author (QtA)
- Scaffolded Reading Experiences for English Learners

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix C: Test Taking Strategies

- Reading Comprehension and Test-Taking
- Integrating Test-Taking into Classroom Instruction
- Lesson 1: What Do Students Know About Taking a Standardized Test
- Lesson 2: How to Read the Passages: Noticing and Noting
- Lesson 3: Thinking Through Mulitple-Choice Questions
- Lesson 4: Thinking About Constructed-Response Test Items
- Lesson 5: Developing Stamina, Persistence, and Thoroughness
- Concluding Thoughts

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix A: Assessment Tools

Emergent Reading Inventory

Name_____
Date_____

Alphabet Knowledge	**Letter Sound Association**
____/26 Upper-case letter recognition ____/26 Lower-case letter recognition ____/26 Written production of letters **Score ____ /78**	____/21 Consonant sounds **Score ____ /21**
Phonemic Awareness	**Concept of Word**
____/10 Rhyme Detection ____/12 Blending ____/12 Segmenting **Score ____ /34**	____/8 One-to-One correspondence ____/5 Counting words on a page **Score ____ /13**
Spelling Inventory	**Word Recognition**
____/5 Initial consonants ____/5 Final consonants ____/5 Vowel inclusion ____/5 Correct short vowel **Score ____ /20**	____/10 Decodable words ____/10 Sight words _____ **Score** ____/ **20**
Total Weighted Benchmark Score _____ /186	

Alphabet Knowledge

Have the children name the upper- and lower-case letters in random order using the alphabet cards. Mark all errors below and record substitutions.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

____/26

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

____/26

Have the student reproduce the alphabet as you dictate each letter in random order. The student can write either the upper- or lower-case form of the letter. Call the letters of the alphabet out in this order:

E H F C S Q J P W A I N B Z G K R V T L X D M O U Y

____/26

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Concept of Word

Using *Animal Homes* or *Animal Babies* or other short emergent literacy book.

1. Have the student look at the pictures and tell you about them.
2. Read the book to the student, pointing to each word as you read it.
3. Read the book chorally with the student, pointing to each word as you read it.
4. Have the student read the book independently, pointing to each word as it is read.

Score one point for each page that the student accurately demonstrates one to one correspondence.

____/8

Ask the student how many words are on the first page. If the student answers the correct number, they score five points. If incorrect, they score 0 points.

____/5

Spelling Inventory

Administer the first ten words of Neva Viise's "form B" word list. Ask students to number a lined piece of paper to 9 and then write each word as you say it out loud.

1. lap
2. fit
3. cop
4. bag
5. hen

Score one point for each word with the correct initial consonant.

____/5

5. rap
6. fun
7. mad
8. wig
9. hot

Score one point for each word with the correct final consonant.

____/5

Count the number of words in both lists which include any vowel (Write in student response.)

____/5

Count the number of words in both lists which include a correct short vowel in the correct vowel position (Write in student response.)

____/5

Word Recognition

Make two sets of word cards, for decodable words and sight as listed. Ask students to read each word to you. Mark each of the following words read correctly with a check mark. Score one point for each correct response.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

DECODABLE	SIGHT
____sad	____look
____ran	____little
____set	____have
____red	____the
____cut	____do
____sun	____you
____pig	____see
____fit	____and
____hot	____come
____top	____my
____/10	____/10

Phonemic Awareness

Rhyme Detection

"Rhymes are words that sound the same at the end. *Bat* rhymes with *cat*; *man* rhymes with *can*. Does *ball* rhyme with *tall*? Yes, *ball* rhymes with *tall*. Not all words rhyme. Does *book* rhyme with *cup*? No, *book* and *cup* do not rhyme because *book* ends with *ook* and *cup* ends with *up*. Does *like* rhyme with *lost*? No, *like* and *lost* do not rhyme because *like* ends with *ike* and *lost* ends with *ost*. Does *all* rhyme with *tall*? Yes! Now I am going to say some words, and I want you to tell me if they rhyme."

One point is awarded for pair judged correctly. Make a ✓ mark if the response is correct. Leave it blank if the answer is incorrect.

day - play	
me - he	
moon - jump	
go - no	
bag - bat	

page - paint	
cold - sold	
not - got	
went - when	
make - rake	

Total correct ____ / 10

Blending

"I'm going to say some words in a secret code, spreading out the word until the sounds come out one at a time. I will be stretching the word. Guess what word I'm saying. For example, if I say *h-a-m*. You say *ham*. Let's try one more. If I say *p-i-g* what would you say? That's right *pig*."

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

One point is awarded for each word pronounced correctly. Make a ✓ mark if the given response is correct. Leave it blank if answer is incorrect.

h - e	
g - o	
t - e - n	
b - a - g	
d - ay	
d -i - d	

sh - i - p	
ch - i - n	
wh - e - n	
s- t - o - p	
t - e - n - t	
f - a - s -t	

Total Correct _____ / 12

Phoneme Segmentation

Directions: Today we're going to play a word game. I'm going to say a word and I want you to break the word apart. You are going to tell me each sound of the word in order. For example, if I say **cat,** you should say /c/ /a/ /t/. Let's try a few together.

Practice items: (assist in segmenting, if necessary) **ride (3) go (2) man (3)**

Test items: (Make a √ mark if the word is fully and correctly segmented. Incorrect responses are recorded on the blank line following the item.) Please note if the child is able to just segment the initial letter. This is important information but does not count in the scoring (Yopp-Singer, 2003).

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Answer Key for the Emergent Reading Inventory

Practice Items: ride (3) go (2) man (3)

1. **dog** (3) _____
2. **keep** (3) _____
3. **fine** (3) _____
4. **no** (2) _____
5. **she** (2) _____
6. **wave** (3) _____
7. **lay** (2) _____
8. **race** (3) _____
9. **zoo** (2) _____
10. **top** (3) _____
11. **job** (3) _____
12. **in** (2) _____

____ / 12

Letter-Sound Associations

Using consonants from the lower-case letter deck, ask the student to say the sound that the letter says (one point for each correct response).

b c d f g h j k l m n p q r s t v w x y z (a e i o u)
(no points for short vowels)

____/21

Written Production of Letters

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____

Word Feature Spelling Inventory

Copy the student's spelling of the nine words in the spelling inventory. Review the following information at

https://www.pearsonhighered.com/assets/samplechapter/0/1/3/2/013223968X.pdfŁ to determine the student's developmental spelling level.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Tile Test

Directions

Grade Level: Kindergarten–Second Grade

The Tile Test is designed to quickly assess students' understanding of letters, sounds, words, and sentences. Metalinguistic questions encourage students to talk about the strategies they use when decoding and spelling words.

General Procedures

1. Start with a collection of letter tiles, not just one card. (Print off and make the tiles from p. 559.)
2. Allow sufficient time for each response.
3. Provide general positive feedback to encourage students; do not correct mistakes.
4. Write the students' responses to each item:
   a. Correct response is marked + or ✓.
   b. Incorrect responses will be recorded in full.
   c. No response will be recorded as DK (doesn't know).
   d. Self-correction is marked SC and counted as correct.
   e. Segmented words read without blending sounds will be marked with slashes between sounds (e.g., /t/a/p/).
6. Administer all components.
7. Stop rule: If a student is unable to respond to any word of the first four items, use teacher judgment to discontinue this segment of the test and move to the next. If a student is unsuccessful in reading the word tiles at all, do not proceed to sentence reading.

Letters and Sounds

Begin with a collection of letter tiles [m, a, p, i, f, s, t, d, n].

1. Have students point to the letter you name.
2. Ask students to tell you the *name* and *sound* of each letter.

Words

Add the following letters to the collection of letter tiles [h, e, w, c, k, v, u, l, s, o, d, d, b, r, p, g].

1. Manipulate individual letters to build the words in the directions on the recording sheet. The teacher builds, and the student reads. Follow up with the Metalinguistic (ML) and articulation questions.
2. Ask the student to use the letter tiles to build the words you read. Follow up with Metalinguistic (ML) and Articulation questions. Record student responses. Observe and record strategy use (e.g., orally articulating sounds) and behaviors.
3. Use the word tiles provided to assess word reading. Leave word tiles on the table for use in the next section.
4. In the Word section of the test it is useful to make up the following flash cards: *I, is, cat, sat, run, me, at, big, fat, the, look, map, sit, a, dog, can, on.*

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Metalinguistic (ML) and Articulation Questions

Following the reading of "pat" and "sat" and the building of "tan" and "tad," ask how the student knew to make the change(s) they made. After the successful reading or building of the most difficult word, ask the student what their mouth did to say the first sound of the word. Then ask how they knew to read/build the word that way. Record student responses. Provide and document probing questions as necessary (e.g., "What were you looking at?" "I noticed your mouth moving; how did that help you?"). Score the ML questions using the Tile Test Metalinguistic Rubric.

Sentences

Use the collection of tiles to create sentences. Record student responses.

1. Using the word tiles, build each sentence and have the student read.
2. Ask the student to use the word tiles to build sentences you read. Then ask the student to read the sentence they built. Record student responses.
3. Hand the student the sentence on a separate sheet and have the student read it. Record student responses.

Metalinguistic Rubric

0	No response; "I don't know."
1	"I know it;" "My mom taught me;" "I'm smart."
2	Recognition of letters: "I looked at the letters."
3	Recognition of sounds: "I sound it out;" "I listen to the sounds."
4	Partial linking of sounds to letters: "It starts with a *P* /p/, then *a* /a/." Partial analogy: "Pat is like cat."
5	Explains spelling of each sound. Full analogy: "Pat is like cat, but it starts with a /p/."
6	Explains how sounds are articulated: "It starts with /p/. My lips are together and the air pops out; my tongue is resting in the middle of my mouth. … "

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Tile Test: Word Tiles

Print off the page called Tile Test: Word Tiles. Cut out and laminate each tile to make flash cards.

Copy this page. Cut out and laminate each tile for use in word and sentence reading segments.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Tile Test: Recording Sheet

Student _____ Teacher _____ School _____ Date _____

Letter Identification

Lay out letter tiles [m, a, p, i, f, s, t, d, n].

"Here are some letters. I'll say the name of a letter and ask you to point to the letter. Point to the card that has the letter *m*." *(Record, continue procedure.)*

"Now, I'll point to a card and you'll tell me two things about the letter. First, the *name* of the letter, and second, the *sound* that it makes." *(Record.)*

	Identification	Name	Sound		Identification	Name	Sound
m				s			
a				t			
p				d			
i				n			
f							

Words

Add these letter tiles to the previous tiles: [b, c, d, d, e, h, k, l, o, r, r, s, u, v, w].

"Now let's put some letters together to make words. Some of the words are real words and some are pretend words. I'll go first and make a word, and then I'll ask you to read it for me." (*Manipulate only necessary letters, stop after sat and ask the first ML and articulation questions.*)

↓pat	_____	vute	_____
*sat	_____	flass	_____
sam	_____	lodded	_____
hin	_____	wembick	_____

***ML:** "I noticed that you said 'sat' *(or repeat what the student said if different)*. How did you know to change it that way from 'pat' *(or repeat what the student said)*?"_____

_____

_____

Articulation: "Tell me what your mouth did to say the first sound in _____ *(repeat the most difficult word the student read correctly)*." *(Record verbal responses and behaviors.)*

ML: "How did you know to say _____ *(use the most difficult word decoded correctly)* that way?"

_____

_____

"Now, I'll say a word, and you make it for me." *(As you dictate, clearly articulate by "stretching" each sound. Example: tan = /t/ /ă/ /n/. Stop after tad and ask the first ML and articulation questions.)* You will be reading down the first list and then down the second list.

↓tan	_____	plat	_____
*tad	_____	mape	_____
tap	_____	pridder	_____
leb	_____	radmin	_____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

***ML:** "How did you know to change [the 'n' to a 'd']?" *(Use the letter changes the student has made.)*

Articulation: "Tell me what my mouth did to help you spell _____ *(repeat the most difficult word they spelled correctly)."* *(Record verbal responses and behaviors.)*

ML: "How did you know to spell _____ *(use the most difficult word spelled correctly)* that way?"

Words

Lay out the collection of flash cards you have made.

"I'll show you some words, and you read each one." *(Record, and if incorrect, say the right word.)*

I	_____	me	_____	the	_____	a	_____
is	_____	at	_____	look	_____	dog	_____
cat	_____	big	_____	map	_____	can	_____
sat	_____	fat	_____	sit	_____	on	_____
run	_____						

Sentences

"I'll make a sentence with some words, and you read the sentence for me."

I can run. _____

Look at me. _____

I sat on the cat. _____

The map is big. _____

Sit the dog on the fat cat.

"Now I'll say a sentence, and you can make it for me." *(Have the student read the sentence after building it. Record sentence made and the student's read of it.)*

I can sit. _____

The dog is fat. _____

Look at the map. _____

A dog can look at me. _____

The big cat sat on the dog. _____

"Now I want you to read one sentence for me." *(Give the student the sheet with the sentence printed on it. Record the student's reading.)*

General Observations:

_____

_____

_____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

	A lot like me	A little like me	A little different from me	A lot different from me
1. I read because books and stories are often fascinating.	4	3	2	1
2. I read in order to get better grades in school.	4	3	2	1
3. I read because I know that my friends also read a lot.	4	3	2	1
4. I read because it is important to me to understand things better than other students.	4	3	2	1
5. I read when I am angry and need to calm down.	4	3	2	1
6. I read in order to avoid being bored.	4	3	2	1
7. I read because sometimes I can forget everything around me.	4	3	2	1
8. I read in order to cheer me up when I am in a bad mood.	4	3	2	1
9. I read if there is nothing better to do.	4	3	2	1
10. I read because it's exciting to see what happens to the main characters in a story.	4	3	2	1
11. I read because it helps me when I am angry.	4	3	2	1
12. I read because that is how I can learn something new.	4	3	2	1
13. I read because it is important to me to be among the best students.	4	3	2	1
14. I read because I want to perform better than others in my class.	4	3	2	1
15. I read because that is how I can learn more about interesting things.	4	3	2	1
16. I read because it helps me do better in school.	4	3	2	1
17. I read when there is nothing interesting on television or my tablet.	4	3	2	1
18. I read because it is fun.	4	3	2	1
19. I read because it helps me do well in some subjects.	4	3	2	1
20. I read because I like it when other people think I am a good reader.	4	3	2	1
21. I read because my parents think that it is important that I read a lot.	4	3	2	1
22. If the teacher discusses something interesting I might read more about it.	4	3	2	1
23. I read because it is important to me to always be the best at reading.	4	3	2	1
24. I read because other people say it is good for me to read a lot.	4	3	2	1

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Survey of Reading Amount

	Almost every day	Once a week	Once a month	Never or almost never
How often do you read books all by yourself in your spare time?	4	3	2	1
How often do you read books all by yourself at bedtime?	4	3	2	1
How often do you read books by yourself during school vacations?	4	3	2	1

Survey of Reading Interest

My favorite book is _____

_____

My favorite author is _____

_____

My favorite genre is _____

_____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Scoring the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)

Score the MRQ by computing the mean or average score for each of the seven scales listed below. For example, determine the students average score for items that assess curiosity (1, 12, 15, 22). A high score is a 3 or 4 and low score is a 2 or 1. You can also compute the average scores for all of the items that assess intrinsic motivation and the those that assess extrinsic motivation. Compare the means for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and you will have some ideas of what motivates each student to read.*

Intrinsic Factors and Items

- Curiosity, 1, 12, 15, 22
- Involvement, 7, 10, 18
- Relief from boredom, 6, 9, 17
- Emotional regulation, 5, 8, 11

Extrinsic Factors and Items

- Grades, 2. 16. 19
- Competition, 4, 13, 14, 23
- Social recognition, 3, 20, 21, 24

***Scoring Key:**

$10 = 5, 8 - 9 = 4, 6 - 7 = 3, 4 - 5 = 2, 2 - 3 = 1, 0 - 1 = 0$

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Reading Interest Inventory

Name _____

Your Favorite Movies	Your Favorite TV Shows
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

List Three Things You Like to Do After School or on Weekends
1.
2.
3.

Circle a Number for Each Kind of Reading				
	Don't Like It	It is Ok	Like it	Love It
Adventure/Action	1	2	3	4
Fantasy	1	2	3	4
Mystery	1	2	3	4
Science Fiction	1	2	3	4
Historical Fiction	1	2	3	4
Realistic Fiction	1	2	3	4
Graphic Novels	1	2	3	4
How to Books	1	2	3	4
Science	1	2	3	4
History	1	2	3	4
Sports	1	2	3	4
Famous People	1	2	3	4

List Three Books You Have Read (or listened to) and Liked
1.
2.
3.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Reading Progress Record

Student _____ **Grade** _____ **Marking Period** _____

Reading Goals

Foundational Skills (Decoding / Fluency)

Vocabulary

Comprehension

Motivation

Assessments and Evaluations

	Test Score	Observations	Written Work	Conclusions
Decoding/Fluency				
Vocabulary				
Comprehension				
Motivation/Interests				

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Next Steps
Decoding/Fluency
Vocabulary
Comprehension
Motivation/Interests

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials

In this appendix, we have included some lesson plans and guidance for preparing reading lessons. Each procedure or lesson plan is tied to a chapter, and you can learn more about the types of instruction illustrated in each lesson plan by consulting the appropriate chapter in the book.

The first procedure that follows provides guidance on selecting and teaching individual words. We introduced the SWIT concept in Chapter 10, and here we present a more elaborated version of it. SWIT helps you decide which words to teach and how to teach them. Chapter 10 then provides the procedures for teaching these words. The lesson that follows the SWIT procedures in this appendix describes how to use semantic mapping to introduce new words. Semantic mapping is an alternative to the lessons for teaching new words we included in Chapter 10.

The first lesson plan provides a detailed procedure for teaching students to infer the meanings of unfamiliar words they encounter while reading. Teaching students to use context clues is both very important and time-consuming, requiring a good deal of effort on your part and on the part of your students. More information on teaching context clues can be found in Chapter 10, Vocabulary Development.

The second lesson plan provides a detailed procedure for teaching students to unlock the meanings of unknown words using their knowledge of prefixes and it, too, requires in-depth instruction. A list of the most frequent prefixes, those most worthy of instruction, is included in Chapter 8, Word Recognition.

The third lesson plan is a Scaffolded Reading Experience (SRE) for teaching Kate DiCamillo's award-winning novel *Because of Winn-Dixie.* In addition to helping students learn strategies such as using context and prefixes, it is important to help students read, understand, learn from, and enjoy the books they read for your class. SREs are research-based, powerful, and flexible ways to do that. More information on SREs can be found in Chapter 11, in the section Four Frameworks for Scaffolding Students' Reading.

The fourth lesson plan outlines the first three days of instruction on making inferences, designed for third- through fifth-graders. Comprehension is, of course, the ultimate goal of reading, and one of the most vital things readers do is infer the knowledge and connections that authors imply. More information on comprehension strategies and how to teach them can be found in Chapter 11, Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text.

The fifth lesson plan provides a detailed description of Questioning the Author (QtA), a comprehension instruction developed by Isabel Beck and Margaret McKeown. QtA is a whole-group questioning and discussion strategy designed to help students clarify misunderstandings and construct meaningful understanding of what they read. It is one of several procedures for helping students build rich and lasting understanding of important topics, which we discuss in Chapter 11, Teaching Reading Comprehension Focusing on Narrative Text. While we introduced QtA in the narrative chapter, it can be used equally successfully with informational text.

At the end of the appendix, we include several lessons that apply the principles of the Scaffolded Reading Experience to English learners. These lessons extend what we

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

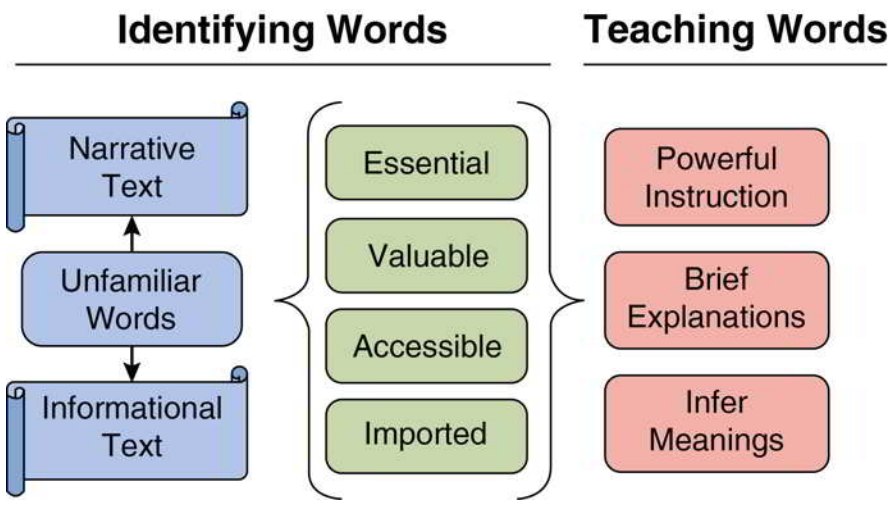
presented in Chapter 14. In one lesson, we share details of teaching an informational text about earthquakes, and the other lessons show how to scaffold the reading of a narrative story.

Selecting Words for Instructional Text: The SWIT Procedure

Although there are some situations in which you may teach words from a specific list, particularly with younger children or ELs, for the most part, you are likely to be selecting words to teach from the selections students are reading. Here, we discuss an approach called Selecting Words from Instructional Text or SWIT (Graves et al., 2014). Two beliefs underlie this approach. One is that the principal goal in teaching the vocabulary from a selection of students is to support their comprehension of the selection and, particularly with informational text, to support their understanding of a particular subject matter. The other underlying belief is that, while the differences between selecting vocabulary from narrative texts and informational text are relatively small, they are important to keep in mind, because, the use of informational texts has become more common in many classrooms.

In describing the SWIT approach, we will first discuss some types of words to teach, next consider how many words to teach at one time, then briefly describe four levels or intensities of instruction, and finally give examples of the SWIT procedure with upper elementary students reading a narrative text, primary grade students reading an informational text, and high school students reading an informational text. Key processes of the SWIT approach are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Key Processes of the SWIT Approach



SOURCES: Used with permission of Graves et al. (2014). Words, words, everywhere, but which ones do we teach? The Reading Teacher, 67 (5), 333–346.

Types of Words to Teach

There are four types of words to teach, each of which is described here.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

ESSENTIAL WORDS

Essential words are *crucial for understanding the text students read*. In narrative texts, these words often help readers understand the central story elements, characters, and their actions. Essential words in narratives often appear only once or a few times in a given text. In Andrew Clements' *Frindle*, for example, typically read in this upper-elementary-grades book, essential words might include *troublemaker, dictionary,* and *launch*. Essential words in informational texts are necessary for understanding the text's content and key concepts in the content area it represents. These words are likely to be conceptually complex and are often repeated several times in the text because the concepts they represent are discussed repeatedly. In Jay Winik's *April 1865,* for example, which might be read in a history class, essential words include *confederacy, abolition,* and *reunification*. Without understanding the meanings of essential words, students' comprehension and learning from text will be significantly impaired.

WIDELY USEFUL WORDS

These words have broad utility for students' reading and writing and thus matter beyond the selection students are currently reading. Some of the words listed as Essential, for example, *dictator* and *totalitarianism*, would be considered Widely Useful if they were not essential to understanding the selection students were reading. Widely Useful words are identified not only in relation to the text itself and their prevalence outside the text but also in relation to the students' vocabulary sophistication. For example, Widely Useful words from a text for tenth-grade students would be quite sophisticated, such as *inhospitable* and *perplexing*. Widely Useful words from a text for sixth-grade students would likely include some fairly complex words used by advanced language users, such as *discord* and *inevitable*. And Widely Useful words from a text for second-grade students would include words not likely to be known by many second-graders, but they would be of higher frequency than the Widely Useful words identified for sixth-graders, such as *accommodate* and *reconcile*.

MORE COMMON WORDS

These are higher-frequency words that are unlikely to be understood by students with limited vocabulary. More Common Words must be taught to students whose vocabularies lag significantly behind their age- or grade-level peers because of limited exposure to sophisticated language, fewer world experiences, limited prior knowledge, or because they are learning English as a second language. These students need to acquire More Common Words to accelerate their vocabulary growth. These words are not the most common in our language—for example, they are less common than the 220 Dolch Sight Words—but developing language learners need to learn them to understand most written texts. Examples for ELs or other students who have mastered basic words but still have limited vocabularies might include words like *consider* and *recent*.

IMPORTED WORDS

These are words that enhance a reader's understanding, appreciation, or learning from a text but are not included in the text itself. For narrative texts, imported words may capture key thematic elements (e.g., *prejudice*) or address important character traits (e.g., *gullible*); for informational texts, they may connect to or enhance key concepts presented in the text (e.g., *democracy, environmentalism*). Carefully selected Imported Words will help students analyze and extend what they learn from the text.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves.
Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

How Many Words to Teach

Deciding how many words to teach is often challenging because many selections contain more words than you have time to teach. Moreover, there is a limit to how many words you can teach, or how many students can learn. Generally, when teaching something the length of a short story or chapter, most teachers suggest teaching no more than ten words. Most formal instructional studies we are aware of taught about ten words per unit, which typically lasted about a week. Still, because students need to learn about 3,000 words per year, teach as many as is reasonable. You can increase the number of words students learn by teaching words across all content areas, not just in reading and language arts; by suggesting words or sets of words students can learn on their own; by teaching word-learning strategies thoroughly and repeatedly encouraging students to use them; by immersing students in rich and varied language experiences; and by fostering students' word consciousness.

Types or Intensities of Vocabulary Instruction

Because there are typically more words to teach than time to teach them, vocabulary instruction should be the least intensive, most efficient form necessary to provide students with the knowledge they need to understand word meanings and comprehend the texts containing those words. Here are four types of vocabulary instruction: (a) Providing Rich Instruction on specific words whose meanings are complex and essential to comprehending the text, (b) Providing Introductory Instruction for words that have clear-cut definitions or are not essential to comprehending the text, (c) Giving students glossaries for words that you do not directly teach, and (d) Suggesting words for students to learn independently, perhaps using context, word parts, or dictionary skills.

In summary, the process of selecting which words to teach and how many, as well as the nature of instruction, involves considerable judgment and decision making on the part of teachers. We illustrate this decision-making process and further describe the SWIT approach in the following section. Graves, et al. (2014) provides examples of SWIT applied to a primary-grade informational text and a secondary-school informational text.

Using SWIT with an Upper Elementary-Grade Narrative Text

Jacquelyn, a fourth-grade teacher, has her students read a selection each week from their literature anthology and participate in small discussion groups. This week, the common selection is an excerpt from the classic Newbery Medal-winning *Island of the Blue Dolphins* (O'Dell, 1960). This short novel tells the story of Karana, a young Indian girl who was left alone on a beautiful but isolated island off the coast of California for 18 years. Over that period, Karana survived, showed great courage and self-reliance, and found a measure of happiness in her solitary life. In the excerpt the class will read, Karana attempts to paddle to the mainland but must turn back when her canoe begins to leak. Jacquelyn uses the SWIT process to identify and teach words from this *Island* excerpt.

1. **Identify Unfamiliar Words:** Jacquelyn reads the selection carefully, underlining those words she believes are likely to be unfamiliar to many of her students. She identifies 15 words as potentially unfamiliar: *advice, ancestors, befall, calm, faint, fortune, headland, kelp, lessened, omen, pause, pursued, sandspit, serpent, skirted.* She then creates a chart like the one shown in Figure 2, listing these words in column 1.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 2 Categorizing Types of Words and Determining Types of Instruction

	Type of Word			Type of Instruction				
	Essential	**Widely Useful**	**More Common**	**Powerful**	**Introductory**	**Provide Glossary**	**Handout List**	**Ignore**
1. advice	✔			●				
2. ancestors	✔			●				
3. befall		✔			●			
4. calm			✔		●			
5. faint		✔			●			
6. fortune	✔				●			
7. headland							●	
8. kelp							●	
9. lessened							●	
10. omen	✔			●				
11. pause			✔		●			
12. pursued	✔				●			
13. sandspit							●	
14. serpent							●	
15. skirted							●	
Imported Word	determination							

2. **Identify the Four Types of Words to Teach:** Jacquelyn returns to the chapter and determines which of the 15 words are Essential, Widely Useful, or More Common, and decides whether to add any Imported words. In doing so, she tries to think like the fourth-graders in her classroom—who have varying levels of vocabulary, reading ability, linguistic facility, and prior knowledge—to identify the words that will best facilitate their comprehension of the reading selection and general vocabulary development.

ESSENTIAL WORDS

Jacquelyn first focuses on words whose meanings students need to understand the selection. She considers central narrative elements and O'Dell's portrayal of Karana. For example, she determines that the words *advice* and *ancestors,* which appear in the following passage, are necessary for students to understand Karana's cultural heritage and motivation to leave the island.

> I remembered how Kimki, before she had gone, had asked the *advice* of her *ancestors* who had lived many ages in the past, who had come to the island from that country, and likewise the *advice* of Zuma, the medicine man who held power over the wind and the seas [italics added]. (pp. 57–58)

In contrast, Jacquelyn decides that students' comprehension of the chapter would not be impaired if they did not know the word *serpent*, which O'Dell uses simply to name a constellation Karana saw. After reviewing the excerpt, Jacquelyn decides that the following five words are Essential: *advice*, *ancestors*, *fortune*, *omen*, *pursued.* Jacquelyn places checks (✓) in the Essential words column of her chart.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

WIDELY USEFUL WORDS

Jacquelyn reviews the chart, looking for unfamiliar words that, although not essential for comprehending the selection, are Widely Useful for students to know long-term reading and writing development. Jacquelyn decides that two words are widely useful (*befall* and *faint*) and places checks in the widely useful column of the chart.

MORE COMMON WORDS

Jacquelyn next determines which of the remaining words are More Common words that are unlikely to be understood by her students, who have limited vocabularies, particularly the English learners. She determines that two words fall into this category (*pause* and *calm*) and places checks in the More Common column of the chart.

IMPORTED WORDS

Jacquelyn recognizes that the theme of the *Island* excerpt centers on Karana's determination to overcome the obstacles she faced as she attempted to paddle from the island to the mainland. Therefore, she decides to teach *determination*, which she writes in the Imported row at the bottom of her SWIT chart.

3. **Determine the Optimal Type of Instruction:** Having chosen which words to teach, Jacqueline next determines which of the four forms of instruction is best suited for each word. She does this by considering (a) how abstract or concrete each word is; (b) which of the four types of words it is, making sure that Essential Words are taught in a way that ensures students learn them well; and (c) whether her students can determine the words' meanings independently.

   Applying these criteria, Jacquelyn determines that four words—the Essential Words *advice, ancestors,* and *omen* from the selection, and the Imported word *determination*—will require Powerful Instruction, and that six words—*befall, calm, faint, fortune, pause,* and *pursued*—can be taught using Introductory Instruction. She places a • in the appropriate Type of Instruction column in the table. In total, she will directly teach ten words. This leaves six words she identified as unfamiliar—*headland, kelp, lessened, sandspit, serpent,* and *skirted*. She decides that her fourth-graders can learn these words independently and places a • in the Handout List column on her chart. Her completed list is shown in Figure 2.

IMPLEMENT VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

At this point, Jacqueline provides Rich Instruction for the four words she has identified as needing it and Introductory Instruction for the six words she has decided can be taught using a less time-consuming approach. Several possibilities for each of these types of instruction are described in detail in Chapter 5. She also hands out the list of the remaining six unfamiliar words, telling students to use their context, word-part, and dictionary skills, or each other, to be sure they know the words' meanings.

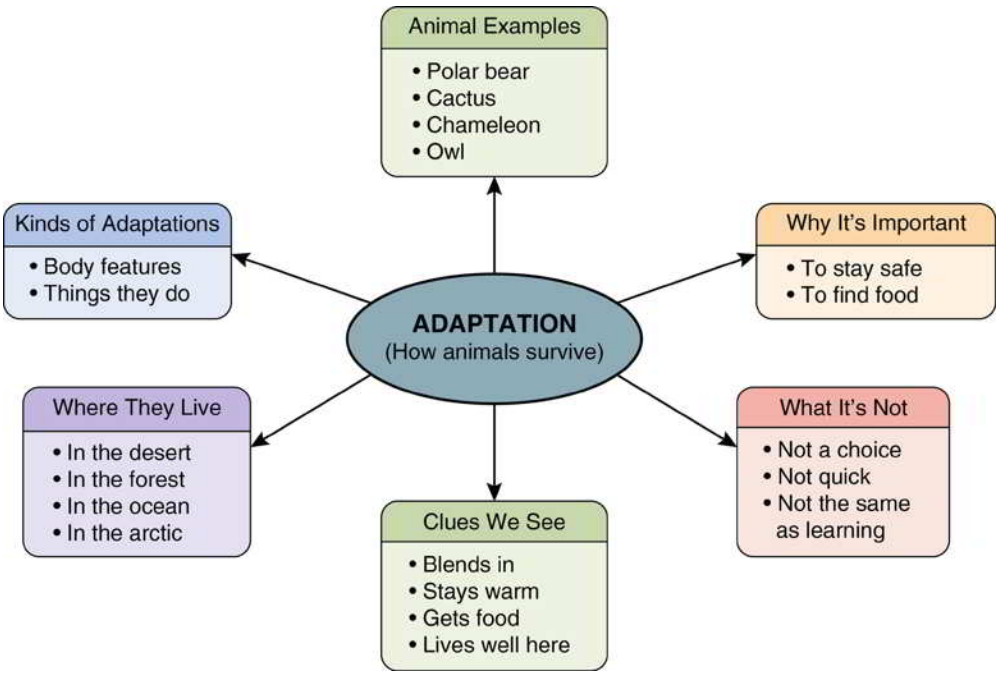
In addition to initially teaching these words, Jacqueline plans a variety of review activities. It is essential that students repeatedly see, use, and review all new words.

Semantic Mapping

Semantic mapping (Heimlich & Pittelman, 1986; Johnson & Pearson, 1984) is a widely used and effective method for teaching new concepts—if the concepts are not too difficult and students already have at least some information about them. It is also useful in pre-teaching unknown words to improve students' comprehension of a selection. It works particularly well because focus is not only on the word being taught but also on related words and on the part the word plays in the selection.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 3 Clue Web: An Example for the Word *Adaptation*



Semantic mapping uses a graphic organizer that resembles a spider web. Lines connect a central concept to a variety of related ideas and events. Figure 3 shows a semantic map of the word *"adaptation."* You and your students might create a map such as this before or after reading a science chapter on ecosystems. You might start with a simple semantic map before students read and then expand it after reading.

Purpose

- To enrich and clarify students' existing knowledge of a concept by having them identify categories of ideas and events related to that concept.

Procedure

- Put a word representing a central concept, such as *adaptation,* on the whiteboard.
- Have students form groups, brainstorming as many words as they can think of related to the central concept.
- Write students' words on the whiteboard, grouped in broad categories.
- Have students name the categories and perhaps suggest additional ones.
- Discuss with students the central concept, the other words, the categories, and their interrelationships.

Vocabulary Lesson: Using Context Clues to Infer the Meanings of Unknown Words

Using context clues to infer the meanings of unknown words is the first word-learning strategy to consider because it is the most important. Most words are learned

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 4 Overview of a Unit on Context Clues

DAY 1 Introduction and motivation to using context to infer meaning using a video	**DAY 2** Introduction to using context clues to infer word meanings and to the four-step strategy	**DAY 3** Detailed instruction in the first two steps of the strategy: Play and Question and Slow Advance	**DAY 4** Detailed instruction in the second two steps of the strategy: Stop and Rewind and Play and Question	**DAY 5** Game in which students earn points for using the four-step strategy to infer word meanings
DAY 6 Review using context clues and the four-step strategy.	**DAY 7** Guided practice—and further instruction if necessary—in using the four-step process with teacher provided narrative texts	**DAY 8** Guided practice—and further instruction if necessary—in using the four-step process with teacher provided expository texts	**DAY 9** Guided practice—and further instruction if necessary—in using the four-step process with authentic texts currently being used in the class	**DAY 10** Review of using context clues and the four-step strategy Student–teacher planning on strategically using and learning more about context clues

from context, and even a small increase in students' proficiency in learning from context can greatly increase the number of words they learn. Therefore, it is vital that we provide students with rich, and effective instruction on using context clues. Providing such instruction requires a good deal of time and effort on the part of both teachers and students. The instruction outlined here spans ten 30–45-minute sessions. A sample schedule is shown in Figure 4. In what follows, we describe the first two days of instruction in some detail and then, much more briefly, describe the rest of the unit. The instruction is presented as it would be to students in the upper elementary grades. With younger or older students, the language and examples would be adjusted accordingly. (Lesson adapted from Michael F. Graves, *The Vocabulary Book: Learning and Instruction*: Teachers College Press. Reprinted by permission of the publisher. All rights reserved.)

Day 1: Introduction and Motivation

Because learning to use context clues is a demanding task, the teacher introduces the unit with a motivational activity designed to both gain students' interest and help them relate the task of using context clues to infer word meanings to an activity they are familiar with—using the Internet.

She begins by telling students that over the next few weeks the class will be working on using context clues to figure out the meanings of unknown words they encounter while reading. She tells them that using clues to figure out what they don't know is something they do all the time, something they're good at, and something that is fun. Then, she tells them that they'll begin their study of context clues by viewing a brief video of a place they might know, and that their job is to look for clues to identify what the place is.

Just before showing the video, the teacher asks the students to write down a list of things they see in the video. She asks a few students to read their list.

> "Was everyone able to get all of the information they needed to answer the questions after watching the video once? Did you catch all that the tour guide said? What would help you figure out even more of the answers?"

Students will almost certainly say that they could learn more if they could watch the video again. If they don't, the teacher points this out and then replays the video.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

After this, she asks for a volunteer to identify the place described in the video, which is Hawaii.

Next, the teacher asks students what clues suggest it is Hawaii. Likely responses include "Hawaiian music," "palm trees," "the beach," and "tropical fruits." The teacher writes these clues on the Clue Web and compliments students on their efforts. Then, she challenges them to identify additional clues that this is Hawaii and replays the video as many times as students request.

The teacher concludes the introductory lesson by noting that finding all the clues and determining that the place shown in the video was Hawaii required hard work and persistence, that each time they viewed the video again they found more clues, and that this same sort of sleuthing is what they need to do when they are trying to figure out unknown words they encounter while reading. She goes on to say that beginning tomorrow they will learn a particular strategy for figuring out the meanings of unknown words they come across. She notes that they will find the strategy is a lot like the approach they used to figure out that the place shown in the video was Hawaii.

Day 2: Introduction to Using Context Clues and the Four-Step Strategy

The teacher begins Day 2 with a brief review of what the class did on Day 1, then quickly moves to the day's topic, learning a strategy for determining the meanings of unknown words encountered while reading.

> "Today, we're going to learn a strategy for using clues to figure something out. But this strategy will not be used to figure out which place is shown in a video. Instead, it will be for figuring out the meanings of unknown words that we meet when we're reading."
>
> "Actually, we won't exactly be 'figuring out' meanings. Instead, we'll be 'inferring meanings.' The strategy is called 'inferring word meanings from context.' When we infer something, we make an educated guess about it. When we infer word meanings from context, we make educated guesses about the meanings of the words. The context in which we find a word doesn't usually tell us the exact meaning of a word, but it often gives us a good idea of the word's meaning, and that is often enough to understand what we are reading."

At this point, the teacher displays a large, colorful poster showing the name of the strategy and the four steps, then begins discussing the strategy. A sample poster is shown in Figure 5.

"Do you recognize this strategy?"

Several students note that they recognize it as the video strategy they worked on the day before.

> "Right. This is the same strategy we used yesterday, but now we are applying it to figuring out unknown words we encounter in reading rather than to figuring out an unknown place we see in a video. Here's how it works."
>
> "As you can see, the first step in the strategy is Play and Question. That means you read carefully, always asking yourself whether you understand what you are reading. Also ask yourself, 'What is this paragraph about?'"
>
> "Then, when you come across a word you don't know, you move to the second step—Slow Advance. At this point, you slow down, read the sentence

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 5 Four-Step Strategy for Inferring Word Meanings from Context

and ?	**Play and Question**
	• Read carefully. • Frequently ask yourself, "Does this make sense?"
	Slow Advance
	• Notice when you don't know the meaning of a word and slow down. • Read that sentence at least once more, looking for clues. • Ask yourself, "What is this paragraph about?"
and	**Stop and Rewind or Fast Forward**
	• If necessary, go back and reread, looking for clues that help you figure out what the word might mean. Read ahead to look for clues.
and ?	**Play and Question**
	• When you figure out what the word might mean, substitute your guess for the difficult word and see if the sentence makes sense. • If it does, keep reading. • If it doesn't, stop, rewind, and try again.

at least once more to look for clues to the word's meaning, and see if you can infer its meaning."

"If you can infer the word's meaning by rereading the sentence, that's great. You continue to read. But if you can't infer the word's meaning from rereading the sentence, it's time to move to the third step of the strategy—*Stop* and *Rewind* or *Fast Forward*. At this point, you stop, go back, and reread the sentence or two that come before the one with the unknown word, again looking for clues to the word's meaning. Then you might *Fast Forward* and read a sentence or two beyond the difficult word to see if the added information helps."

"If you can now infer its meaning, excellent! You can move on to the fourth step of the strategy, Play and Question. This time, Play and Question means trying out the word you inferred. Substitute your educated guess for the word you didn't know and see if that works. If it does, keep on reading. If it doesn't, you'll need to stop and rewind again, ask someone about the word, look it up in the dictionary, or simply continue to read, understanding the passage as well as you can without knowing the meaning of the word."

"I know that all of this sounds pretty complicated. Using context clues to infer the meanings of unknown words is going to take some work. But the work is well worth it because learning to use context clues helps make you an independent and powerful reader, a reader who can read anything because you know what to do when unknown words come up."

SAMPLE TEACHER–STUDENT DIALOGUE

Shown below is a sample dialogue in which the teacher and the class work together to infer the meaning of a difficult word.

Teacher: Much like we did with the video, we are going to take a small section of a book and make sure we understand it before moving on. I will read a paragraph aloud *(give students a copy)* and then stop to check that everyone understands the words and ideas. The book is *The Phantom Tollbooth* by Norton Jester. As you will see, the story is set in a very strange place. Here is the paragraph we're going to work with.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

"A-H-H-H-R-R-E-M-M," roared the gateman, clearing his throat and snapping smartly to attention. "This is Dictionopolis, a happy kingdom, advantageously located in the Foothills of Confusion. The breezes come right off the Sea of Knowledge and gently cool the foothills. In this kingdom, we don't have the cold temperatures like at the top of the mountains, nor the rain that the other side of the mountain gets."

Teacher: This gateman is welcoming the main character, Milo, into his city of Dictionopolis. Notice that Foothills of Confusion and Sea of Knowledge are capitalized. What does that tell you?

Students: They're proper nouns. They're names of places.

Teacher: Exactly. Knowing what sorts of words are capitalized will help you understand this section. Did everyone understand the paragraph completely? If we don't understand everything, what could we do?

Students: Reread it. Read it again. Read it slower. Ask ourselves questions as we are reading it.

Teacher: Good thinking. You came up with two of the steps to our strategy, Slow Advance and Stop and Rewind. Let's use those two steps now. As I reread the sentence, I listen for words that I don't know.

The teacher reads the paragraph aloud again.

Teacher: Were there any difficult words in that sentence? If so, what were they?

Students: Advantageously.

Teacher: Let's highlight that one. Now, let's reread just the sentence that *advantageously* is in and the one after it. We don't need to reread the whole thing every time, just the section we're focusing on.

The teacher rereads just the one sentence.

Teacher: Does *advantageously* sound like a positive thing?

Students: It does to me. It says that it is a happy kingdom. I think that it has a positive meaning.

Teacher: What are some of the things the paragraph tells us about this kingdom?

Students: That it gets nice breezes off the sea. It's not as cold as the mountain peaks and it's not as rainy as the other side of the mountain.

Teacher: Would that make it a pleasant place to live?

Students. Yes. It's nice to have a breeze. It's also good that it's not too cold. And being not so rainy is a good thing, too.

Teacher: What is the word *advantageously* describing?

Students: Where this city is located.

Teacher: That's right. The city is located in an advantageous place. What do you think that *advantageous* could mean?

Students: Nice?

Teacher: Let's add an -ly to that because our unknown word had an -ly. Then, let's write *nicely* above the word *advantageously.* Now, we should reread the paragraph with our replacement word to see if it makes sense. This time, while I'm reading, ask yourself if you understand what sort of place the story takes place in.

The teacher crosses out *advantageously* on the overhead and replaces it with *nicely.*

Teacher: What do you think? Did *nicely* fit in the sentence OK? Does the sentence make sense now?

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Students: Yes. It does make sense. Dictionopolis sounds like a good place to live.

Teacher: I agree. I think that we now have a better understanding of the whole paragraph because we understand the word *advantageously* better. That's what learning to use context to infer word meanings can do. It can help us learn words, and it can help us better understand what we read.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

In addition to the guided practice illustrated in the teacher–student dialogue, each session from the second day of instruction includes independent practice. In this first independent practice activity the teacher gives them a brief paragraph with some difficult words, asks them to read it several times and mark any words they don't know or are uncertain about, and tells them they will discuss it the next day using the context clue strategy. As instruction continues, the guided practice portions of the lessons will become much shorter, and the independent practice sessions will become longer and more challenging.

REVIEW AND QUESTION SESSION

Each session ends with a review and question period. The teacher reviews what students have learned that day and throughout the unit, primarily by calling on students to recap their learning. Each session also gives students an opportunity to ask questions and get clarification on anything they are uncertain about.

The Remaining Eight Days of Initial Instruction

As shown in Figure 4, over the next eight days, the class receives detailed instruction on the four-step strategy, takes a break from the hard work with a game using the strategy, engages in guided practice with both narrative and expository texts, applies the strategy to authentic text, and plans for future use. The figure cannot show several important points: Increasingly, the students talk more and the teacher talks less. The students do more of the work. They take greater responsibility for the strategy and increasingly self-monitor and self-regulate their use of it. At the same time, the teacher is always there to support students' efforts, providing encouragement, scaffolding, and feedback as needed.

Transfer, Review, and Integration Activities

It is vital to recognize that this initial unit on using context clues, substantial as it has been, is only the first step in helping students become competent and confident users of this important strategy. In the weeks, months, and years after the initial instruction, students need extensive independent practice, feedback, brief reviews, and opportunities to use the strategy, reminders to use it, and motivation to do so. Only with such a long-term effort will students fully learn the strategy, internalize it, and make it a part of their approach to building their vocabularies.

Vocabulary Lesson: Using Prefixes to Unlock the Meanings of Unknown Words

Teaching students to use context clues is the most important word-learning strategy, but teaching them to use word parts is a close second. In fact, about half of the new words students encounter in their reading are related to familiar words. Once students can break words into parts, they can use their knowledge of those parts to

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

deduce meaning—if, of course, they understand word parts and how they function. Of the three types of word parts to consider teaching—prefixes, suffixes, and roots—prefixes are the most powerful elements to teach for the reasons shown below.

- There are relatively few prefixes to teach.
- They are used in a large number of words.
- They are consistently spelled.
- They appear at the beginnings of words, where they are easy for students to spot.

Here, we describe a procedure for teaching prefixes in detail.

Day 1: Introduction, Clarification, Motivation, and Overview

On Day 1, the teacher introduces the concept of prefixes and the strategy of using them to unlock the meanings of unknown words, motivates students by emphasizing the value of prefixes, and gives students an overview of the unit. It is particularly important to be sure that students understand exactly what prefixes and prefixed words are.

The teacher might say something like this: "Over the next few days, we're going to look at how you can use prefixes to help you figure out the meanings of words you don't know. If you learn some common prefixes and how to use your knowledge of them to understand words that contain those prefixes, you'll be able to figure out the meanings of many new words. And, as you know, figuring out the meanings of words you don't know in a passage is an important step in understanding the passage."

Next, the teacher asks students what they already know about prefixes, reinforcing correct information and gently noting when any information is not quite on target. It is critical that students have a clear understanding of prefixes, so the teacher follows the discussion with a presentation supported by a graphic image projected through a document camera. The teacher shares Figure 6 or 7 with the students.

This is a lot for students to remember—too much, in fact. For this reason, the teacher creates a condensed version of these points and writes them on a "Basic Facts about Prefixes" poster (Figure 6) or a shorter version in Figure 7. As the unit progresses, the prefixes, their meanings, and example words can be added to the poster.

At this point, the teacher asks students if they know any additional prefixes, prefixes beyond those they have already discussed. The teacher should be generally accepting of their answers, but (assuming that some responses are incorrect) note afterwards that some of the word parts given are not actually prefixes and that the class will continue to work on what is and what is not a prefix as the unit progresses.

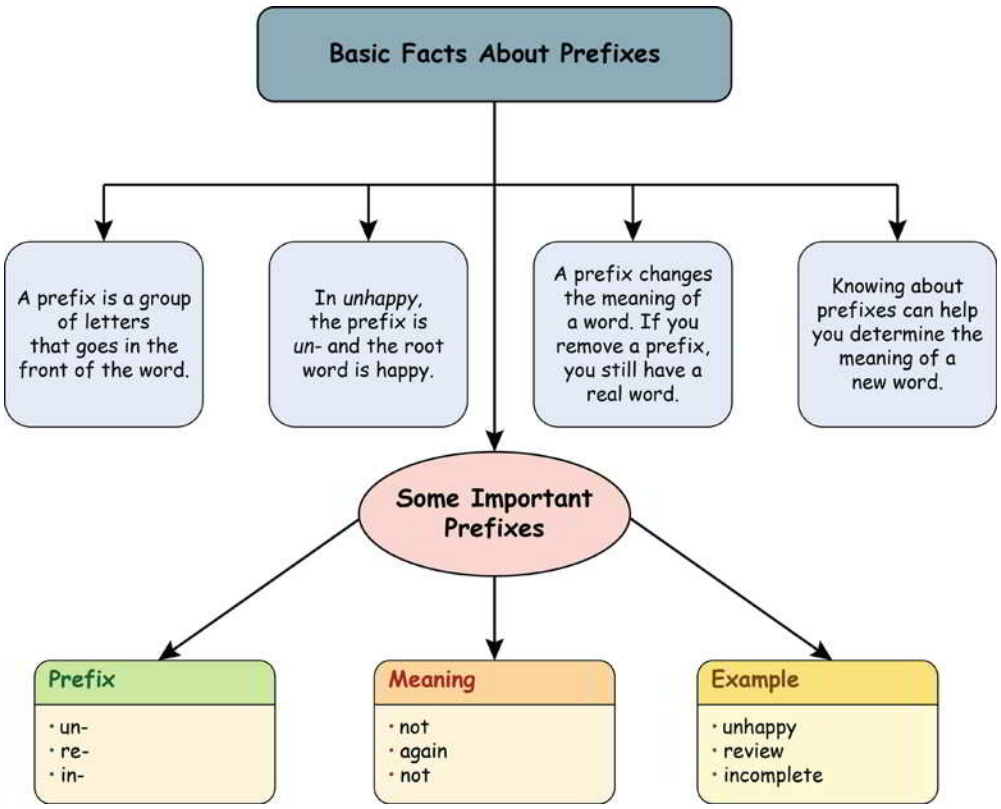
Figure 6 Prefix Transparency or Projection

BASIC FACTS ABOUT PREFIXES

- A prefix is a group of letters that goes in front of a word. *Un-* is one prefix you have probably seen. It often means "not."
- Although you can list prefixes by themselves, as with *un-*, in stories or other things that we read, prefixes are attached to words. They don't appear by themselves. In *unhappy*, for example, the prefix *un-* is attached to the word *happy*.
- When a prefix is attached to a word, it changes the meaning of the word. For example, when the prefix *un-* is attached to the word *happy*, it makes the word *unhappy*, which means "not happy."
- It's important to remember that, for a group of letters to really be a prefix, when you remove them from the word, you should still have a real word left. Removing the prefix *un-* from the word *unhappy* still leaves the word *happy*. That means it's a prefix. But if you remove the letters *un* from the word *uncle*, you are left with *cle*, which is not a word. This means that the *un* in *uncle* is not a prefix.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 7 Prefix Poster



Finally, the teacher introduces the three prefixes for study the next day—*un-* (not), *re-* (again), and *in-* (not)—putting them on the poster, asking students to copy them down, and asking each student to bring in a word beginning with one of the prefixes the next day.

Day 2: Instruction on the First Three Prefixes

At the beginning of the session, the teacher refers to the "Basic Facts" poster and briefly reminds students what prefixes are, where they appear, and why it is important to know them. The teacher then calls on students to share the prefixed words they have identified, jotting those that are actually prefixed on the board and gently noting that the others are not prefixed and will be discussed later.

After this, the teacher begins the standard instructional routine for teaching prefixes and prefix removal for three reasons. First, there is experimental evidence that it works. Second, using the same routine for teaching all prefixes allows students to quickly learn the procedure and then focus on the prefixes and how to work with them. Third, the suggested routine can serve as a model that teachers can use to create a complete set of materials for teaching prefixes and the strategy of prefix removal and replacement.

Next, the teacher tells students that today they will work with the three prefixes introduced the day before and learn how to use them to unlock the meanings of unknown words. The three prefixes are *un-*, meaning "not"; *re-*, meaning "again"; and *in-*, also meaning "not." In teaching these three prefixes, the teacher will use several types of materials—examples of each prefix, worksheets with brief exercises

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 8 Introductory Chart for the Prefix *re-*

THE PREFIX RE-

1. Tom was asked to rewrite his spelling test a second time.
   rewrite—to write again
2. Carmen had to repeat her joke because her grandfather did not hear it.
   repeat—to say again
3. After the heavy doors were battered by the enemy, the soldiers rushed to refortify their stronghold.
   refortify—to make strong again
4. The original movie had been a big hit, so they decided to remake it with some current stars.
   remake—to make again
5. If commence means "begin," then recommence means _____.

that require use of the prefix just taught, exercise sheets that require additional use and manipulation of each prefix, and review sheets on which students manipulate the three prefixes and the words used to illustrate them that day. On the back of the worksheets, exercise sheets, and review sheets, there are answer keys so students can immediately check their work.

Each exercise presents one prefix, illustrates its use with two familiar and two unfamiliar words, and includes each of the four words in a context-rich sentence. Below each sentence, the word and its definition are shown. Below these sample sentences is a fifth sentence that gives students a root word and requires them to generate the prefixed form of the word. The introductory examples for the prefix *re-* is shown in Figure 8.

Instruction begins with the teacher displaying the first sentence on the introductory chart and leading students from the meaning of the familiar prefixed word to the meaning of the prefix itself, as illustrated in the following dialogue.

Teacher: If Tom were asked to rewrite a test, what must he do?
Students: He has to take it over. He has to take it again.
Teacher: That's correct. Using your understanding of the word *rewrite,* what is the meaning of the prefix *re-*?
Students: Again. A second time. Over again.

The process is repeated with the next three sentences. With some prefixes, students can volunteer the response without difficulty. With others, they may need further prompting, in which case the teacher rephrases the sentence to add more clues. If students are still unable to respond after the prompting, the teacher provides the definition. After going through the first four sentences the teacher presents the fifth sentence, which defines the unknown root word and asks students to define the prefixed word.

After completing introductory instruction on the first prefix, students individually complete their check sheets while a student volunteer shares their responses. Part of a check sheet is shown in Figure 9. As soon as students finish their check sheets, the volunteer places their work under the document camera so all students receive immediate feedback on their work. If the volunteer has made an error, the teacher corrects it now.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 9 Part of a Check Sheet for the Prefix *sub-*

CAN YOU FIND IT?

A word or prefix is hidden in each line of letters below. Read the definition of the word or prefix. Then circle the word or prefix when you find it.

1. Find the prefix meaning "under" or "below"
   antidissubplegohnobitto
2. Find the word in each line that means:
   a. "underground railroad"
      shelaunomessubwaywathoning
   b. "to put under water"
      lasubmergersinthergerows
   c. "a plot beneath the main plot"
      thisenroutelesubplotrudiw
   d. "underwater boat"
      mopeitaqksubmarinetshowl

Figure 10 Part of a Review Sheet for the Prefixes *un-, re-*, and *in-*

REVIEW SHEET ON *UN-, RE-,* AND *IN-*

A. Match the prefix in the first column to its meaning in the second column.
   a. *re-* _____ not
   b. *in-* _____ again
   c. *un-* _____ not

B. Complete the following sentences with a word from the list below. You will not use every word.

   rewrite inaudible incomplete
   reconnect unhappy ungrateful

   1. Because Feng-Yi was in such a hurry to finish her test before the bell rang, her last answer was _____ .
   2. A nearly _____ cry escaped her as she hid behind the curtain.

These same procedures are then completed with the two remaining prefixes for the day—*un-* and *in-*. Following initial instruction on the three prefixes, the students complete a review sheet and immediately receive feedback by checking the answers on the back of the sheet. Part of a review sheet is shown in Figure 10. While students complete the review sheet, the teacher monitors their work and provides assistance upon request. This concludes the second day of the unit.

Day 3: Review the Prefix Strategy and the Remaining Three Prefixes

Day 3 begins with the teacher reviewing the basic facts about prefixes on the poster. Then students complete a review sheet covering the three prefixes taught the previous day and immediately correct their work.

Next comes another crucial part of the instruction—instruction in the prefix strategy. The teacher introduces the strategy by telling students that, now that they have worked with it and understand how useful prefixes can be in figuring out the

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 11 Prefix Removal and Replacement Poster

THE PREFIX REMOVAL AND REPLACEMENT STRATEGY

When you come to an unknown word that may contain a prefix:

- Remove the "prefix."
- Check that you have a real word remaining. If you do, you've found a prefix.
- Think about the meaning of the prefix and the meaning of the root word.
- Combine the meanings of the prefix and the root word, and infer the meaning of the unknown word.
- Try out the meaning of the "unknown" word in the sentence, and see if it makes sense. If it does, read on. If it doesn't, you'll need to use another strategy for discovering the unknown word's meaning.

meanings of unknown words, the teacher is going to teach a specific strategy for working with unknown words. The teacher titles the procedure "Prefix Removal and Replacement," emphasizing that it is a big name for an important idea.

The teacher then puts up the "Prefix Removal and Replacement Strategy" poster (shown in Figure 11), and talks students through the procedure with one or two sample prefixed words.

After this explicit description of the strategy and its modeling, the teacher tells students they will continue learning the meanings of prefixes and using the strategy today, tomorrow, and in future review sessions. The teacher then points out that students now have two posters to refer to when they encounter an unknown word that may contain a prefix—the "Basic Facts" poster and the "Prefix Strategy" poster. Finally, the teacher teaches and reviews the remaining three prefixes *(dis-, en-,* and *non-)* using procedures and materials that exactly parallel those used on Day 2. This concludes the third day of the unit.

Day 4: Review of the Information about Prefixes, the Prefix Strategy, and the Prefixes Taught

Day 4 begins with the teacher reviewing the four facts about prefixes, again using the "Basic Facts" poster. As part of the review, the teacher asks students a few questions about these facts to ensure they understand them and answers any questions students have.

Next, the teacher reviews the prefix removal and replacement strategy using the "Prefix Strategy" poster. After this, the teacher continues with the explicit instruction model, first modeling the strategy with two of the six taught prefixes and then using it collaboratively in a whole-class session with two more of the six prefixes. After this, the teacher divides students into small groups and provides guided practice by having the groups use the strategy with the final pair of prefixes. The teacher also has some of the groups share their work and findings, thus providing guided practice.

As the final activity of the initial instruction, small groups of students work together on a quiz. The quiz requires them to state the four facts about prefixes, outline the steps of the prefix removal and replacement strategy, and define the meanings of the six prefixes taught. As soon as students complete the quiz, they correct it in class to receive immediate feedback on their performance and then hand in the corrected quizzes so the teacher has this information to plan reviews.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Reviewing, Prompting, and Guiding Students to Independence

At this point, the instruction is far from complete. If we really want students to remember what a prefix is, recognize and know the meanings of some prefixes, and use the prefix-removal and replacement strategy when they encounter unknown words in their reading, reviewing what has been taught and prompting students to use the strategy while reading are crucial.

By reviewing, we mean formal reviews. Conduct the first review about a month after the initial instruction, the second two months after that, and the third, if it seems necessary, several months after that. Each review might last 30–45 minutes. Two somewhat conflicting considerations are important when undertaking these reviews. The first is that it does no good and, in all probability, does some harm to spend time "teaching" students things they already know. Thus, if at the beginning of a review it is apparent that students already know the material, the review should be very brief or conducted only for the small group who still need additional instruction.

By prompting, we simply mean reminding students about prefixes and the prefix strategy at appropriate points during reading. Thus, when students are about to read a selection that contains some unknown prefixed words, the teacher might say something like, "In looking through today's reading, I noticed some pretty hard words that begin with prefixes. Be on the lookout for these, and if you don't know them, try using the prefix strategy to figure out their meanings." This sort of prompting should probably be fairly frequent, as it can do a lot to move students toward independent use of the strategy.

Lesson adapted from "Teaching Prefixes: As Good as It Gets?" by Michael F. Graves. In J. F. Baumann and E. B. Kame'enui, *Vocabulary Instruction: Research to Practice* (2012) (pp. 81–99). Guilford Press.

Comprehension Materials

In this section of *Appendix B*, we present several lessons all focused on reading comprehension. First, you will find the role sheets that are essential for conducting literature circles, a discussion technique we presented in Chapter 12. Next, you will have two elaborated lesson plans for teaching students to make inferences and a second set of lessons that focus on inferring character feelings, traits, and motives. Third, we provided a detailed guide for conducting a Questioning the Author discussion, including guidelines for sustaining the discussion. Lastly, we have included a scaffolded reading experience for English learners.

Role Sheets for Literature Circles

We provide the following role sheets to implement Literature Circles in your class. Each sheet describes a role and must be introduced and practiced with the class. The role sheets outline the preparation required of the students. One student creates discussion questions, another identifies vocabulary words, and others reflect, critique, or summarize. Pick and choose the roles. A discussion director is essential, but you can vary the other roles based on the students' needs. Not all roles must be assigned for each discussion group but each group must have a discussion director. The roles are:

- Vocabulary Monitor
- Visualizer
- Connector
- Discussion Director: Questioner
- Critic
- Predictor
- Summarizer
- Character Cartographer

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Vocabulary Monitor** **P**urpose: Find, teach and discuss new and important words and/or phrases to the group.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Look for words and phrases we need to know. Write down the page numbers and the context clues for each word. Note why you picked these words.

Words or Phrases we need to know	Page #	Context Clues	Meaning, synonym, or example

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Choose one or more words to discuss.
2. Show the words and pronounce them correctly.
3. Give your reasons for choosing the words. How does each word contribute to your understanding of the passage?
4. Have everyone in the group find the word and read the sentences around it. Ask for a definition or speculation from members of the group.
5. Discuss how the context clues helped you determine the meaning of the words.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Visualizer** **P**urpose: To identify descriptive passages, visualize them and use visual images to improve comprehension.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Find passages with rich descriptions like strong use of adjectives, adverbs, concrete nouns, and explicit verbs. Note these passages and think of ways to bring them to light. You might draw diagrams, charts, pictures, cartoons, or maps.

The Passage and Page #	Why did You Pick This Passage?	What Image Does it Create in Your Mind?

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Read a passage with rich description.
2. Discuss why you picked it.
3. Share the image you created or what you pictured in your mind.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and responds to literature

Role**: The Connector** **P**urpose: To find important connections within the passage and connections to your experiences	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Look for and note important connections that can be made within and outside the text. Use the connection codes you have learned and write why each connection is important.

Within the Text		From the text to . . .	
S	**Sentence/idea connection**	**Me**	**How the story connects to me**
A	**Anaphoric Connection**	**T**	**Text to text connection**
C	**Causal Connection**	**W**	**Text to world connection**

Page # or Passage	Connection Code	Why Is the Connection Important

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Discuss the connections that you made.
2. Ask others what other connections they made while reading.
3. Discuss why all of the connections are important to understanding the story.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Discussion Director: Questioner** **P**urpose: To ask important questions that promote inferential and critical thinking.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Look for parts of the story that raise questions about plot, character development, theme, and mood. Write questions that will help others in your group develop their understanding of the story.

Question Type	Source of Information	Clues
Right There	Answer is in the text	What, where, when
Think and Search	Answer is in the text, but the reader must think, search and infer	How and why
Author and You	The Answer is in your head, but you must read and think about the story.	How does the author How would the author
On My Own	Answer in your head and often you don't need to have read the story.	Suppose, what if

Page #	Question Type	Question

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Ask your questions and call on people to answer the questions. They should label the questions as they answer them.
2. Ask group members to ask their own questions during the discussion.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **The Critic** **P**urpose: To highlight parts that are important or interesting enough to share with the group.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

1. Look for parts of the book that the group should share. Share passages that are:

- interesting
- confusing
- well written
- funny
- important
- thought provoking
- scary
- information
- controversial

2. As you read look for two passages, note their location and why you decided to share them.

Passage Location	Reason for Sharing	Plan for Sharing

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Share with the group at least one of your passages.
2. Tell the group why you are sharing that passage.
3. Ask other group members what passage they would like to share.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **The Predictor** **P**urpose: To help the group think along with the author and use text clues to determine what will happen next.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

Preparation

1. Look for clues that help the reader anticipate what might happen next. Look for some clues and then write down your prediction.

Passage Clues	What are your predictions for the next chapters?

After Reading – During the Discussion

2. Ask the group if the first prediction came true.
3. Ask the group to make a prediction or share yours.
4. Ask people to justify their prediction.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role **The Summarizer** **P**urpose: To help the group integrate what they have read and develop a concise understanding of the story.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

Preparation

Your job is to sum up what has been read. As you are reading, look for: 1. Changes in the setting; 2. Changes in the behavior of the main characters; 3. Resolution of problems and conflicts; 4. Development of new conflicts.

Your Summary

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Read or recite your summary.
2. Ask the group if there is anything we should add to the summary.
3. Ask people if there is anything we should leave out of the summary.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Character Cartographer** **P**urpose: To help the group track the characters, their relationship to other characters, and how characters influence each other.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

Preparation

Your job is to keep a list of characters. After each character's name write down their relationship to other characters, and how they influence each other.

Characters	Relationships	Influences/Interactions

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Help to explain who the characters are and how they are related.
2. Point out the most important conflicts.
3. Discuss how some characters support each other.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Comprehension Lesson: Teaching Students to Make Inferences

Strategies are mental actions we use to understand and remember what we read. Inferences are the connections we make between ideas in the text and between the text and our prior knowledge. Both comprehension strategies and inferences build understanding. Described below are the first three days of a unit on making inferences as it might be presented to third-, fourth-, or fifth-grade students.

Day 1: Making Inferences Introduction

MOTIVATION AND INTEREST BUILDING (ABOUT 5 MINUTES)

Make a small chart on the whiteboard (Figure 12). Ask the students what toy or game they would very much like to have. Answers will vary, but Nintendo Switch or PlayStation 5 will most likely be included. Label these as goals. Then ask the students how they plan to acquire one. They might say they will ask for it as a birthday present, do odd jobs, or beg. Explain that these are strategies, actions we can take to achieve a goal.

Now switch the discussion to reading and ask, "What are your goals when you read?" Possible responses might include finishing the assignment, remembering new ideas, enjoying a good story, or learn new information. If students leave out any of these ideas, add them to the chart yourself. After you have established the goals, begin discussing strategies. "What are some strategies we use to achieve these goals?" Students' responses might include rereading a story, making notes, sounding out words, and so on. You might add other strategies you have studied, such as making predictions and asking questions. Explain that today the class will learn a new strategy called making inferences.

EXPLANATION AND MODELING (ABOUT 20–30 MINUTES)

Write the following sentence on the board and begin the discussion leading the students to understand what inferences are and how we make them.

> Mary looked at her menu, trying to find the cheapest entrée while John gazed lovingly in her eyes.

First ask, "Where are John and Mary?" Almost all students will infer that they are in a restaurant, but your goal is to discover how that inference is made. Ask the students what clues in the sentence indicate that John and Mary are in a restaurant.

Figure 12 Just What Is a Strategy?

	Your Goals	Your Strategies
Toys & Games	To have a Nintendo Switch or a PlayStation 5	Ask for it as a birthday present Do odd jobs Save up my allowance
Reading	To enjoy the book. To learn something To finish the book.	Read quickly Reread Take notes

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 13 Making Inferences Chart

Clues in the Text	Your Knowledge/Experiences	Inferences/ Conclusions
Menu, entrée	All restaurants I have been to have a menu, even McDonalds.	Mary and John must be in a restaurant.
Gazed, lovingly	That is how people look when they like each other. Love each other.	John loves Mary.

Most will focus on the word *menu,* and a few on the word *entrée.* Now that they have identified the text information needed to draw an inference, lead the students to examine their own experiences or knowledge, the second component of an inference. Ask the students, "Have you been to a restaurant?" "Do all restaurants have menus?" "Does your mother hand you a menu before dinner at home?" As these questions are discussed, explain that we make an inference by considering text clues and our prior knowledge to add to a text what the author has left out. Enter the students' responses on the "Making Inferences" chart (Figure 13).

Briefly discuss why the author does not have to explain everything and why he can leave out the important fact that Mary and John are in a restaurant. He counts on the reader to add their knowledge and experiences to the text to complete what the author has omitted. We call this process *making inferences,* or *reading between the lines.* At times, we can infer how a character feels, what kind of person the character is or what causes a character to act or behave in a certain way.

Reveal more about how the strategy works by reading the next paragraph and discussing with the students what inferences they might make. Make sure that the students think about what the author did not explain, what was left out. Next, tell students to look for clues in the text and think about what they know or have experienced in their own lives.

> The team boarded the school bus and started out for the big game. If they won this game, they would be champions! Suddenly, fifteen miles from the site of the game, the bus broke down. There they sat, waiting. Nobody seemed to know what to do, and it was getting closer and closer to game time.

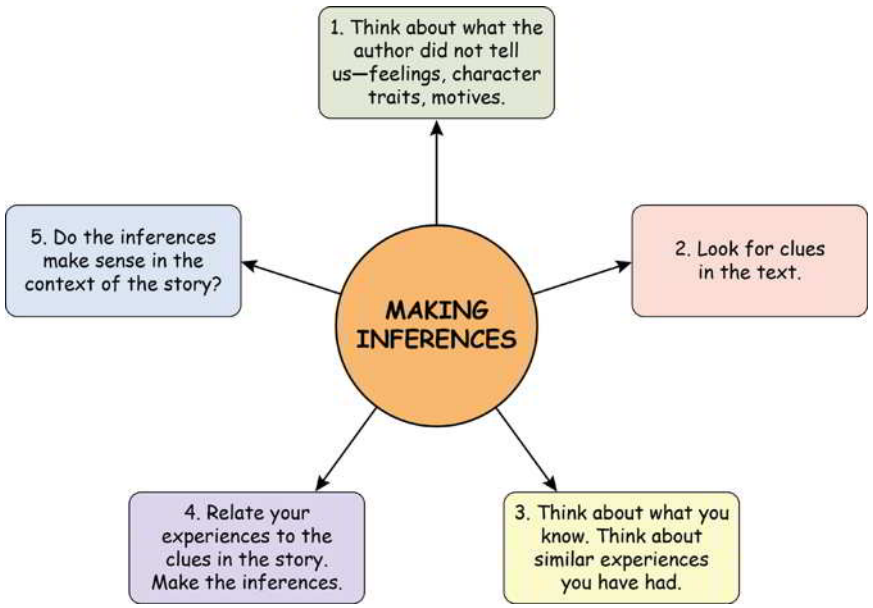
As the discussion about this paragraph develops, point out the salient text clues if the students do not. They should note that the bus has broken down, the students are going to an important game, and nobody knows what to do. If they don't point out these clues, you must. Next, ask the students how they might feel if they were trapped in a similar situation. Update the "Making Inferences" chart with text clues, the students' prior knowledge, and the inferences they have drawn.

Ask students to read the next paragraph and then work with a partner to discover what the author left unsaid. The goal is to discover the feelings, goals, or motives of the characters. Use the chart in Figure 13 to record the text clues and the students' personal experiences.

> Mario was smiling. There were cute little puppies lined up in cages and lots of goldfish swimming around in a huge tank. He could hear birds chirping,

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 14 Inference Anchor Chart



kittens meowing, and gerbils running on their little wheels. He had a big decision to make. His dad looked at him, smiled, and said, "Well, here we are! Are you ready for your new responsibility?" Mario's heart started beating faster. He was so glad Dad said yes to what he had wanted for so long!

End the lesson by introducing the anchor chart (Refer to Figure 14). At this time you will review what an inference is and the thinking process that most readers employ. Check to see if students were following you by asking a few students to explain the strategy and tell why it is important when they read.

Day 2: Large-Group Student Guided Practice (20 minutes)

Begin the lesson by asking the students to explain the strategy they were studying yesterday. Ask students to name the strategy, explain how to make an inference, and explain the importance of making inferences. Expand on the question of importance by exploring with the students when we make inferences. The discussion should focus on the following ideas.

- We make inferences when we sense that the author has left something out. Often it is about a character's feelings, traits, or motives.
- We make inferences when we add something to the text that helps the story make more sense.

Continue the discussion and have the students explain how we go about making inferences, using the inference anchor chart (Figure 13) as a guide. Remind them that the strategy of making inferences has several different names. At times it will be called "making inferences," others may call the strategy "drawing conclusions" and sometimes "making generalizations." The underlying thinking is the same. You need to read between the lines and think about what the author did not tell you. Next, you need to search for text clues and at the same time relate what you are reading to your own knowledge and experiences.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Then, using the following paragraphs, engage the students in a third round of making inferences. Have the students consider what the author might have left out. What can they infer about the characters, what they are doing, and what they are feeling?

> Billy was crying. His hands were scraped up and his knees were bloody. Grandpa said, "You have tried so hard today and you haven't given up! You know they say, 'Practice makes perfect.' I know you can do this." Billy stood up and let out a big sigh. "I know, Grandpa. But I'm getting tired." "How about two more tries and then we'll go get some ice cream?" "Okay, sounds good," Billy responded.
>
> He grabbed the handles, pulled on the button, and rang the bell. The tinkling sound always made him feel better. He slowly straddled the seat and put his left foot on the pedal. "Take your time," Grandpa warned. As he picked up a little speed, Billy put his right foot on the other pedal. He could sense Grandpa close behind him holding the seat. All of a sudden, he felt the wind blowing into his face. Grandpa let go and started clapping. Billy was doing it! He swallowed the lump in his throat and laughed out loud. Grandpa was right! The more you practice, the better you will get.

Add the students' comments to the "Making Inferences" chart in Figure 13. Be sure to discuss the clues in the text and the students' prior knowledge or experiences. Several more paragraphs for you to use with your students are included at the end of this lesson.

Day 3: Making Inferences with Real Text (20 minutes)

It is now time to apply the task of making inferences to the reading and comprehending of a real text, not just a few well-formed paragraphs. We can support students' inference generation by asking many inferential questions, but we should also help them discover these inferences on their own. For this next lesson, review all of the information on the inference poster. Students should have a decent understanding of an inference and the thinking process that underlies it. They should think about what the author has omitted, search for text clues, and relate their prior knowledge and experiences to the text.

PLANNING THE THIRD DAY LESSON

Planning is key to the success of helping students make inferences with texts such as short stories or novels. First, pick a text that demands that the reader make inferences—a text that demands that the reader think along with the writer. Next, read the selection twice, first to gain an overall understanding and second to determine what inferences will be necessary to fully comprehend the selection. Examine the text and determine whether you need to teach any vocabulary words to support the students' comprehension. Consider what prior knowledge you will need to develop before the students read and discuss the selection. Next, pick the points where students will stop reading to discuss portions of the selection. Finally, prepare the questions and prompts you will use to stimulate the inference generation process and encourage discussion.

INTRODUCE THE SELECTION AND DEVELOP PRIOR KNOWLEDGE

Begin the lesson by giving the students a brief preview of the reading selection and taking some time to develop their prior knowledge. Remember, if the students are to make inferences, they must draw upon their prior knowledge. So this portion of the lesson is critical to their success in making inferences. If, for example, the story is

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

about a boy wishing his father would take him fishing and the father is avoiding the idea at all costs, begin with a few simple questions.

1. What do you like to do with your parents?
2. Do your parents always do what you want them to do? How do you feel when they say no?
3. How do you get your parents to do what you want?

This discussion will build the knowledge that the students need to make the necessary inferences. Before reading, it is also important to teach a few of the critical vocabulary words that the students do not know.

READING THE SELECTION AND MAKING INFERENCES

Have the students read a portion of the selection and then stop to discuss it. Begin the discussion by asking the students to summarize what they have read. Ask, "What is the story about? What did the author tell us?" Next, begin the inferential thinking by starting with broad questions. "What did we learn about the character?" "What kind of person is Olivia?" "What did her words or actions tell us about her feelings or their character?" If these broad questions do not solicit the necessary inferences, then become more specific and focus on particular events and reactions in the story. Remember to ask students to search for important text clues.

When students have difficulty answering these inferential questions, it is important to take them into their own experiences. For example, if in the story the child repeatedly asks about going fishing, but the father has excuses and puts the son off, ask the following question: "How do you think that the son feels?" If the students struggle to construct an answer, remind them of their own experiences. "How do you feel when your parents don't do what you have asked?" Making the questions personal helps the students apply what they know and have experienced to answering the questions.

You will continue discussing the selection in this manner. When you have completed the discussion, review some of the important inferences that your students made. What have you and the students learned about the characters, their feelings, and their motivations? Consider what clues in the text helped you make these inferences and what prior knowledge was necessary to make these inferences. As you and the students continue to read and discuss short stories, picture books, and novels during the year, making inferences will always be an important strategy. Return to the poster whenever students need a review of the strategy.

Comprehension Lesson: Inferring Character's Feeling, Traits, and Motives

Reviewing What We Know About Making Inferences

Explain that we are studying how to make inferences, an essential reading strategy. Ask the students why it is necessary to make inferences while reading. Ask the students what kinds of inferences we have been studying. Perhaps they can think of an inference they made from their independent reading book.

Discuss that we make inferences for a number of reasons. First, the author is often incomplete, relying on us, the reader, to fill in what they only imply. Second, inferential thinking prompts us to make connections between ideas in the text that are essential for comprehension. Before we can connect to our experiences or to other texts, we need to connect the ideas in the text we are reading, constructing a complete understanding. Third, thinking inferentially leads us to read deeply and get beneath

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 15 Picture books that convey character feelings and traits

Character Feelings	Character Traits
• *Stellaluna*, J. Cannon • *Brave Irene*, W. Steig • *When Harry Slept Over* • *Sylvester and the Magic Pebble*, W. Steig • *Alexander and the Wind up Mouse*, L. Lionni • *Burnt Toast on Davenport Street*, T. Egan • *The Story of Ruby Bridges*, R. Coles • *My Rotten Redheaded Older Brother*, P. Polacco • *Alexander and the Terrible Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day*, J. Viorst • *Mirette on the High Wire*, E. A. McCully • *Grandfather's Journey*, A. Say	• *The Paper Boy*, D. Pilkey • *Dr. Desoto*, W. Steig • *The Story of Ruby Bridges*, R. Coles • *Frederick*, L. Lionni • *The Wednesday Surprise, E. Bunting* • *Grandfather's Journey*, A. Say • *The Big Orange Splot*, D. M. Pinkwater • *Your Move, E. Bunting*

the surface of the book. We can consider how a character thinks, how he changes, and how the choices and actions in a novel might mirror the choices we make in our lives. When we move beyond the plot, we learn to think and feel deeply.

Today we are going to study several kinds of inferences that we make when reading narrative fiction, biography and autobiography. We are going to learn to infer characters' feelings, traits, and motives.

Introducing the Inferences and Building Vocabulary

Use one or more picture books to introduce the concept of character feelings. Read the picture book and lead a discussion about the characters' feelings. Lists of picture books that feature one or more characters' feelings or traits are provided below. Keep reading these picture books to your students daily. They provide a rich source of examples of characters' feelings and traits. In Figure 15 we provide some picture book titles

As you read each of the books, label the characters' feelings and add them to a character's feeling chart you are developing with the students. I have provided a list of character feeling and character trait words later in the unit. It is important to move the students from *sad* and *happy*, *good* and *bad* to *troubled* and *elated* and *honest* and *devious*. Plan on reading several picture books during the first three days of the unit.

Character Feelings	
Negative	**Positive**
grumpy	jolly
lazy	energetic
disgusted	pleased
panicky	calm
uptight	relaxed
dizzy	silly
foolish	proud
testy	thankful
obnoxious	charming

Remember, learning to infer character traits and motives is a long-term vocabulary lesson. It is unlikely a reader can infer the concept of energetic unless they know the word.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Create a second chart for character trait words but recognize that these terms for character feelings and character traits can overlap. You can infer that a character is feeling *disgusted* or *uptight*, and these terms are also used to describe a character's traits. A character might be uptight and jolly throughout a text.

As each of the new words is introduced, do the following:

1. Re-read the sentences or paragraphs that helped us infer the character's trait or feelings.
2. Write the words on the Character Feelings chart.
3. Discuss the meaning of the words including synonyms and antonyms. Ask the students to share a time when you might have that particular feeling.
4. Ask two or more students to try out the new word in a sentence.

Explaining and Modeling How to Make Inferences

Explain that we are going to use the same process of making inferences that we used before, but now we are going to focus on making inferences about character traits, feelings and motives. Ask the students to describe the four-step process we used before. Remember the four steps to our thinking are:

- What did the author fail to tell us?
- What clues did he leave in the text?
- What do you already know?
- What inferences did you make?

Write or project the following paragraph on the whiteboard.

> Kit's face was red. He couldn't believe Jenny didn't tell the truth! Now he was in trouble for something he did NOT do. He sat outside the principal's office waiting for his name to be called.

The author counts on us to add our knowledge and experiences to the text to complete what the author has omitted. At times, we can infer how a character feels, what kind of person the character is, or what causes a character to act in a certain way.

Discuss the four questions or prompts on the chart, and with the students, complete the chart that is presented in Figure 16. You will use this basic chart often when you are discussing how to make an inference. In the process, remember to tell the students that they often must put themselves in the character's place. Imagine that someone lied at school about what you did or didn't do. How would you feel in this situation? If the students do not have words to label this feeling, supply one (furious, scared, desperate) and add it to the chart.

Write or project the following paragraphs on the whiteboard.

> "Boys, good news! Now that the school year has ended, you both have been accepted in new temporary-care homes starting this afternoon?"

Figure 16 The Process of Making Inferences

What didn't the author tell us?	What are the clues in the text?	What is your knowledge or experiences?	What inferences or conclusions can you reach?

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 17 Feelings, traits, and motives

Title _____		Character _____	
	Beginning of the book	**Middle of the book**	**End of the book**
Character's Feelings			
Character's Traits			
Character's Motives			

Jerry asked the same thing I was thinking. "Together?" She said, "Why, no, Jerry, you'll be in a family with three little girls . . ."

Jerry looked like he'd just found out they were going to dip him in a pot of boiling milk. (Curtis, 1999, p. 3)

Repeat the same analysis with this example from *Bud Not Buddy*. Practice with several paragraphs, as many as you feel are necessary, before shifting to short stories, biographies, and novels. For each paragraph, the students infer what the character is feeling. When the students suggest an imprecise word for a feeling—*sad, happy, scared*—introduce a more sophisticated and precise label for that feeling. They should also explain what clues in the text led them to their particular inference. For each passage the students need to make five responses. These are the responses:

- What did the author fail to tell us?
- What kind of inferences can we make?
- What clues did the author leave in the text?
- What inferences did we make?
- Do the inferences make sense?

Moving to Longer Authentic Text

The process of making inferences about character traits, feelings, and motives is ultimately applied to the reading and discussion of short stories, biographies, and novels. Because characters grow and change over time, students will gain much more experience by reading and discussing a novel as they track changes in characters' feelings and growth in their traits. (Refer to Figure 17.)

A strong, purposeful discussion will help the students make these inferences, a discussion like Questioning the Author. When the students are not discussing the novel, a graphic organizer like the one in Figure 17 will help them capture changes in a character's traits, feelings, and motives.

Comprehension Lesson: A Description of Questioning the Author (QtA)

Questioning the Author is a large- or small-group discussion procedure developed and validated by Isabel Beck and Margaret McKeown (Beck et al., 1996, 1997, 1998;

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

McKeown et al., 1996). As Beck and McKeown explain, it is "an approach to text-based instruction that was designed to facilitate building understanding of text ideas" (Beck et al., 1997). Beck and McKeown developed the procedures after several years of research on textbooks. They found that textbooks were difficult for students to understand because textbook authors assumed students had more prior knowledge of the topics than they actually did. This shortcoming was further compounded by students' assumption that the texts were absolute authorities and thus beyond question. When students read a text and did not understand it, they repeatedly saw themselves as totally responsible for their lack of understanding and failed to consider that the text itself might be at fault (of course not this text.)

Prompted by these findings, Beck and McKeown developed QtA with two ideas in mind: (1) to encourage and assist young readers in getting under the surface of the material they were reading, digging into it, and engaging with the ideas the texts presented, and (2) to assist students in realizing that textbooks are simply someone's ideas written down and that readers frequently need to work hard to figure out what the author is trying to say.

Their procedure for doing this is simple and straightforward. First, the teacher explains to children that texts are written by ordinary people who are not perfect, and that the texts they produce are not perfect either. Consequently, readers need to continually work hard to figure out what the authors are trying to say. QtA proceeds by having the class read a text together, with the teacher stopping at critical points to pose questions that invite students to explore and grapple with the text's meaning. The queries include initiating prompts such as "What's the author trying to say?" to get students started grappling with the text, follow-ups such as "What does the author mean by that?" to encourage them to dig for deeper meaning, and "How does that connect with what the author told you?" to encourage them to put ideas together. However, queries are not scripted, and teachers are encouraged to modify the suggested queries and make up their own to fit the students and texts with which they are working.

The key purpose of QtA is to build understanding from text. As Beck and McKeown note, understanding does not come from a casual reading of the text and the assumption that the author's meaning will somehow be absorbed effortlessly by the reader. Instead, understanding comes when the reader considers, manipulates, grapples with, and integrates information gleaned from the text with their existing knowledge. QtA engages students as they read the text for the first time, rather than after they have read or during a second reading. This is a very important characteristic of QtA and one that distinguishes it from many other questioning and discussion techniques. The goal of QtA is for students to have the experience of constructing meaning for text as they are reading, not to be told about what they might have experienced after the fact.

Another very important characteristic of QtA that distinguishes it from many other questioning and discussion techniques is that QtA discussions focus specifically on the text. QtA discussions are not wide-ranging conversations in which students are encouraged to share a variety of opinions and ideas. Instead, the discussion focuses on clarifying, collaboratively constructing meaning of, and ultimately understanding the ideas in the text they are reading. The teacher strategically uses QtA queries to direct the discussion toward that end. They are general probes with a very specific purpose—engaging students in grappling with and constructing meaning of the ideas in a text.

In the remainder of our discussion of QtA, we present a segment of a QtA session, consider queries in a bit more detail, explain the process of planning a QtA session, characterize the types of discussion you are trying to prompt with QtA, and suggest how you might introduce QtA to a class.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

A Sample: Questioning the Author Segment

The following classroom scenario, drawn from Beck and colleagues (1996, 1997), depicts a fifth-grade social studies class studying Pennsylvania history. The class has been working with QtA for some time and is quite skilled at contending with ideas in text. The class is discussing a text segment about the presidency of James Buchanan, a Pennsylvania native. The text indicates that many people believed Buchanan favored the South over the North because he held that it was a person's choice whether or not to have slaves. Following is the class discussion (McKeown et al., 1996).

FIFTH-GRADERS QUESTIONING THE AUTHOR

Teacher: All right. The paragraph Tracy just read is full of important information. What has the author told us in this paragraph?

Laura: Um, they, um, think that Buchanan liked the South better because they, he said that it is a person's choice if they want to have slaves or not, so they thought, um, that he liked the South better than the North.

Teacher: Okay. And what kind of problem then did this cause President Buchanan when they thought that he liked the South better?

Next, Janet gives her interpretation of how Buchanan's position on slavery might have affected the voters in Pennsylvania.

Janet: Well, maybe, um, like. less people would vote for him because. like. if he ran for President again, maybe less people would vote for him because, like, in Pennsylvania we were against slavery and we might have voted for him because he was in Pennsylvania, because he was from Pennsylvania. That may be why they voted for him, but now since we knew that he was for the South, we might not vote for him again.

At this point, the teacher summarizes Janet's remarks.

Teacher: Okay, a little bit of knowledge, then, might change people's minds.

Then, another student acknowledges Janet's explanation and offers some of his own thoughts.

Jamie: I have something to add on to Janet's 'cause I completely agree with her, but I just want to add something on. Um, we might have voted for him because he was from Pennsylvania so we might have thought that since he was from Pennsylvania and Pennsylvania was an antislavery state, that he was also against slavery. But it turns out he wasn't.

Finally, a third student acknowledges her classmates' thoughts and contributes her ideas to the developing interpretation.

Angelica: I agree with the rest of them, except for one that, um, like, all of a sudden, like, someone who would be in Pennsylvania, you want to vote for them but then they wouldn't, because Buchanan seems to be going for the South and then you wouldn't want to vote for them after that.

The scenario illustrates several key attributes of a QtA discussion. The students are indeed working together to construct the author's meaning. The teacher adroitly directs the discussion, but she does not dominate it. She leaves plenty of room for student input because the purpose is for students to understand the text; if they're the ones who will understand it, they're the ones who must do most of the talking and

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

thinking. The students respond at some length. Finally, they listen to each other and build on each other's responses as they jointly construct the text's meaning.

Queries

One way to begin to understand queries is to contrast them to traditional questions, with which we are more familiar. Beck and McKeown suggest three dimensions on which the two differ:

- First, traditional questions assess comprehension to determine whether students understand what they have read. Queries help students construct the meaning of the with ideas in the text, with the goal of helping them put ideas together.
- Second, traditional questions evaluate individual student responses and foster teacher-to-student exchanges. Queries "facilitate group discussion about an author's ideas and prompt student-to-student interactions."
- Finally, traditional questions are generally used either before or after reading. Queries are used online during the initial reading of the text.

As we have already pointed out, queries are not scripted and teachers are encouraged to adjust their queries to fit their students, the text, and the purposes in reading the text. Nevertheless, Beck and McKeown have identified a set of queries that are quite useful and serve to illustrate the nature of successful queries. These are shown in Figure 18.

These, of course, are general queries. When posed for a specific text, they become more specific. We have already seen specific examples of initiating and follow-up queries in the QtA segment on President Buchanan. Here, the teacher's initiating query and its lead-in were "All right. The paragraph Tracy just read is full of important information.

Figure 18 Some Questioning the Author Queries

INITIATING QUERIES

- What is the author trying to say here?
- What is the author's message?
- What is the author talking about?

FOLLOW-UP QUERIES

- So what does the author mean right here?
- Did the author explain that clearly?
- Does that make sense with what the author told us before?
- How does that connect with what the author has told us here?
- But does the author tell us why?
- Why do you think the author tells us that now?

NARRATIVE QUERIES

- How do things look for this character now?
- How does the author let you know that something has changed?
- How has the author settled that?
- Given what the author has already told us about this character, what do you think he (the character) is up to?

Adapted from SOURCE: Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Hamilton, R., & Kucan, L. (1997). Questioning the Author,p. 45. International Reading Association.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

What has the author told us in this important paragraph?" In the same segment, one of the teacher's follow-up queries was "Okay. And what kind of problem then did this cause President Buchanan when they thought that he liked the South better?

Narrative queries, a type we haven't yet discussed, are different from those used with informational text. They are used with narratives in addition to initiating and follow-up queries. A representative example of a narrative query comes from a teacher whose class was using QtA as they read George Seldon's *The Cricket in Times Square* (1970). In the part of the story students have just read, Mario Bellini's pet cricket, Chester, ate half of a two-dollar bill. This is a problem because two dollars is a lot of money to the Bellinis. Here is the next paragraph of the story.

> Chester Cricket sat frozen on the spot. He was caught red handed, holding the chewed-up two dollars in his front legs. Muttering with rage, Mama Bellini picked him up by his antennae, tossed him into the cricket cage and clicked the gate behind him. He half expected that she would pick him up, cage and all, and throw him onto the shuttle tracks.

After students have read the paragraph, the teacher poses this narrative query: "How do things look for Chester?"

As you can see from the sample queries and these examples, the purposes of initiating queries are to make the text's information public in the classroom and to get the discussion underway, while the purposes of follow-up queries are to keep the discussion focused and to assist students in elaborating and integrating ideas. The purposes of narrative queries are to focus students' attention on characters, the roles they play in the story, and the way the author is crafting the plot.

Planning

There are three steps in planning a QtA lesson:

- The first step is to read and study the text thoroughly to identify the major understandings you want students to achieve and the potential problems they may face in achieving them.
- The second step is to segment the text into short sections that are read and discussed before students move on to the next section. Sometimes a segment will be quite lengthy, perhaps a page or so. At other times, a segment will be relatively short; for example, the sample discussion we presented for the Buchanan text dealt with a single paragraph—"All right. The paragraph Tracy just read is full of important information. What has the author told us in this important paragraph?" At other times, a segment might be even shorter, covering a single sentence, as fifth-grade teacher Rona Greene tells us.
- Finally, in addition to deciding what is important in a text, what the likely stumbling blocks are, and how the text will be segmented for the discussion, you need to write down the queries. Although many queries will be modified or even discarded as the discussion proceeds, queries such as "What has the author told us in this important paragraph?" and "How do things look for Chester?" are planned in advance.

Introducing QtA

Introducing QtA is straightforward, but it is important to include several key points in your introduction. First, tell students that the way they will be reading and discussing text is likely different from how they have typically approached it. Next, tell

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

them that you and they will be reading and discussing short sections of text at some length. That is, they will read a segment of text, then stop to discuss what it means with their classmates. Explain that the reason they need to do this is that a text is simply somebody else's words written down, and that understanding what the author is saying often requires close attention to and a good deal of discussion of the text. Finally, note that your discussions will focus on the text and the meaning the author is trying to convey, rather than on broader matters.

Discussion

We have already given one fairly lengthy example of a QtA discussion and described the sort of discussions that QtA is designed to foster. To keep the discussion moving, you can try one of these six moves. These moves keep the students on track and talking.

1. *Marking*: When you mark a student's comments, you draw attention to them. Think of it as oral underlining. You rephrase what the student has said and perhaps expand it. *"Yes, you are right, the previous colony disappeared and they might be worried about their chances for survival.*
2. *Turning back*: When a student responds, you can turn the discussion back to the students for more information or suggest that they return to the text. *"I think you are on to something about the colonists in Jamestown. Now go back to the previous paragraph and see what else you can learn."*
3. *Revoicing*: Sometimes a student makes a comment that is not quite right, or fails to phrase it properly. Then it is important to rephrase the student's statement. This lets them know that they are partially correct. "*So, Jamestown was not a good place to live, but why did they choose it in the first place?"*
4. *Modeling*: Modeling occurs when you show students how you think through a passage, connect ideas, reach a conclusion, and make an inference. You are making your thinking public. *"I think that they chose Jamestown because it was by the water and it was easy to defend."*
5. *Annotating*: Sometimes, the student cannot make the connection or the interpretations we would like. Then it is the teacher's job to provide the information that the text lacks. *"Let's consider why the settlers in Jamestown may have had difficulty surviving. What were they trained to do?"*
6. *Recapping*: Recapping is summarizing. During the discussion, the teacher realizes that the students grasp the text, and the teacher pulls together everything they have learned. "*These are great ideas. All of you figured out why Buddy was sad to be going to a new foster home."*

These moves illustrate how a teacher rephrases and clarifies ideas and keeps the discussion focused as she guides students toward full understanding. "Students do the work. They construct the meaning, wrestle with the ideas, and consider the ways information connects to construct meaning." Thus, "the discussion becomes an opportunity for students to formulate complete thoughts, respond to the text, react to each other's ideas, and consider new notions" (Beck et al., 1997, p. 164).

The Impact of Using the Questioning the Author Procedure

Beck and McKeown and their colleagues have worked with QtA for several years and have gathered several sorts of data on its efficacy. First, they implemented QtA with two teachers who had been using a very traditional pattern of teacher-initiated

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

questions aimed mainly at retrieving information directly from the text and brief student responses that were quickly acknowledged before the next question was asked. A more recent study indicated that QtA helped students achieve greater comprehension than did a more strategy-focused discussion (McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009).

Scaffolded Reading Experiences for English Learners

The Scaffolded Reading Experience, or SRE, is an instructional framework that one of us (Mike Graves) has worked with for a number of years. The framework offers several options for providing pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading activities to support students as they read a selection. Although SREs can be designed for English-only students as well as for English learners, they can be very useful for English learners. The SRE below is taken with permission from J. Fitzgerald and M. F. Graves (2004) *Scaffolding Reading Experiences for English-Language Learners*. Christopher-Gordon.

A Very Supportive SRE on Seymour Simon's *Earthquakes*

This SRE uses the K-W-L procedure recommended by Donna Ogle (1986). K-W-L includes pre-, during, and postreading activities in which students actively consider what they Know, what they Want to know, and what they Learn.

Students: Fourth-grade students with low to average English-reading ability in an ethnically diverse classroom in California, including several English-language learners.

Selection: *Earthquakes* by Seymour Simon. This short, 32 page, informational book gives a dramatic photographic account of the causes and effects of earthquakes around the globe.

Reading Purpose: To learn about earthquakes, what causes them, what effects they have on people and property, and what might be done to prepare for them.

Overview

Students	Selection	Purpose
Day 1		
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Postreading**
Motivating and Relating Reading to students' lives (10 min.)	Reading to Students (5 min.)	Discussion (10 min.)
Activating Background Knowledge (10 min.)	Guided Reading (5 min)	Questioning (10 min.)
Prequestioning and Direction Setting (5 min.)		
Day 2		
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Postreading**
Prequestioning and Direction Setting (5 min.)	Guided Reading and Silent Reading (30 mins.)	Discussion (10 min.)
		Application—jigsaw groups (10 min.)

Adapted from SOURCE: J. Fitzgerald and M. F. Graves (2004) Scaffolding Reading Experiences for English-Language Learners. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

PREREADING FOR DAY 1
MOTIVATING YOUR STUDENTS

Goal of the Activity: To pique students' interest in a topic and activate their background knowledge.

Rationale: Describing an event in a way that requires students to infer what is happening can be an effective way to stimulate interest and introduce a topic at the same time. Having students then discuss their own experiences requires that they access relevant knowledge, which will help them build meaning from the text.

Procedure: Begin by describing a scenario similar to the following. "Imagine yourself in this situation. You are asleep in bed. Suddenly, the bed begins to move back and forth. Half awake, you say to the sibling in the bed next to yours, 'Stop shaking the bed.'" Ask students to explain what is going on. Tell students this was an experience you had with earthquakes and encourage them to talk about their own experiences.

ACTIVATING BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE—*WHAT I KNOW*

In this activity, students brainstorm to find out what they know about a topic and then generate categories of information that are likely to be found in the text they will read.

Goal of the Activity: To have students activate their prior knowledge about a topic and consider what information on that topic might be included in a specific text.

Rationale: Students who have lived on the West coast for some time are likely to have some knowledge of earthquakes. Activating this knowledge before reading can help establish a framework to aid them in understanding and remembering. If some of the English learners are unfamiliar with earthquakes, they can learn from their classmates.

Procedure: On the whiteboard, write the title *Earthquakes.* Then use the K-W-L procedure we introduced in Chapter 12. Draw or post the K-W-L chart and begin a discussion about what the students know about earthquakes. Jot their responses under the heading What I Know.

What I Know	What I Would Like to Know	What I Learned
Can cause damage Are unpredictable Are scary Happen in California Not all are the same Shake the Earth Don't happen at night Are getting worse.	What causes earthquakes? How are earthquakes measured? What places have earthquakes? What was the worst earthquake ever? Where do most earthquakes happen? What can we do about earthquakes?	
Types of Information I expect to Find		
How earthquakes happen Where they happen What can we do about them Why do they happen		

As you will notice, not all of the students' responses are accurate. During this brainstorming session, you might ask students various questions such as, "How did you learn that?" or "How could you prove that?" Later, during the postreading discussion, you can clear up any remaining misconceptions.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

After students have given a variety of responses, show them the cover illustration on the book *Earthquakes*. Ask them to think about the kind of information that might be included in the book and write their suggestions on the board to the left of their initial responses. Some of their suggestions might include: How earthquakes happen, where they happen, what we can do about them, how much damage they do, why they happen, and descriptions of some of the worst quakes.

Explain that informational books such as *Earthquakes* are written to give us information that we might need or want. Ask students to think about what they would like to know about earthquakes—things they don't already know or aren't quite sure of. Write their response on the K-W-L chart in the What I Would Like to Know column.

DURING READING FOR DAY 1
GUIDED READING—*WHAT I FIND OUT*

In this activity, students write down answers to the questions they posed prior to reading and then they consider which of their questions still need answering.

Goal of the Activity: To have students transform questions into answers and thoughts into writing.

Rationale: Having students search for answers to their questions requires active reading. Transforming what they learn into writing requires and promotes even deeper understanding. Having students go a step further and check what questions still need answering lets them know that the information an author chooses is selective and they may need to check other sources to get their answers.

Procedure: Direct students' attention to the last column of the K-W-L chart. Explain to students that this will be the last part of the K-W-L procedure—a procedure they can use when they read informational books and articles. The last step is to record what information they do learn.

POSTREADING FOR DAY 1
DISCUSSION—*QUESTIONS ANSWERED?*

In this activity, students decide which questions were answered in the text.

Goal of the Activity: To have students realize that, although a specific text may answer some of their questions, it may not answer all of them and they will need to seek other sources for some questions.

Rationale: To become critical thinkers and readers, students need to realize that, while our questions about a topic might be answered in a text, they also might not be. Authors have to be selective in what they include. What we may wish to know may not be in the scope of the text and, therefore, we need to consult others.

Procedure: Draw students' attention to the questions asked in the prereading activity.

Begin by asking students, "Was the first question, *'What causes earthquakes?'* answered in the first five pages of the book?" If students answer "yes," ask them to tell you, if they can, what the answer is and write that answer in the column *What I Found Out.* Proceed in a similar manner with each of the questions. If questions aren't answered, tell students that these questions still might be answered in the remainder of the text or that they may not be answered in this particular text at all and they will need to consult other sources for the answers.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

PREREADING FOR DAY 2
PREQUESTIONING AND DIRECTION-SETTING—K-W-L

In this activity, students deepen what they know about earthquakes by reading a variety of books and using the K-W-L procedure with a partner. Use a selection of texts from the school library like, Shake, Rattle and Roll: Exploring the Science of Earthquakes, The Big Questions: What Are Earthquakes, or All About Earthquakes (A True Book).

Goal of the Activity: To have students access their knowledge on a topic, think about what more they would like to learn about that topic, and better understand and remember the information that interests them most.

Rationale: Having students access appropriate knowledge before reading a text, posing their own questions, and writing down the answers to those questions can help them better understand and remember text material.

Procedure: Hand out K-W-L Chart to each student and ask students to explain how we used the chart yesterday. Supplement and expand what they leave out.

When students have their charts, review the three types of information they will record. First they will think about and record what they **know** about earthquakes, then write down what they **want** to know in the second column. As they read the book, they will write the answers to their questions or what they **learned** in the third column. Remind students of what they had done as a group the day before and explain that today they will have the opportunity to focus on their individual knowledge and interest in earthquakes and work with one other student as they read. Quietly invite each of your English learners to team up with a native English speaker.

Remind students that not all of their questions will be answered in the text. This might be a good opportunity to talk about other resources for finding answers if this particular text doesn't provide them.

Explain that when they finish they will get a chance to share what they learned about earthquakes.

POSTREADING ACTIVITY FOR DAY 2
DISCUSSION I—*WHAT DID YOU LEARN?*

Students meet in small groups to discuss what they learned from the text.

Goal of the Activity: To give students the opportunity to express their ideas to an audience and hear other students' ideas as well.

Rationale: Expressing themselves in an informal small-group setting gives students the opportunity to clarify their thoughts and also receive new information and insights from their classmates.

Procedure: After students have finished reading the text and have completed their K-W-L charts, have them meet in groups of 3–6, with no more than one or two English learners in any one group. Appoint a facilitator—perhaps an English learner—and a recorder for each group. In the groups, students take turns telling what their questions were, which ones were answered, and what the answers were. The facilitator's job is to make sure everyone gets a chance to speak and the recorder keeps an account of the questions that were *not* answered in the text.

DISCUSSION II—*RESEARCH IT*

The recorders from each small group discussion session report to the class what questions are still left to be answered and then each group takes a question to research.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Goal of the Activity: To have students work in small groups to check multiple sources in order to find answers to a question.

Rationale: As previously mentioned, students need to realize that finding the information they want sometimes requires searching in one or more additional sources. Working in heterogeneous groups to locate these sources and answers requires that group members support one another in their efforts. Learning to work cooperatively is a skill that is not only necessary in school, but in many aspects of life.

Procedure: After the groups have met to discuss what they learned in *Earthquakes*, have the recorders report to the entire class what questions their group members still have. Write these questions on the whiteboard. Have each group choose one question to research. That group is then responsible for finding the answer and reporting their findings to the entire class.

This may also be a good time to compare the statements students listed in the *What I Know* activity with what they actually did learn from the text. For example, one student had said, "They are getting worse." Ask students if the idea that earthquakes are getting worse was validated by the text. If the consensus is "no," the student who offered this initial comment may concur or perhaps decide to pursue independent research to try to confirm his statement.

Because this class is familiar with library research techniques, students need only be reminded at this time on how to proceed. This may require only a brief discussion to activate students' prior knowledge and review guidelines they might follow.

Adapting the Activity: The K-W-L activity can be used any time students' purpose for reading is to learn information. Students might use this procedure while reading content-areas textbooks, magazine articles, or any number of informational trade books. For example, a significant portion of the text can be read to the whole class before the students attempt to answer the questions they generated. In another adaption the students can listen to a recording of the text as they follow along in their book. Many texts now are available in audio versions.

Reflection: This SRE us based on the K-W-L teaching routine. *According to Ogle, K-L-W "helps students keep control of their own inquiry, extending the pursuit of knowledge beyond just the one article. The teacher is making clear that learning shouldn't be framed around just what an author chooses to include, but that it involves the identification of the learner's questions and the search for authors or articles dealing with those questions."*

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix C: Test-Taking Lessons

High-stakes tests are mandated in every state, but their consequences have been somewhat mitigated in recent years. These tests still affect a school's reputation and the district's reading policy. They also impose considerable stress on teachers and students and consume instructional time. We have therefore provided a series of test-taking strategies for you to teach your students. We believe a short, well-focused unit on test-taking strategies is all your students need.

Reading Comprehension and Test Taking

The process of comprehension when reading for enjoyment or information changes when students take a test. Taking a test alters comprehension and requires strategies readers do not use in non-testing situations. As Rupp (2006) writes. "When people read in a non-testing context, they do not answer multiple-choice questions in their heads." Nor do they construct responses to open-ended questions.

The context and purpose of reading determine how we read. A recipe demands close, repeated reading to ensure that every step is carried out explicitly. Reading a novel is an aesthetic and emotional experience, with the reader gripped by the narrative. Close critical reading is rare when we read for pleasure. Rereading is more common with informational text when we search for information. Taking a test is a problem-solving experience in which rereading the text for evidence is continual and essential.

It is important for students to understand that taking a test is a distinct reading genre with new texts and a new purpose for reading. There are two parts to test-taking. First is reading the text, and second is answering the questions (Gorin, 2005). It is generally assumed that reading the text precedes answering the questions, but there is considerable back-and-forth between the two. When reading the text, it is important to pay close attention to the passage's genre and structure. When a narrative is used for assessment, the reader should expect questions about characters and their traits, the setting, the conflict, events, and the resolution. When reading informational text, the test taker should expect several possible structures, including an explanation, a discussion of cause and effect, or a chronology.

The second part of the test is answering the test questions. This is problem-solving, pure and simple. A variety of factors influence the process of answering the questions, including the linguistic level of the question (literal, inferential, etc.), the phrasing of the question, the location of the information for the correct answers, and the distractors. The student needs to know what the question is asking them to do, how to select or construct the best answer, and how to use text evidence to support that answer.

The Best Test-Taking Preparation

Strong readers score well on any reading assessment. Therefore, the best test preparation is strong reading instruction. Students who perform well on a reading test are fluent readers with strong word recognition skills. They are motivated to do well, have adequate background knowledge, and they employ reading strategies to build

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves.
Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

their comprehension (Guthrie, 2002). These are students who read for pleasure and information and are highly engaged while reading.

Goals of the Unit

We created this unit to help your students prepare for the upcoming state reading assessment. All students can benefit from well-crafted lessons that help them understand the test and navigate its intricacies. In this unit, you will:

- Teach students a process for reading the passages that helps them stay focused on the critical elements of genre and text structure.
- Help students understand the reasoning required to understand text questions.
- Help students understand how to answer multiple-choice and constructed response questions.
- Introduce and discuss the concepts of stamina, persistence, and thoroughness, and how to manage the stress of taking a test.

Integrating Test-Taking into Classroom Instruction

Test-taking preparation should not replace regular instruction, nor should it be spread out over the full year. Regular reading instruction, vocabulary development, reading aloud, book clubs, and independent reading should not stop just because the class needs to focus on test-taking. Overemphasizing test-taking will likely interfere with reading instruction and with the growth of reading ability.

Once students are well engaged in their book club work, you can begin introducing the test-taking lessons. We suggest the following sequence.

1. Lesson 1. What Do the Students Know About Taking a Standardized Test? (20 minutes)
2. Lesson 2. How to Read the Passages: Noticing and Noting (30 minutes, repeat as needed)
3. Lesson 3. Thinking Through Multiple-Choice Questions (30 minutes, repeat as needed)
4. Lesson 4. Thinking About Constructed Response Test Items (30 minutes repeat as needed)
5. Lesson 5. Developing Stamina, Persistence, and Thoroughness (30 minutes)

Before you begin teaching this unit, build your knowledge of the standardized test used in your school district. Take a sample test and pay close attention to how you think while taking it, so you can explain your thinking to your students. You can't offer direction on test-taking strategies until you can use them yourself. Every standardized high-stakes reading test has its challenges, but nothing is trickier than unraveling a complex test question or deciding between three very similar answer choices. As you take these tests, make notes about the following:

- What do you do before, during, and after you have read the passage?
- Make a list of the difficult vocabulary in the question stems. Study how questions are phrased.
- Note how many ways the test maker can ask the students to find the main idea or make an inference.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

- For single response items (there is one correct answer) reflect on how you decide the right answer. What do you eliminate? When and how do you use the text to eliminate close answers?
- For multiple response items, how do you decide what words or responses to include and what to exclude?
- For constructed response items, how do you decide what information to include in the response?

Lesson 1: What Do Students Know About Taking a Standardized Test?

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, you will discover what the students know about taking a standardized test. You will uncover their misconceptions, refute the incorrect ones, and build students' knowledge of test-taking procedures.
- **Materials:** A K-W-L chart written on chart paper so it can be saved and referred to during the lesson.
- **Motivation:** Explain that for the next several weeks, we will be studying the standardized test to uncover how the test developers think and how they create the questions. Our goal is to out-think the test makers.
- **Time:** 20 minutes

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

Students come to test-taking with some knowledge and experience, and most have taken a test before. Some of what they know about the test is accurate, while some is incorrect. In this lesson, you will explore what they know, dispel misconceptions, and expand their knowledge of test-taking. You and the students should raise important questions.

Display a K-W-L chart on a white board or Smartboard and begin a discussion of the reading test. Ask the following questions and record the students' answers:

- What do you know about taking a reading test? What works when you take a test?
- What do you know about how to take the test?

As the students discuss the test, quickly dispel any incorrect ideas they have about it. For example, if they believe that questions have only one correct answer, point out that this is true for only some answers. In the last column (L), explain that over the next few weeks, they will learn:

- How to read the passages so they remember the information.
- The meaning of important words that they will find on the test.
- How to answer the questions.
- How to relax while taking the test so they do their best.

Figure 19 What Students Know About Taking a Reading Test

What We Know – K	What We Want to Know – W	What We Learned – L
• It is a very long test. • If you don't pass the test you can't go to the next grade. • We can't leave our seats.	• Can we use scratch paper? • Are we allowed to look back in the text? • How much time do we have?	

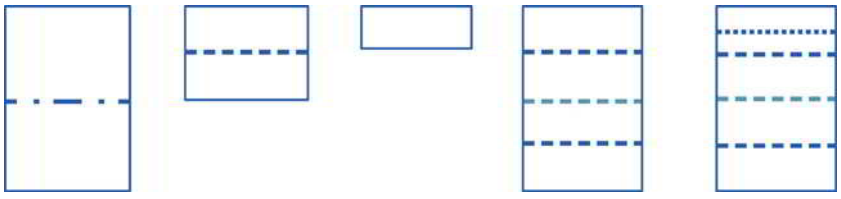
Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Lesson 2: How to Read the Passages: Noticing and Noting

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, students will learn to pay close attention while reading the passage. They will learn to note text features and genre and use these understandings to make sense of the passages (Beers & Probst, 2013).
- **Rationale:** Students are tempted to rush through the passage to get to the questions. We want students to read the passage closely and focus on its genre and structure. Once students know they are reading fiction, they start looking for characters, setting, problems, and so on. Informational text should trigger expectations for the main idea, supporting details, and arguments.
- **Materials:** Sample from a multiple-choice test with the passage and questions. A blank piece of chart paper divided horizontally into four parts. Highlighters and markers.
- **Motivation:** Talk with students about the common problem of paying attention while reading. Tell them that sometimes you can read and still think about something else – weekend plans, a chore that needs to be done. We don't want this to happen while taking an important test. It wastes time.
- **Time:** 30–40 minutes. Remember you will be repeating this lesson several times.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

1. **Noticing the Page:** Tell the students that first, they need to notice the features on the page or screen. The students should practice highlighting (title, paragraph numbers, bolded/italicized words, headings and subheadings) or circling them with a highlighter. This can be done on paper-and-pencil tests or using the computer highlighter. (Remember there are few text features in fiction.)
2. **Note Taking:** Next, the students should take notes. Share a simple process that will keep students focused on the passages while reading, using blank paper to make a few notes. Teach the students the acronym **TTBME** for **T**ext Type (Genre), **T**opic (Subgenre/Topic), **B**eginning, **M**iddle, and **E**nd.
3. Use 8 1/2 × 11 blank paper for taking notes. Fold the paper as follows to create five sections. Fold the paper in half horizontally to create two long rectangles. Fold it again horizontally to create four equal-sized rectangles. Fold the top of the paper down to create two smaller rectangles.



- Figure 20 shows a sample note-taking sheet that students can construct. Down the left margin, write T. Then write another T in the next section. Then write B, M, and E. See the example that follows.
- Have the *students read the title and 1st paragraph of the passage*. They then write the following for the two **T**s:
  - **T** = type of text: This should be the broad genre—fiction, nonfiction, biography, poem, functional text

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

- **T** = topic: for narrative text—write a more specific genre—subgenre, like fairy tale, realistic fiction, fantasy, or free verse

  For informational text—write the topic like Michael Jordan, bees or earthquakes.

  For fiction, the students should anticipate characters, setting, problems or conflicts, events, and resolution. For nonfiction, they should start thinking about what they know about the topic.

- **BME**—Students read the rest of the passage while taking a few notes. For each section, the students should write down eight or ten key words or phrases. They are not to write sentences. The keywords or phrases keep the students focused on the passage.
  - **B—Beginning**
    - Narrative—characters' names, the setting and the problem
    - Informational—keywords related to the topic
    - **M—Middle**
    - Narrative—problem/conflict or events
    - Informational – new concepts/facts
  - **E—End**
    - Narrative—solution/resolution
    - Informational—how ideas and concepts have changed

The **TTBME** strategy should be modeled for the students, and then the students should practice it 2 to 4 times over several days. Your biggest problem is students who write too much. Deciding which ideas are important is difficult.

Figure 20 The TTBME Note-Taking Process

T	
T	
B	
M	
E	

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Lesson 3: Thinking Through Multiple-Choice Questions

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, students will learn a few strategies to help them answer multiple-choice questions. These questions place heavy cognitive demands on students because they come in many types and use complex wording. You will also develop an anchor chart with the students that lists guidelines for answering multiple-choice questions.
- **Materials:** Sample test passages and the accompanying questions. Chart paper for making an anchor chart.
- **Motivation:** Explain to the students that multiple-choice questions are tricky and that the key to success is thinking like the test maker. First, the test maker writes the question. Sometimes he uses complicated wording. Then he decides on the correct answer. Then he writes the wrong answers. Some wrong answers are too broad; others are too narrow. Some wrong answers include irrelevant or incorrect details. Teach students to look for these tricks.
- **Time:** 30–40 minutes

ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS

There are three steps to answering a multiple-choice question. Much of this is reminiscent of the Question-Answer-Relationship (QAR) strategy that was introduced in Chapter 12. QAR is an effective test-taking approach.

1. Determine what the question is asking you to do: make an inference, find the main idea, find support for an inference, and so forth.
2. Locate the answer in the text. Is the answer in a sentence, a paragraph, the whole passage, or can the question be answered without returning to the text?
3. Select the correct answer and eliminate the incorrect answers.

DETERMINE WHAT THE QUESTION IS ASKING YOU TO DO

- Read the question stem carefully and *highlight* the key words in the stem. Do you have to find the *main idea*, make an *inference*, think up a *synonym*?
- Pay attention to the strategy terms in the question and the many synonyms that test writer use. The *main idea* is also the *main purpose*, *best summary*, author's purpose, *mostly about*, the *central idea*.
- If you can rephrase a test question to include the word *why*, then the question is asking you to make an *inference*.

  Eli shows he wants to be Mark's friend by ___ ; rewrite as, Why does Eli want to be Mark's friend.

LOCATE THE ANSWER

Almost all text-based questions must be answered by referring back to the text. The one exception is vocabulary questions, where the answer is typically in the student's head, but the context might provide a clue to the word's meaning. Sometimes the test question tells you specifically where to look; other times, it does not. For example:

- *Specific location*. The test questions direct you to a specific numbered paragraph, "in paragraph 7" or to the "first paragraph."
- *General location*. The test question directs you to a general location, "at the beginning of the story" "at the end of the story."

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

- *Whole passage*. The questions either reference the whole passage, "main idea of the passage" or no location is specified at all.
- *No location*. These are questions about words, dictionary usages, syllabication or figurative language. Looking back into the text offers little support.

HOW TO SELECT THE BEST ANSWER

Traditional multiple-choice questions have one obviously incorrect answer and a second answer that is mostly incorrect. The rest of the questions are seriously off the mark. Here are some things to notice while answering multiple-choice questions.

- If the test question is focused on a detail or a fact, return to the passage and search for that fact.
- If the test question is focused on determining the *main idea* of what the passage is *mostly about,* the incorrect answers will typically be too broad or too narrow. The correct answer is just right—the Goldilocks principle.
  - Is the answer too broad or too big? The answer includes more than the question asks and goes beyond the paragraph or passage.
  - Is the answer too narrow or too small? The answer focuses on a detail, but the questions require a broader answer that encompasses more information.
- If the test question requires you to make o*r* support an *inference*, the key is locating or noting the text evidence. This applies to questions about *character traits, motives, feelings,* and *cause and effect*.
  - If the question *states* the inference, then examine the distractors to see which one provides the correct text evidence to support the inference.
  - If the question asks you *to make* the inferences, then you must go back into the text, read the appropriate paragraph focusing on details, make the inference and then compare your inference to those of the test detractors.
- If the test question asks for a word meaning or synonym, each and every answer (distractor) must be compared to the passage.
- Before you attempt to select the correct answer, construct an answer in your head. Knowing the answer makes it easier to select from the alternatives provided by the test maker.
- Over time, teach your student to think like a test maker.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES—WHOLE GROUP

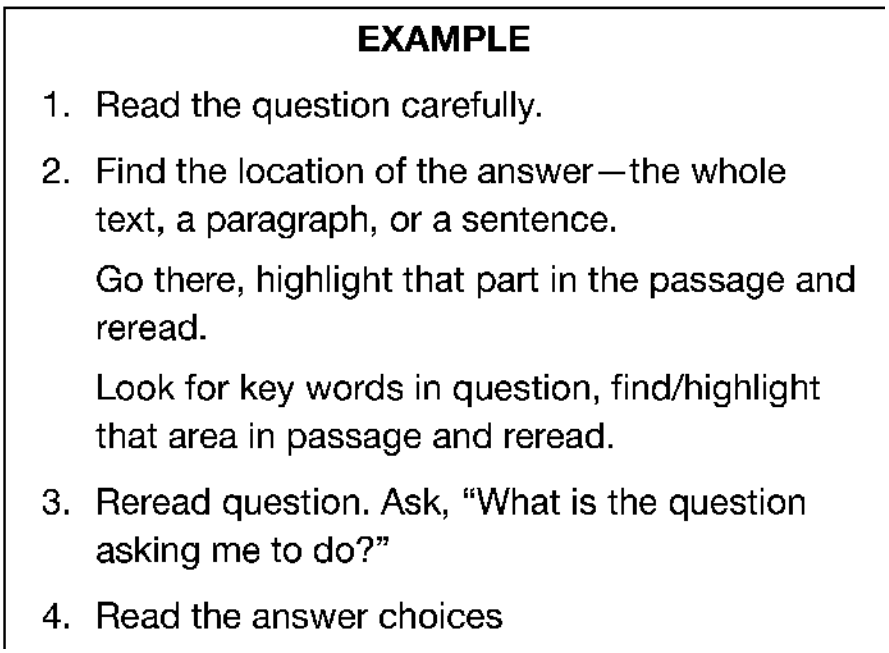
1. You and the students should read the first test question and then think-aloud as you model how you would answer the question. Record the strategies you used on your anchor chart.
2. Repeat the process until you have modeled several types of questions.
3. Now have the students do the modeling. Ask them to read the next test question and ask one or more students to model their thinking.
4. As the students think aloud this gives you the opportunity to correct their thinking.

   Continue to do this until you are confident most know how to answer a question.

Figure 21 is an example of an anchor chart developed in one fourth-grade room for answering multiple-choice questions.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves.
Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 21 Anchor chart for answering multiple-choice questions.



EXAMPLE OF THINK-ALOUDS

CONSIDER THIS EXCEPT FROM AN ARTICLE ABOUT JAMESTOWN.

The settlers were starting to lose their hope of a successful venture. They did not find gold, and they struggled to survive. Luckily, things changed in 1610 when John Rolfe arrived in Jamestown. He was a very bright man, and he worked hard to cultivate a new strain of tobacco. It was very different from the tobacco grown in England. Within two years, he was exporting the crop back to Europe. It proved to be very profitable, and other settlers in Virginia soon joined him in growing tobacco.

What is the main idea of paragraph 7?

A. John Rolfe helped the Jamestown settlers search for gold.

B. John Rolfe taught other settlers how to grow tobacco on their farms.

C. John Rolfe's tobacco crops helped make the colony successful.

D. John Rolfe traveled to Jamestown to grow crops of tobacco.

Think-aloud: *First, I know that the question is asking about the main idea. Second, I know the answer is in paragraph 7.*

The paragraph is about making Jamestown a success. Success is the key word and that is repeated at the end of the paragraph with the word profitable. So the first answer A is wrong because they did not find gold. The other three answers, B, C and D all mention growing tobacco and they are correct as far as they go. But only C uses the word successful *and that is key to the answer.*

CONSIDER THIS EXCERPT FROM AN ARTICLE ABOUT KITES

The article describes the history of kites and their uses in science, during war, in cultural festivals and sports like parasailing.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

What is another good title for this passage?

1. Kites from long ago.
2. Kites, a Popular Pastime
3. More Than Ordinary Kites
4. Toys, Kites, and More.

Think-aloud. *First, I know the answer will be a good title and titles often are the same as the main idea. I know that I have to consider the whole article, not just one paragraph. So I will look at the chapter headings again.*

Answer A is too small or too narrow because it is only about the history of kites. Answer B is also too small because it focuses on kites as a pastime, while the article also discusses kites for warfare and science. C might be correct. D is too broad because it covers kites, toys, and more. So C is the correct answer.

Lesson 4: Thinking About Constructed-Response Test Items

Constructed-response test items are similar to multiple-choice items, except that the possible answers are removed. Some of what students learn from answering multiple-choice items applies to constructed-response questions, but new strategies are necessary. Teaching writing paragraphs will help with constructed-response test items.

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, students will learn strategies to help them answer constructed-response questions. The process will focus on how to construct a short coherent answer.
- **Materials:** Sample test passages and the accompanying questions. Work on only one passage and its accompanying questions at a time.
  - Chart paper for making an anchor chart.
- **Motivation:** Explain to the students that constructed-response questions are similar to multiple-choice questions. Like multiple-choice questions, you need to determine what the question is asking you to do. Next, you must determine where the information for the answer is located. Finally, you must write your answer. Following a format will ensure that your answer is considered "correct."

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

Proceed as you did with the other questions. First, model your thinking by asking two or more questions. Next, have the students model their thinking. Finally, ask them to answer the questions independently. For constructed-response questions, focus on both how to determine the answer by analyzing the test question and how to formulate the response.

DETERMINE WHAT THE QUESTION IS ASKING YOU TO DO

- Read the question stem carefully and *highlight* the key words in the stem. Highlighted terms include important content and information about the purpose of the question. Do you have to find the *main idea*, make an *inference*, or determine a *cause*?
- If you can rephrase a test question to include the word *why*, then the question is asking you to make an *inference*.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Eli shows he wants to be Mark's friend by _____; rewrite as, Why does Eli want to be Mark's friend.

- Typically, a constructed-response question will ask you to support a particular position or argument. That means you need to go back to the text to find evidence and include it in your answer. Highlight the evidence you find.

LOCATE THE ANSWER

All constructed-response questions must be answered by referring back to the text. Sometimes the test question tells you specifically where to look, and other times it does not. Students should understand how the questions work. See our suggestions for multiple-choice questions.

ANSWERING THE QUESTION

The simplest system for answering a constructed-response question is RACE. It stands for:

- **R**estate the question
- **A**nswer the question
- **C**ite evidence from the text
- **E**xplain how the evidence supports your answer

1. Begin by showing the students how to transform a question into a statement. This is the **R**. For example, if the question asks the students to: "W*hat did the fable teach you about judging too quickly?*" Your restatement becomes, "*It is bad to judge people too quickly because you may make a poor decision*."
2. **A**nswer the question. Now supply support for your answer. Explain why it is bad to judge people too quickly. *Judging people too quickly might lead you to make a very biased judgment before you get to know them.*
3. **C**ite evidence from the text. Write about a character from the story who judged someone too quickly and how it led to a bad decision.
4. **E**xplain how the evidence supports your statement in your second sentence. You simply say that the character in the story made a quick decision and how it turned out.

EXAMPLE OF THINK-ALOUDS

The following question begins with a fictional story about Paul Bunyan and Johnny Appleseed. Figure 22 shows both the multiple-choice version of the question and its answers, as well as the constructed-response version and an answer.

Figure 22 Comparing Multiple-Choice and Constructed-Response Items

Multiple-Choice	Constructed-Response
At the beginning of the story, how is Johnny's view about his trees different from Paul's? A. Johnny views his trees as food for the rabbits while Paul views then as useful in his work. B. Johnny views his trees as the result of hard work while Paul views them as objects to win a contest. C. Johnny views his trees as needing his protection while Paul views them as needing too much care. D. Johnny view his trees as friends that he needs to take care of while Paul views them as something to brag about.	At the beginning of the story, how is Johnny's view about his trees different from Pauls? Johnny Appleseed and Paul Bunyan have different views about trees. (*restate question*). Johnny takes pride in his work to plant trees, while Paul likes to chop things down (*answer question*). Paul says, "it took me just three days to chop them down; what is so hard about growing a tree?' (*cite evidence*). This shows that Paul does not care about what living trees can provide (*explain*).

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Lesson 5: Developing Stamina, Persistence, and Thoroughness

Success with a high-stakes test requires stamina, persistence, and thoroughness, along with reading skills. Like any excellent athletic coach, talk to your students about the attitudes and dispositions that contribute to success. If you can, model those dispositions.

- **Lesson Goals:** In these lessons, students will learn about the mental and emotional aspects of test-taking.
- **Materials:** Sample of a released high-stakes test passage and questions.
- **Motivation:** This lesson helps students build a sense of competence and reduce stress. Competence stems from experiencing success and using the tools that enable it. As students learn about the test and apply strategies during it, their confidence should grow. It is vital that teachers explain that their success on the test came from students' effort and the use of test-taking strategies.
- **Time:** 30 minutes

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

STAMINA

The procedure described here will help your students recognize the stamina they possess and build more of it.

- Students may cringe when they see the number of passages, the length of the passages, and the number of questions, even in a computer-adaptive test. First, demonstrate that your students can read the passages relatively quickly. Most test passages are between 300 and 500 words. The chart that follows shows how long a slow and a fast reader at each grade level would take to read a 600-word passage.
- First, give the students a passage and time them for one minute. At the end of a minute, have the students count the number of words they read. Discuss their reading rate and share the chart below with them. If you like, repeat the process again and time them for two minutes. At the end of two minutes, have them make a mark on the passage indicating the last word they read. Most 300- to 500-word passages can be read in 8 minutes or less.

  Minutes Required to Read a 600 Word Passage and (Reading Rate in WPM)

	Low Fluency	Average Fluency	Advanced Fluency
3rd Grade	9.2 minutes (65 wpm)	6 minutes (100 wpm)	5 minutes (120 wpm)
4th Grade	7 minutes (85 wpm)	6 minutes (100 wpm)	4.6 minutes (130 wpm)
5th Grade	6 minutes (100 wpm)	4.7 minutes (125 wpm)	1.2 minutes (140 wpm)

- Explain that everyone in the class has the stamina to read the passages in a short amount of time. There is ample time to read each passage two or more times.
- While practicing for the test, students may read silently (or under their breath) but never orally.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

PERSISTENCE AND THOROUGHNESS

Persistence and thoroughness can be modeled. Start with one of the practice tests available on the Internet. Read the passage aloud and answer each of the questions. As you answer the questions, think aloud and talk about being thorough.

- Discuss what you learn by reading the question stem.
- Then consider each answer and explain why you think it is correct. If the correct answer is A, model reading through and discuss the other answers. Demonstrate how you frequently return to the text to find textual support for the correct answer choice.
- You will discover that one or more of the items are difficult and that the correct answer is not obvious. Discuss what you do when the correct answer is not easy to determine. You can:
  - Re-read the question.
  - Re-read the passage.
  - Compare one answer to another and decide which is most likely correct.
- Model this process so the students can see that persistence and thoroughness are essential to answer difficult questions. You will do this each time you practice a test passage and its questions.

RELAXATION

Everyone becomes anxious, nervous, or distracted during a test. Relaxation techniques help students refocus their attention. Practice these techniques with your students.

- After completing one section of the test, practice resting your eyes. Combine this with a bit of deep breathing—inhale through your nose, exhale through your mouth. Repeat several times.
- After finishing a section of the test, practice visualizing a calm or beautiful scene. Urge students to do this when they have finished a section or are starting to feel nervous.
- If the rules permit, allow students to stretch or walk around the room after completing one section of the test.

Concluding Thoughts

We created a test-taking guide that puts instruction first. The best preparation for a high-stakes reading assessment is strong reading instruction. Good readers do well on any reading test. But reading tests present different challenges from reading in school and out of school. Test require strategies that are rare in reading for pleasure or even reading to learn. It is therefore useful to equip your students with a few strategies that will help them do well on the test. Test-taking should be a small part of your reading instruction, reserved for the end of the year, a few weeks before the students take their reading test.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

References

Abbott, M., Good, R. H., III, Gray, J. S., Warnock, A. N., & Powell-Smith, K. A. (2020). *Acadience® Reading 7–8 assessment manual*. Acadience Learning Inc.

Abramczyk, A., & Jurkowski, S. (2020). Cooperative learning as an evidence-based teaching strategy: What teachers know, believe, and how they use it. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *46*(3), 296–308. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.173340

ACT. (2012). *Catching up to college and career readiness*. ACT.

Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print*. MIT Press.

Adams, M. J. (2011). Advancing our students' language and literacy: The challenge of complex texts. *American Educator*, *34*(4), 3.

Afflerbach, P., & Cho, B. Y. (2009). Identifying and describing constructively responsive comprehension strategies in new and traditional forms of reading. In S. E. Israel and G. G. Duffy (Eds.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 69–90). Routledge.

Afflerbach, P., Pearson, P. D., & Paris, S. G. (2008). Clarifying differences between reading skills and strategies. *The Reading Teacher, 61*(5), 364–373.

Afflerbach, P. P. (1990). The influence of prior knowledge on expert readers' main idea construction strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *25*(1), 31–46.

Al Otaiba, S., Connor, C. M., Folsom, J. S., Greulich, L., Meadows, J., & Li, Z. (2011). Assessment data-informed guidance to individualize kindergarten reading instruction: Findings from a cluster-randomized control field trial. *The Elementary School Journal*, *111*(4), 535–560.

Alahmari, A. (2019). A review and synthesis of the response to intervention (RtI) literature: Teachers' implementations and perceptions. *International Journal of Special Education*, *33*(4), 894–909.

Alexander, K., Pitcock, S., & Boulay, M. C. (Eds.). (2016). *The summer slide: What we know and can do about summer learning loss*. Teachers College Press.

Alexander, P. A. (2003). The development of expertise: The journey from acclimation to proficiency. *Educational Researcher*, *32*(8), 10–14.

Alexander, P. A. (2013). The nature of disciplinary and domain learning: The knowledge, interest, and strategic dimensions of learning from subject matter text. In *Learning from text across conceptual domains* (pp. 263-287). Routledge.

Allington, R. L. (1977). If they don't read much, how they ever gonna get good? *Journal of Reading, 21,* 57–61.

Allington, R. L. (1983). The reading instruction provided readers of different abilities. *Elementary School Journal, 83,* 548–559.

Allington, R. L. (2001). *What really matters for struggling readers: Designing research-based programs*. Longman.

Allington, R. L. (2014). How reading volume affects both reading fluency and reading achievement. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *7*(1), 13–26.

Allington, R. L., & Johnston, P. H. (2002). *Reading to learn: Lessons from exemplary fourth-grade classrooms*. Guilford Press.

Allington, R. L., & McGill-Franzen, A. M. (2021). Reading volume and reading achievement: A review of recent research. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S231–S238.

Altamura, L., Vargas, C., & Salmerón, L. (2025). Do new forms of reading pay off? A meta-analysis on the relationship between leisure digital reading habits and text comprehension. *Review of Educational Research*, *95*(1), 53–88.

Amendum, S. J., Conradi, K., & Hiebert, E. (2018). Does text complexity matter in the elementary grades? A research synthesis of text difficulty and elementary students' reading fluency and comprehension. *Educational Psychology Review*, *30*, 121–151.

Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 84*(3), 261.

Anderson, N. J., Graham, S. A., Prime, H., Jenkins, J. M., & Madigan, S. (2021). Linking quality and quantity of parental linguistic input to child language skills: A meta-analysis. *Child Development*, *92*(2), 484–501.

Anderson, R. C. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading*. The National Academy of Education and The National Institute of Education.

Anderson, R. C. (1996). Research foundations to support wide reading. In V. Greaney (Ed.), *Promoting reading in developing countries* (pp. 55–77). International Reading Association.

Anderson, R. C., & Biddle, W. B. (1975). On asking people questions about what they are reading. In G. H. Bower (Ed.), *Psychology of learning and motivation* (Vol. 9, pp. 89–132). Academic Press.

Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson, I. A. G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading*. National Institute of Education.

Anderson, R. C., & Nagy, W. E. (1993). The vocabulary conundrum. Center for the Study of Reading Technical Report No. 570.

Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). *A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading comprehension*. Center for the Study of Reading Technical Report No. 306.

Anderson, R. C., Wilson, P. T., & Fielding, L. G. (1988). Growth in reading and how children spend their time outside of school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *23*(3), 285–303.

Anderson, T. H., & Armbruster, B. B. (1984). Content area textbooks. In R. C. Anderson, J. Osborn, & R. J. Tierney (Eds.), *Learning to read in American schools* (pp.193–226). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Arias, M. B. (2018, February). *How can the U.S. overcome its linguistic deficit? The findings of two national reports on language learners*. Center for Applied Linguistics.

Armbruster, B. B., & Anderson, T. H. (1985). Producing 'considerate' expository text: Or easy reading is damned hard writing. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *17*(3), 247–274.

Atteberry, A., & McEachin, A. (2021). School's out: The role of summers in understanding achievement disparities. *American Educational Research Journal*, *58*(2), 239–282.

Au, K. H. (1999). Foreword. In J. T. Guthrie & D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), *Engaged reading: Processes, practices, and policy implications* (pp. 17–45). Teachers College Press.

Au, W. (2007). High-stakes testing and curricular control: A qualitative meta-synthesis. *Educational Researcher*, *36*(5), 258–267.

August, D. (2005, October). *Building vocabulary in English-language learners.* Paper presented at the 3rd Guy Bond Memorial Conference on Reading, Minneapolis, MN.

August, D. (2018, Fall). Educating English language learners: A review of the latest research. *American Educator, 34*(3). https://www.aft.org/ae/fall2018/august

August, D., & Shanahan, J. (Eds.). (2017). *Report of the national literacy panel on language minority children and youth: Acquiring literacy in a second language.* Erlbaum.

Avalos, M. A., Plasencia, A., Chavez, C., & Rascón, J. (2008). Modified guided reading: Gateway to English as a second language and literacy learning. *The Reading Teacher, 61*(*4*), 318–329.

Aydarova, E. (2023). "Whatever you want to call it": Science of reading mythologies in the education reform movement. *Harvard Educational Review*, *93*(4), 556–581.

Aydarova, E. (2024). What you see is not what you get: Science of reading reforms as a guise for standardization, centralization, and privatization. *American Journal of Education*, *130*(4), 653–685.

Baildon, R., & Baildon, M. (2008). Guiding independence: Developing a research tool to support student decision making in selecting online information sources. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(8), 637–647.

Baker, D. L., Santoro, L., Biancarosa, G., Baker, S. K., Fien, H., & Otterstedt, J. (2020). Effects of a read aloud intervention on first grade student vocabulary, listening comprehension, and language proficiency. *Reading and Writing*, *33*(10), 2697–2724.

Baker, L., & Beall, L. C. (2014). Metacognitive processes and reading comprehension. In S. E. Israel, S. E. Israel, & G. G. Duffy (Eds.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 397–412). Routledge.

Baker, S., Lesaux, N., Jayanthi, M., Dimino, J., Proctor, C. P., Morris, J., Gersten, R., Haymond, K., Kieffer, M. J., Linan-Thompson, S., & Newman-Gonchar, R. (2014). *Teaching academic content and literacy to English learners in elementary and middle school*. IES Practice Guide. NCEE 2014-4012. What Works Clearinghouse.

Baker, S. K., Santoro, L. E., Chard, D. J., Fien, H., Park, Y., & Otterstedt, J. (2013). An evaluation of an explicit read aloud intervention taught in whole-classroom formats in first grade. *The Elementary School Journal*, *113*(3), 331–358.

Balu, R., Zhu, P., Doolittle, F., Schiller, E., Jenkins, J., & Gersten, R. (2015). *Evaluation of response to intervention practices for elementary school reading*. NCEE 2016-4000. National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

Barrett, S. H. (2023). *Assessment by design: A practical approach to improve student learning*. Routledge.

Barrett, C. A., Johnwson, L. J., Truckenmiller, A. J., & Van Der Heyden, A. M. (2024). Comparing the cost–accuracy ratios of multiple approaches to reading screening in elementary schools. *Remedial and Special Education*, *45*(2), 71–84.

Bartlett, F. C. (1995). *Remembering: A study in experimental and social psychology*. Cambridge University Press.

Barzilai, S., & Chinn, C. A. (2020). A review of educational responses to the "post-truth" condition: Four lenses on "post-truth" problems. *Educational Psychologist*, *55*(3), 107–119.

Bassok, D., Latham, S., & Rorem, A. (2016). Is kindergarten the new first grade? *AERA Open*, *2*(1), 2332858415616358.

Bates, C. C., Klein, A., Schubert, B., McGee, L., Anderson, N., Dorn, L., McClure, E., & Ross, R. H. (2017). E-books and e-book apps: Considerations for beginning readers. *The Reading Teacher*, *70*(4), 401–411.

Baumann, J. F., Edwards, E. C., Boland, E. M., Olejnik, S., & Kame'enui, E. J. (2003). Vocabulary tricks: Effects of instruction in morphology and context on fifth-grade students' ability to derive and infer word meanings. *American Educational Research Journal*, *40*(2), 447–494.

Baumann, J. F., Edwards, E. C., Font, G., Tereshinski, C. A., Kame'enui, E. J., & Olejnik, S. (2002). Teaching morphemic and contextual analysis to fifth-grade students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *37*(2), 150–176.

Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues to expand reading vocabulary. In E. F. Hiebert and M. L. Kamil (Ed.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice* (pp. 179–205).

Baumann, J. F., & Graves, M. F. (2010). What is academic vocabulary? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *54*(1), 4.

Baumann, J. F., Kame'enui, E. J., & Ash, G. E. (2003). Research on vocabulary instruction: Voltaire redux. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. R. Squire, & J. M. Jensen (Eds.), *Handbook on research on teaching the English language arts* (2nd ed., pp. 752–785). Erlbaum.

Baumann, J. F., Ware, D., & Edwards, E. C. (2007). "Bumping into spicy, tasty words that catch your tongue": A formative experiment on vocabulary instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(2), 108–122.

Baz, M. A., & Aksoy, S. H. (2025). The effect of feedback on informative text writing: AI or teacher? *Open Praxis*, *17*(3), 611–631.

Bear, D. R., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (2016). *Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary, and spelling instruction* (2nd ed.). Pearson.

Beck, I. L., & Beck, M. E. (2024). *Making sense of phonics*. Guilford Press.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (1981). Developing questions that promote comprehension: The story map. *Language Arts, 58*, 913–918.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (1983). Learning words well: A program to enhance vocabulary and comprehension. *The Reading Teacher*, *36*(7), 622–625.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2001a). Inviting students into the pursuit of meaning. *Educational Psychology Review*, *13*, 225–241.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2001b). Text talk: Capturing the benefits of read-aloud experiences for young children. *The Reading Teacher*, *55*(1), 10–20.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Hamilton, R., & Kucan, L. (1997). *Questioning the author: An approach for enhancing student engagement with text.* International Reading Association.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2013). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction* (2nd ed.). Guilford Press.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Sandora, C., Kucan, L., & Worthy, J. (1996). Questioning the author: A yearlong classroom implementation to engage students with text. *The Elementary School Journal*, *96*(4), 385–414.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Sinatra, G. M., & Loxterman, J. A. (1991). Revising social studies text from a text-processing: Evidence of improved comprehensibility. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *26*(3), 251–276.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Worthy, J. (1995). Giving a text voice can improve students' understanding. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *30*(2), 220–239.

Becker, W. (1977). Teaching reading and language to the disadvantaged—What we have learned from field research. *Harvard Educational Review*, *47*(4), 518–543.

Beers, K., & Probst, R. E. (2013). *Notice and note. Strategies for close reading*. Heinemann.

Begeny, J. C., & Greene, D. J. (2014). Can readability formulas be used to successfully gauge difficulty of reading materials? *Psychology in the Schools*, *51*(2), 198–215.

Beishuizen, J., Asscher, J., Prinsen, F., & Elshout-Mohr, M. (2003). Presence and place of main ideas and examples in study texts. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *73*(3), 291–316.

Bell, T. H., Gardner, D. P., et al. (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform* (U.S. Dept. of Education). U.S. Government Printing Office.

Bender, E. M. & Hanna, A. (2025). *The AI Con: How to fight big tech's hype and create the future we want*. HarperCollins.

Benedetto, S., Drai-Zerbib, V., Pedrotti, M., Tissier, G., & Baccino, T. (2013). E-readers and visual fatigue. *PloS One*, *8*(12), e83676.

Benjamin, R. G. (2012). Reconstructing readability: Recent developments and recommendations in the analysis of text difficulty. *Educational Psychology Review*, *24*, 63–88.

Bennett, R. E. (2011). Formative assessment: A critical review. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, *18*(1), 5–25.

Berliner, D., & Biddle, B. (1995). *The manufactured crisis.* Longman.

Berliner, D. C. (1979). Tempus educare. In P. L. Peterson & H. J. Walberg (Eds.), *Research on teaching: Concepts, findings, and implications* (pp. 120–135). McCutchan.

Best, R. M., Floyd, R. G., & McNamara, D. S. (2008). Differential competencies contributing to children's comprehension of narrative and expository texts. *Reading Psychology, 29*(2), 137–164.

Biancarosa, G., & Griffiths, G. G. (2012). Technology tools to support reading in the digital age. *The Future of Children, 22*(2), 139–160.

Biemiller, A. (2003, April). *Teaching vocabulary to kindergarten to grade two children.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Blachowicz, C., & Fisher, P. (2004). Keep the "fun" in fundamental. In J. F. Baumann & E. J. Kame'enui (Eds.), *Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice* (pp. 210–238). Guilford Press.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, *5*(1), 7–74.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2009). Developing the theory of formative assessment. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, *21*(1), 5–31.

Blevins, W. (2016). *A fresh look at phonics, grades K-2: Common causes of failure and 7 ingredients for success*. Corwin Press.

Bloodgood, J. R. (1999). What's in a name? The role of name writing in children's literacy acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly, 34,* 342–367.

Blythe, T. (1998). *The teaching for understanding guide*. Jossey-Bass.

Blything, L. P., Hardie, A., & Cain, K. (2020). Question asking during reading comprehension instruction: A corpus study of how question type influences the linguistic complexity of primary school students' responses. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*(3), 443–472.

Boaler, J. (2002). *Experiencing school mathematics.* Erlbaum.

Bogaerds-Hazenberg, S. T., Droop, M., & van Steensel, R. C. (2026). Still Too Close to Call: A Literature Review on Close Reading Interventions and Their Effects on Reading Outcomes in Grades 3–9. *Reading Psychology*, 1-30.

Bogaerds-Hazenberg, S. T., Evers-Vermeul, J., & van den Bergh, H. (2021). A meta-analysis on the effects of text structure instruction on reading comprehension in the upper elementary grades. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(3), 435–462.

Bogner, K., Raphael, L., & Pressley, M. (2002). How grade 1 teachers motivate literate activity by their students. *Scientific Studies in Reading, 6,* 135–165.

Bond, G. L., & Dykstra, R. (1967). The cooperative research program in first-grade reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *2*(4), 5–142.

Bond, G. L., & Dykstra, R. (1997). The cooperative research program in first-grade reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly, 32*(4), 345–427. [Reprint]

Bone, J. K., Bu, F., Sonke, J. K., & Fancourt, D. (2025). The decline in reading for pleasure over 20 years of the American Time Use Survey. *iScience*, *28*(9), 113288.

Bowers, P. N., & Kirby, J. R. (2010). Effects of morphological instruction on vocabulary acquisition. *Reading and Writing*, *23*(5), 515–537.

Box, G. E. P., & Draper, N. R. (1987). *Empirical model-building and response surfaces*. John Wiley & Sons.

Boyles, N., & Scherer, M. (2012). Closing in on close reading. In M. Scherer (Ed.), *On developing readers: Readings from educational leadership, El essentials* (pp. 89–99). Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Branigan, H. E., & Donaldson, D. I. (2019). Learning from learning logs: A case study of metacognition in the primary school classroom. *British Educational Research Journal*, *45*(4), 791–820.

Bransford, J. D., & Johnson, M. K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, *11*(6), 717–726.

Bråten, I., Skovdahl, O., Anmarkrud, Ø., & Strømsø, H. I. (2025). Does reading still make you smarter? It depends. Reading and Writing, 1-22. Open access.

Breakstone, J., McGrew, S., Smith, M., Ortega, T., & Wineburg, S. (2018). Why we need a new approach to teaching digital literacy. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *99*(6), 27–32.

Brenner, D., & Hiebert, E. H. (2010). If I follow the teachers' editions, isn't that enough? Analyzing reading volume in six core reading programs. *The Elementary School Journal*, *110*(3), 347–363.

Brindle, M., Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Hebert, M. (2016). Third and fourth grade teacher's classroom practices in writing: A national survey. *Reading and Writing*, *29*(5), 929–954.

Brooks, C., & Warren, R. P. (1938). *Understanding poetry: An anthology for college students*. Holt.

Brown, A. L., & Day, J. D. (1983). Macrorules for summarizing text: The development of expertise. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 22,* 1–14.

Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational Researcher, 18*(1), 32–42.

Brown, L. T., Mohr, K. A., Wilcox, B. R., & Barrett, T. S. (2018). The effects of dyad reading and text difficulty on third-graders' reading achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *111*(5), 541–553.

Brown, R., Pressley, M., Van Meter, P., & Schuder, T. (1996). A quasi-experimental validation of transactional strategies instruction with low-achieving second-grade readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *88*(1), 18.

Bruck, M., & Treiman, R. (1992). Learning to pronounce words: The limitations of analogies. *Reading Research Quarterly, 27,* 375–388.

Bruner, J. (1960). *Process of education*. Harvard University Press.

Bruner, J. S. (2009). *The process of education*. Harvard University Press.

Bryant, P., MacLean, M., & Bradley, L. (1990). Rhyme, language, and children's reading. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *11*(3), 237–252.

Burr, V. (2024). *Social constructionism*. Routledge.

Cabell, S. Q., & Hwang, H. (2020). Building content knowledge to boost comprehension in the primary grades. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S99–S107.

Cain, K., & Oakhill, J. V. (1999). Inference making ability and its relation to comprehension failure in young children. *Reading and Writing*, *11*(5), 489–503.

Calet, N., Gutiérrez-Palma, N., & Defior, S. (2015). A cross-sectional study of fluency and reading comprehension in Spanish primary school children. *Journal of Research in Reading*, *38*(3), 272–285.

Calkins, L. M. (1983). *Lesson from a child*. Heinemann.

Callahan, R. E. (1962). *Education and the cult of efficiency*. University of Chicago Press.

Campbell, D. T. (1979). Assessing the impact of planned social change. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, *2*(1), 67–90.

Cao, Y., & Kim, Y. S. G. (2021). Is retell a valid measure of reading comprehension? *Educational Research Review*, *32*, 100375.

Capin, P., Dahl-Leonard, K., Hall, C., Yoon, N. Y., Cho, E., Chatzoglou, E., Reiley, S., Walker, M., Shanahan, E., Andress, T., & Vaughn, S. (2025). Reading comprehension instruction: Evaluating our progress since Durkin's seminal study. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *29*(1), 85–114.

Carlisle, J., Kelcey, B., Berebitsky, D., & Phelps, G. (2011). Embracing the complexity of instruction: A study of the effects of teachers' instruction on students' reading comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *15*(5), 409–439.

Carr, E., & Ogle, D. (1987). KWL Plus: A strategy for comprehension and summarization. *Journal of Reading*, *30*(7), 626–631.

Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richmond, B. (1971). *The American heritage word frequency book*. Houghton Mifflin.

Cartwright, K. B. (2009). The role of cognitive flexibility in reading comprehension. In S. Israel (Ed.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 115–139). Guilford Press.

Cartwright, K. B., & Palian, S. R. (2024). Considering roles of executive functions in the science of reading: A meta-analysis highlighting promises and challenges of reading-specific executive functions. *Educational Psychologist*, *59*(4), 263–290.

Castles, A., Rastle, K., & Nation, K. (2018). Ending the reading wars: Reading acquisition from novice to expert. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *19*(1), 5–51.

Caulfield, M., & Wineberg, S. (2023). *Verified: How to think straight, get duped less, and make better decisions about what to believe online*. The University of Chicago Press.

Cazden, C. (2001). *Classroom discourse* (2nd ed.). Heinemann.

Cazden, C. B. (1991). *Metalinguistic awareness revisited: Its contribution to the child's appropriation of form*. Plenary address to the Australian Reading Association Conference, Adelaide, Australia.

Ceci, S. J. (1991). How much does schooling influence general intelligence and its cognitive components? A reassessment of the evidence. *Developmental Psychology*, *27*(5), 703.

Cervetti, G. N., Fitzgerald, M. S., Hiebert, E. H., & Hebert, M. (2023). Meta-analysis examining the impact of vocabulary instruction on vocabulary knowledge and skill. *Reading Psychology*, *44*(6), 672–709.

Cervetti, G. N., & Hiebert, E. H. (2015). The sixth pillar of reading instruction: Knowledge development. *The Reading Teacher*, *68*(7), 548–551.

Chall, J. S. (1967). *Learning to read: The great debate*. McGraw-Hill.

Chall, J. S. (1996). *Stages of reading development* (2nd ed.). Harcourt-Brace.

Chall, J. S., & Dale, E. (1995). *Readability revisited and the new Dale-Chall readability formula*. Brookline Books.

Chall, J. S., & Squire, J. R. (1991). The publishing industry and textbooks. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 120–146). Longman.

Chang, W. C., & Ku, Y. M. (2015). The effects of note-taking skills instruction on elementary students' reading. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *108*(4), 278–291.

Chappuis, S., & Stiggins, R. J. (2002). Classroom assessment for learning. *Educational Leadership*, *60*(1), 40–44.

Cho, B. Y. (2014). Competent adolescent readers' use of Internet reading strategies: A think-aloud study. *Cognition and Instruction*, *32*(3), 253–289.

Cho, B. Y., & Afflerbach, P. (2015). Reading on the Internet: Realizing and constructing potential texts. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *58*(6), 504–517.

Cho, B. Y., & Afflerbach, P. (2017). An evolving perspective of constructively responsive reading comprehension strategies in multilayered digital text environments. In S. E. Israel (Ed.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (2nd ed., pp. 115–134). Guilford Press.

Cho, B. Y., Afflerbach, P., & Han, H. (2018). Strategic processing in accessing, comprehending, and using multiple sources online. In *Handbook of multiple source use* (pp. 133–150). Routledge.

Chomsky, C. (1978). When you still can't read in third grade: After decoding, what? In S. J. Samuels (Ed.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (pp. 13–30). International Reading Association.

Christ, T. J., and Colleagues. (2018). *Formative assessment system for teachers: Technical manual.* FastBridge Learning.

Christie, F., & Derewianka, B. (2008). *School discourse: Learning to write across the years of schooling*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Cimino, S., Maremmani, A. G. I., & Cerniglia, L. (2025). The use of artificial intelligence in early childhood education: Opportunities and critical issues. *Societies, 15*(12), 341.

Cipriano, C., Ha, C., Wood, M., Sehgal, K., Ahmad, E., & McCarthy, M. (2024). *A systematic review and meta-analysis of the effects of universal school-based SEL programs in the United States: Considerations for marginalized students*. Social And Emotional Learning Research Practice and Policy. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sel.2024.100029

Cipriano, C., Strambler, M. J., Naples, L., Ha, C., Kirk, M. A., Wood, M. E., Sehgal, K., Zieher, A. K., Eveleigh, A., McCarthy, M., Funero, M., Ponnochm, A., Chow, J. C., & Durlak, J. (2023). *The state of the evidence for social and emotional learning: A contemporary meta-analysis of universal school-based SEL interventions.* https://doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/mk35u

Clark, C., Picton, I., & Galway, M. (2023). *Children and young people's reading in 2023*. National Literacy Trust.

Clark, K. F., & Graves, M. F. (2005). Scaffolding students' comprehension of text. *The Reading Teacher, 56,* 570–580.

Clay, M. (1991). *Becoming literate: The construction of inner control*. Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1977). *Reading: The patterning of complex behaviour*. Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1985). *The early detection of reading difficulties*. Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1993). *Reading recovery: A guidebook for teacher's in training*. Heinemann.

Clemens, N. H., Solari, E., Kearns, D. M., Fien, H., Nelson, N., Stelega, M., Burns, M., St. Martin, K., & Hoeft, F. (2021). *They say you can do phonemic awareness instruction "in the dark", but should you? A critical evaluation of the trend toward advanced phonemic awareness training*. https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/ajxbv

Cobb, L. (1835). *The North American reader.* B and S Collins.

Cohen, E. (1994). *Designing group work: Strategies for heterogeneous classrooms.* Teachers College Press.

Cohen, P. A., Kulik, J. A., & Kulik, C.-l. C. (1982). Education outcomes of tutoring: A meta-analysis of findings. *American Educational Research Journal*, *19*(2), 237–248. https://doi.org/10.2307/1162567

Coiro, J. (2012). Understanding dispositions toward reading on the Internet. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *55*(7), 645–648.

Coiro, J. (2021). Toward a multifaceted heuristic of digital reading to inform assessment, research, practice, and policy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(1), 9–31.

Coiro, J., Coscarelli, C., Maykel, C., & Forzani, E. (2015). Investigating criteria that seventh graders use to evaluate the quality of online information. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *59*(3), 287–297.

Coiro, J., & Dobler, E. (2007). Exploring the online reading comprehension strategies used by sixth-grade skilled readers to search for and locate information on the Internet. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *42*(2), 214–257.

Coleman, D., & Pimental, S. (2012). *Revised publishers' criteria for the Common Core State Standards in English language arts and literacy, grades 3–12*. Council of Chief State School Officers.

Coleman, J. M., Bradley, L. G., & Donovan, C. A. (2012). Visual representations in second graders' information book compositions. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(1), 31–45.

Coleman, J. S. (1966). *Equality of educational opportunity [summary report* (Vol. 1)]. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

Coleman, R., & Goldenberg, C. (2012). The common core challenge for ELLs. *Principal Leadership*, *12*(5), 46–51.

Collinge, S. (2023). *Raising the standards*. Read Side by Side.

Collinge, S., & Robinson, B. (2013). *C.I.A. Unit of study: Earthquake terror*. Read Side by Side.

Common Sense Media. (2025). *The Common Sense census: Media use by kids age zero to eight, 2025*. https://www.commonsensemedia.org/research/the-common-sense-census-media-use-by-kids-zero-to-eight-2025

Compton, D. L., Appleton, A. C., & Hosp, M. K. (2004). Exploring the relationship between text-leveling systems and reading accuracy and fluency in second-grade students who are average to poor decoders. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, *19*, 176–184.

Compton-Lilly, C., Spence, L. K., Thomas, P. L., & Decker, S. L. (2023). Stories grounded in decades of research: What we truly know about the teaching of reading. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(3), 392–400.

Connor, C. M. (2019). Using technology and assessment to personalize instruction: Preventing reading problems. *Prevention Science*, *20*, 89–99.

Connor, C. M., & Morrison, F. J. (2016). Individualizing student instruction in reading: Implications for policy and practice. *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *3*(1), 54–61.

Connor, C. M., Lara J, J., Crowe, E. C., & Meadows, J. G. (2009). Instruction, student engagement, and reading skill growth in reading first classrooms. *The Elementary School Journal*, *109*(3), 221–250.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., & Katch, L. E. (2004). Beyond the reading wars: Exploring the effect of child–instruction interactions on growth in early reading. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *8*(4), 305–336.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B. J., Schatschneider, C., & Underwood, P. (2007a). Algorithm-guided individualized reading instruction. *Science*, *315*(5811), 464–465.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B., Crowe, E. C., Al Otaiba, S., & Schatschneider, C. (2013). A longitudinal cluster-randomized controlled study on the accumulating effects of individualized literacy instruction on students' reading from first through third grade. *Psychological Science*, *24*(8), 1408–1419.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B., Giuliani, S., Luck, M., Underwood, P. S., Bayraktar, A., Crowe, E. C., & Schatschneider, C. (2011). Testing the impact of child characteristics × instruction interactions on third graders' reading comprehension by differentiating literacy instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *46*(3), 189–221.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B. J., Schatschneider, C., & Underwood, P. (2007). Algorithm-guided individualized reading instruction. *Science*, *315*(5811), 464–465.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Schatschneider, C., Toste, J. R., Lundblom, E., Crowe, E. C., & Fishman, B. (2011). Effective classroom instruction: Implications of child characteristics by reading instruction interactions on first graders' word reading achievement. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, *4*(3), 173–207.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., & Underwood, P. S. (2007). A second chance in second grade: The independent and cumulative impact of first- and second-grade reading instruction and students' letter-word reading skill growth. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *11*(3), 199–233.

Cooke, C. L., & Graves, M. F. (1995). Writing for an audience: Just for fun. *Middle School Journal*, *26*(3), 31–34.

Corio, J. (2011). Predicting reading comprehension on the Internet: Contributions of offline reading skills, online readings skills, and prior knowledge. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *43*(4), 352–392.

Costantino-Lane, T. (2019). Kindergarten then and now: Perceptions of ten long term teachers. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *47*(5), 585–595.

Council of Chief State School Officers & National Governors' Association. (2010). *Common core state standards initiative. United States*. [Web Archive]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/lcwaN0010852/

Coyne, M. D., Kame'enui, E. J., & Simmons, D. C. (2001). Prevention and intervention in beginning reading: Two complex systems. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, *16*(2), 62–73.

Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D. B., Santory, L. E., Gentile, M., Rodrigues, C., & Kastner, P. (2025). The effects of advanced phonemic awareness instruction in first grade. *The Elementary School Journal*, *126*(2).

Craig, S. A. (2006). The effects of an adapted interactive writing intervention on kindergarten children's phonological awareness, spelling, and early reading development: A contextualized approach to instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *98*(4), 714.

Cremin, L. A. (1990). *Popular education and its discontents.* Harper & Row.

Cremin, T., & Scholes, L. (2024). Reading for pleasure: scrutinizing the evidence base–benefits, tensions and recommendations. *Language and Education*, *38*(4), 537–559.

Cress, S. W. (1998). A sense of story: Interactive journal writing in kindergarten. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *26*, 13–17.

Cross, D. R., & Paris, S. G. (1988). Developmental and instructional analyses of children's metacognition and reading comprehension. *Journal of educational psychology*, *80*(2), 131.

Crystal, D. (2008). *Txtng: The gr8 db8.* Oxford University Press.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience.* Harper & Row.

Cuban, L. (1990). Reforming again, again, and again. *Educational Researcher*, *19*(1), 3–13.

Cuban, L. (2018). *The flight of a butterfly or the path of a bullet? Using technology to transform teaching and learning*. Harvard Education Press.

Culham, R. (2003). *6+ 1 traits of writing: The complete guide*. Scholastic Inc.

Cummins, J. (2001). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society* (2nd ed.). California Association for Bilingual Education.

Cummins, S. (2013). *Close reading of informational texts: Assessment-driven instruction in grade 3–8*. Guilford Press.

Cunningham, A. E., & O'Donnel, C. R. (2012). Reading and vocabulary growth. In E. J. Kame'enui & J. F. Baumann (Eds.), *Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice* (2nd ed., pp. 256–279). Guilford Press.

Cunningham, P. (1990). The Names Test: A quick assessment of decoding ability. *The Reading Teacher*, *44*(2), 124–129.

Cunningham, P. M., & Cunningham, J. W. (1992). Making words: Enhancing the invented spelling-decoding connection. *The Reading Teacher*, *46*(2), 106–115.

Cunningham, P. M., Cunningham, J. W., Hall, D. P., & Moore, S. A. (2008). *Writing the Four-Blocks® Way, Grades K-6: The Four-Blocks® Literacy Model Book Series*. Carson-Dellosa Publishing. Change the citation in the text to Cunningham et al., 2008).

Curriculum Associates. (n.d.). *i-Ready diagnostic for reading* [Assessment software]. www.curriculumassociates.com

Dale, E., & Chall, J. (1948). A formula for predicting readability: Instructions. *Educational Research Bulletin*, *27*, 37–54.

Dale, E., & Chall, J. S. (1995). *Readability revisited: The new Dale-Chall readability formula*. Cambridge.

Daniels, H. (2002). *Literature circles: Voice and choice in the student-centered classroom.* Stenhouse.

Daniels, H. (2023). *Literature circles: Voice and choice in book clubs & reading groups*. Routledge.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *61*(1–2), 35–47.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2016). Research on teaching and teacher education and its influences on policy and practice. *Educational Researcher*, *45*(2), 83–91.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2026). Improving Student Achievement: What Read and Blue States Are Doing Right. *Forbes*, (March 5, 2026).

Dawson, N., Hsiao, Y., Banerji, N., Tan, A. W. M., & Nation, K. (2021). Features of lexical richness in children's books: Comparisons with child-directed speech. *Language Development Research, 1*(1), 9–53.

De Boer, H., Donker, A. S., Kostons, D. D., & Van der Werf, G. P. (2018). Long-term effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on student academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *24*, 98–115.

De Temple, J., & Snow, C. E. (2003). Learning words from books. In A. van Kleeck, S. A. Stahl, & E. B. Bauer (Eds.), *On reading books to children* (pp. 16–36). Erlbaum.

Delpit, L. D. (2006). *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom*. The New Press.

Delpit, L. D. (2018). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children. In E. B. Hilty (Ed.), *Thinking about schools* (pp. 157–175). Routledge.

Demarest, A. J., & Van Sickle, W. M. (1900). *New education readers: A synthetic and phonic word method: Book Four: Reading for the third year* (Vol. 1082). American Book Company.

Deno, S. (1991). Curriculum-based measurement: The emerging alternative. In J. Kramer (Ed.), *Curriculum-based assessment: Examining old problems, evaluating new solutions*. Erlbaum.

Deno, S. L. (2003). Developments in curriculum-based measurement. *The Journal of Special Education*, *37*(3), 184–192.

Derewianka, B. (1999). *Exploring how texts work.* Primary English Teaching Association.

DeStefano, D., & LeFevre, J. A. (2007). Cognitive load in hypertext reading: A review. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *23*(3), 1616–1641.

Dewey, G. (1970). *Relative frequencies of English spellings*. Teachers College Press.

Dewey. J. (1910). Language and the raining of thought. In *How we think*. D. C. Heath.

Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. Macmillan.

Dewitz, P. (1995). Reading law—Three suggestions for legal education. *University of Toledol La. Review*, *27*, 657.

Dewitz, P., Campbell, S., & Crusco, M. (2026). *Comprehension instruction in "High-Quality Instructional Programs"*. American Educational Research Association.

Dewitz, P., & Collinge, S. (2018). A new approach to comprehension instruction. Paper presented at the National Council of Teachers of English. Houston, TX.

Dewitz, P., & Collinge, S. (2019). A new approach to comprehension instruction. Paper presented at the National Council of Teachers of English. Houston, TX.

Dewitz, P., & Dewitz, P. K. (2003). They can read the words, but they can't understand: Refining comprehension assessment. *The Reading Teacher*, *56*(5), 422–435.

Dewitz, P., & Graves, M. F. (2014). Teaching for transfer in the common core era. *The Reading Teacher*, *68*(2), 149–158.

Dewitz, P., & Graves, M. F. (2024). Reevaluating and restructuring comprehension strategy instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *78*(1), 17–26.

Dewitz, P., & Jones, J. (2013). Using basal readers: From dutiful fidelity to intelligent decision making. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(5), 391–400.

Dewitz, P., Jones, J., & Leahy, S. (2009). Comprehension strategy instruction in core reading programs. *Reading Research Quarterly, 44*(2), 102–126.

Dewitz, P., Leahy, S. B., Jones, J., & Sullivan, P. M. (2010). *The essential guide to selecting and using core reading programs*. International Reading Association.

Dignath, C., & Büttner, G. (2008). Components of fostering self-regulated learning among students. A meta-analysis on intervention studies at primary and secondary school level. *Metacognition and Learning*, *3*(3), 231–264.

Doan, J. E., Grant, D., & Kaufman, J. H. (2023). *American*. RAND.

Dole, J. A., Duffy, G. G., & Pearson, P. D. (2019). Epilogue: Reflections on the gradual release of responsibility model: Where we've been and where we're going. In M. B. McVee, E. Ortlieb, J. S. Reichenberg, & P. D. Pearson (Eds), *The gradual release of responsibility in literacy research and practice* (pp. 245–263). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Dolezal, S. E., Welsh, L. M., Pressley, M., & Vincent, M. (2003). How do grade 3 teachers motivate their students? *Elementary School Journal, 103,* 239–267.

Donovan, C. A. (2001). Children's development and control of written story and informational genres: Insights from one elementary school. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *35*(3), 394–447.

Donovan, C. A., & Smolkin, L. B. (2002). Children's genre knowledge: An examination of K-5 students' performance on multiple tasks providing differing levels of scaffolding. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *37*(4), 428–465.

Dorfman, L. R., & Cappelli, R. (2017). *Mentor texts: Teaching writing through children's literature, K-6*. Stenhouse Publishers.

Dorn, L., & Soffos, C. (2023). *Scaffolding young writers: A writer's workshop approach*. Routledge.

Dreher, M. J., & Singer, H. (1980). Story grammar instruction is unnecessary for intermediate-grade students. *The Reading Teacher*, *34*(3), 261–268.

Duffy, G. G. (2009). *Explaining reading: A resource for teaching concepts, skills, and strategies.* Guilford Press.

Duin, A. H., & Graves, M. F. (1988). Teaching vocabulary as a writing prompt. *Journal of Reading, 22,* 204–212.

Duke, N. K. (2000). 3.6 minutes per day: The scarcity of informational texts in first grade. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *35*(2), 202–224.

Duke, N. K., & Cartwright, K. B. (2021). The science of reading progresses: Communicating advances beyond the simple view of reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S25–S44.

Duke, N. K., & Purcell-Gates, V. (2003). Genres at home and at school: Bridging the known to the new. *The Reading Teacher*, *57*(1), 30–37.

Duke, N. K., & Roberts, K. L. (2010). The genre-specific nature of reading comprehension. In D. Wyse, R. Andrews, & J. Hoffman (Eds), *The Routledge international handbook of English, language and literacy teaching* (pp. 74–83). Routledge.

Duke, N. K., Ward, A. E., & Pearson, P. D. (2021). The science of reading comprehension instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *74*(6), 663–672.

Dymock, S. (2007). Comprehension strategy instruction: Teaching narrative text structure awareness. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(2), 161–167.

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., Short, D., & Toppel, K. E. (2024). *Making content comprehensible for multilingual learners: The SIOP® model*. Pearson.

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., & Short, D. J. (2024). Making content comprehensible for elementary English learners: The SIOP model. BoD–Books on Demand.

Edmonds, M. S., Vaughn, S., Wexler, J., Reutebuch, C., Cable, A., Tackett, K. K., & Schnakenberg, J. W. (2009). A synthesis of reading interventions and effects on reading comprehension outcomes for older struggling readers. *Review of Educational Research*, *79*(1), 262–300.

EdReports. (2024). *State of the instructional materials report*. https://cdn.edreports.org/media/2024/10/EdReports_State_of_the_Instructional_Materials_Market_2023.pdf?_gl=1*6wtcd0*_gcl_au*NjU3Nzc5NDA0LjE3MzA4NTY3ODY

Eeds, M., & Wells, D. (1989). Grand conversations: An exploration of meaning construction in literature study groups. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *23*(1), 4–29.

Ehri, L. C. (2005). Learning to read words: Theory, findings, and issues. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *9*(2), 167–188.

Ehri, L. C. (2012). Word reading by sight and by analogy in beginning readers. In *Reading and spelling* (pp. 87–111). Routledge.

Ehri, L. C. (2014). Orthographic mapping in the acquisition of sight word reading, spelling memory, and vocabulary learning. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *18*(1), 5–21.

Ehri, L. C. (2015). How children learn to read words. In A. Pollatsek & R. Treiman (Eds), *The Oxford handbook of reading* (pp. 231–254). Oxford University Press.

Ehri, L. C. (2020). The science of learning to read words: A case for systematic phonics instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S45–S60.

Ehri, L. C. (2022). What teachers need to know and do to teach letter–sounds, phonemic awareness, word reading, and phonics. *The Reading Teacher*, *76*(1), 53–61.

Ehri, L. C., & McCormick, S. (1998). Phases of word learning: Implications for instruction with delayed and disabled readers. *Reading & Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*, *14*(2), 135–163.

Ehri, L. C., & Robbins, C. (1992). Beginners need some decoding skill to read words by analogy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 13–26.

Elbow, P. (1998). *Writing without teachers*. Oxford University Press.

Elbro, C. (2018). Knowledge-based inference making for reading comprehension: What to teach and what not. *Bulletin of Educational Psychology*, *49*(4), 701–713.

Elbro, C., & Buch-Iversen, I. (2013). Activation of background knowledge for inference making: Effects on reading comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *17*(6), 435–452.

Elleman, A. M. (2017). Examining the impact of inference instruction on the literal and inferential comprehension of skilled and less skilled readers: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *109*(6), 761.

Elleman, A. M., & Oslund, E. L. (2019). Reading comprehension research: Implications for practice and policy. *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *6*(1), 3–11.

Ellington, A. J. (2003). A meta-analysis of the effects of calculators on students' achievement and attitude levels in precollege mathematics classes. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 34*(5), 433–463.

Emig, J. (1971). *The composing process of twelfth graders.* National Council of Teachers of English.

Engle, R. W., & Conway, A. R. (2004). Working memory and comprehension. In K. Gilhooly & R. H. Logie (Eds), *Working memory and thinking* (pp. 73–97). Routledge.

Englert, C. S., Zhao, Y., Dunsmore, K., Collings, N. Y., & Wolbers, K. (2007). Scaffolding the writing of students with disabilities through procedural facilitation: Using an Internet-based technology to improve performance. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, *30*(1), 9–29.

Ericson, L., & Juliebo, M. F. (1998). *The phonological awareness handbook for kindergarten and primary teachers*. International Reading Association.

Every Student Succeeds Act, 20 U.S.C. § 6301 (2015).

Fawson, P. C., Ludlow, B. C., Reutzel, D. R., Sudweeks, R., & Smith, J. A. (2006). Examining the reliability of running records: Attaining generalizable results. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *100*(2), 113–126.

Fernald, A., Marchman, V. A., & Weisleder, A. (2012). SES differences in language processing skill and vocabulary are evident at 18 months. *Developmental Science, 16,* 234–248.

Fetterman, D. M. (1998). *Ethnography Step by step* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Filderman, M. J., Austin, C. R., Boucher, A. N., O'Donnell, K., & Swanson, E. A. (2022). A meta-analysis of the effects of reading comprehension interventions on the reading comprehension outcomes of struggling readers in third through 12th grades. *Exceptional Children*, *88*(2), 163–184.

Finn, B. (2015). Measuring motivation in low-stakes assessments. *ETS Research Report Series*, *2015*(2), 1–17.

Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2007). Implementing a schoolwide literacy framework: Improving achievement in an urban elementary school. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(1), 32–43.

Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2012). Close reading in elementary schools. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(3), 179–188.

Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2014). Close reading as an intervention for struggling middle school readers. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult literacy*, *57*(5), 367–376.

Fisher, D., Flood, J., Lapp, D., & Frey, N. (2004). Interactive read-alouds: Is there a common set of implementation practices? *The Reading Teacher*, *58*(1), 8–17.

Fisher, D., & Ivey, G. (2006). Evaluating the interventions for struggling adolescent readers. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *50*(3), 180–189.

Fitzgerald, J., & Graves, M. F. (2004). *Scaffolding reading experiences for English language learners*. Christopher-Gordon Publishers.

Flesch, R. (1955). *Why johnny can't read—And what you can do about it.* Harper.

Fletcher, R., & Portalupi, J. (2023). *Craft lessons: Teaching writing K-8*. Routledge.

Foorman, B. R., & Connor, C. M. (2011). Primary grade reading. In *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. IV, pp. 136–156). Routledge.

Foorman, B. R., Francis, D. J., Fletcher, J. M., Schatschneider, C., & Mehta, P. (1998). The role of instruction in learning to read: Preventing reading failure in at-risk children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*(1), 37.

Foorman, B. R., Schatschneider, C., Eakin, M. N., Fletcher, J. M., Moats, L. C., & Francis, D. J. (2006). The impact of instructional practices in grades 1 and 2 on reading and spelling achievement in high poverty schools. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *31*(1), 1–29.

Ford, M. P., & Opitz, M. F. (2008). A national survey of guided reading practices: What we can learn from primary teachers. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, *47*(4), 309–331.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (1996). *Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children.* Heinemann.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2001). *Guiding readers and writers: Grades 3–6*. Heinemann.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2006). *Teaching for comprehending and fluency: Thinking, talking and writing about reading*. Heinemann.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2012). Guided reading: The romance and the reality. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(4), 268–284.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2013). Guided reading: The romance and the reality. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(4), 268–284.

Fountas, I. C., Pinnell, G. S., & Le Verrier, R. (2012). *Guided reading*. International Reading Association.

Frayer, D. A., Frederick, W. D., & Klausmeier, H. J. (1969). *A schema for testing the level of concept mastery* (Working Paper No. 16). Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning.

Frith, U. (1986). A developmental framework for developmental dyslexia. *Annals of Dyslexia*, *36*, 67–81.

Fry, E. (1977). Fry's Readability Graph: Clarifications, validity, and extension to level 17. *Journal of Reading*, *21*(3), 242–252.

Frye, N. H. (1957). *Anatomy of criticism*. Princeton.

Fuchs, A., Radkowitsch, A., & Sommerhoff, D. (2024). Using learning progress monitoring to promote academic performance? A meta-analysis of the effectiveness. *Educational Research Review*, 100648.

Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., & Vaughn, S. (Eds.). (2008). *Response to intervention: A framework for reading educators*. International Reading Association.

Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (2011). *Using CBM for progress monitoring in reading*. National Center on Student Progress Monitoring.

Fukkink, R. G., & de Glopper, K. (1998). Effects of instruction in deriving word meanings from context: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 68,* 450–469.

Galda, L. (1998). Mirrors and windows: Reading as transformation. In T. Raphael & K. Au (Eds.), *Literature-based instruction: Reshaping the curriculum* (pp. 72–97). Christopher-Gordon.

Galda, L., Ash, G. E., & Cullinan, B. E. (2000). *The multidisciplinary nature of children's literature Reading Online, 4*(9).

Galda, L., & Cullinan, B. E. (2016). *Literature and the child* (7th ed.). Wadsworth.

Galda, L., & Graves, M. F. (2010). *Reading and responding in the middle grades: Approaches for all classrooms.* Allyn & Bacon.

Gambrell, L. B., & Mazzoni, S. A. (1999). Principles of best practice: Finding the common ground. In L. B. Gambrell, L. M. Morrow, S. B. Neuman, & M. Pressley (Eds.), *Best practices in literacy instruction* (pp. 11–21). Guilford Press.

Gamse, B. C., Jacob, R. T., Horst, M., Boulay, B., & Unlu, F. (2008). *Reading first impact study. Final report. NCEE 2009-4038*. National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

Garzón, J. (2025). Artificial intelligence in education: A systematic review of research trends and challenges. *Future Internet, 17*(8), 84.

Gaskins, I. W., Ehri, L. C., Cress, C., O'hara, C., & Donnelly, K. (1997). Analyzing words and making discoveries about the alphabetic system: Activities for beginning readers. *Language Arts*, *74*, 172–184.

Gearin, B., Petscher, Y., Stanley, C., Nelson, N. J., & Fien, H. (2021). Document analysis of state dyslexia legislation suggests likely heterogeneous effects on student and school outcomes. *Learning Disability Quarterly.* Advance online publication.

Gellert, A. S., & Elbro, C. (2013). Cloze tests may be quick, but are they dirty? Development and preliminary validation of a cloze test of reading comprehension. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *31*(1), 16–28.

Gersten, R., & Baker, S. (2000). What we know about effective instructional practices for English-language learners. *Exceptional Children, 66,* 454–470.

Gersten, R., Baker, S. K., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades*. IES Practice Guide. NCEE 2007-4011. What Works Clearinghouse.

Gersten, R., Compton, D., Connor, C. M., Dimino, J., Santoro, L., Linan-Thompson, S., & Tilly, W. D. (2009). *Assisting students struggling with reading: Response to intervention and multi-tier intervention for reading in the primary grades*. IES practice guide (NCEE 2009-4045). National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

Gillespie Rouse, A., Kiuhara, S. A., & Kara, Y. (2021). Writing-to-learn in elementary classrooms: A national survey of US teachers. *Reading and Writing*, *34*(9), 2381–2415.

Goldenberg, C. (2000). The voices of researchers: Conflict and consensus in reading research and reading policy. *The Reading Teacher*, *53*, 640–641.

Goldenberg, C. (2013). Unlocking the research on English Learners: What we know—And don't yet know—About effective instruction. *American Educator*, *37*(2), 4–11, 38. http://www.aft.org/periodical/american-educator/summer-2013/unlocking-research-english-learners

Goldenberg, C. (2015, July 10). Congress: Bilingualism is not a handicap. *Education Week*. Commentary published only online. https://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2015/congress-bilingualism-is-not-a-handicap.ht

Goldenberg, C. (2020). Reading wars, reading science, and English learners. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S131–S144.

Goldenberg, C. (2023). *The "bilingual brain" and reading research: Questions about teaching English Learners to read in English.* Colorin Colorado. https://www.colorincolorado.org/article/bilingual-brain-and-reading-research-questions-about-teaching-english-learners-read-english

Goldenberg, C., & Coleman, R. (2010). *Promoting academic achievement among English learners: A guide to the research*. Corwin Press.

Goldenberg, C., Tolar, T. D., Reese, L., Francis, D. J., Ray Bazán, A., & Mejía-Arauz, R. (2014). How important is teaching phonemic awareness to children learning to read in Spanish? *American Educational Research Journal*, *51*(3), 604–633.

González-Laguna, M. V., Fidalgo, R., López, P., & Rijlaarsdam, G. (2024). A review of effective technology-based writing interventions: A componential analysis. *Sustainability*, *16,* 3703.

Good, R. H. (2016, October). *DIBELS Next*. https://dibels.org/dibelsnext.html

Good, T., & Brophy, J. (2003). *Looking into classrooms* (9th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Goodman, K. (1986). *What's whole in whole language?* Heinemann.

Goodman, K. S. (1970). Psycholinguistic universals in the reading process. *Visible Language*, *4*(2), 103–110.

Goodman, K. S. (1976). Behind the eye: What happens in reading. In R. Ruddell, M. Ruddell, & H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (Vol. 2, pp. 470–496). International Reading Association.

Goodwin, A. P., & Ahn, S. (2013). A meta-analysis of morphological interventions in English: Effects on literacy outcomes for school-age children. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *17*(4), 257–285.

Gough, P. B., Juel, C., & Roper-Schneider, D. (1983). Code and cipher: A two-stage conception of initial reading acquisition. In *Searches for meaning in reading/language processing and instruction* (pp. 207–211).

Gough, P. B., & Walsh, M. A. (1991). Chinese, Phoenicians, and the orthographic cipher of English. In S. Brady & D. Shankweiler (Eds.), *Phonological processes in literacy* (pp. 199–209). Erlbaum Associates.

Graesser, A. C., McNamara, D. S., & Louwerse, M. M. (2003). *What do readers need to learn in order to process coherence relations in narrative and expository text?* In A. P. Sweet & C. E. Snow (Eds.), *Rethinking reading comprehension* (pp. 82–98). Guilford Press.

Graesser, A. C., Singer, M., & Trabasso, T. (1994). Constructing inferences during narrative text comprehension. *Psychological Review*, *101*(3), 371.

Graham, S. (2020). The sciences of reading and writing must become more fully integrated. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S35–S44.

Graham, S., & Alves, R. A. (2021). Research and teaching writing. *Reading and Writing*, *34*(7), 1613–1621.

Graham, S., Bollinger, A., Olson, C. B., D'Aoust, C., MacArthur, C., McCutchen, D., & Olinghouse, N. (2012). *Teaching elementary school students to be effective writers: A practice guide*. NCEE 2012-4058. What Works Clearinghouse.

Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2017). Reading and writing connections: How writing can build better readers (and vice versa). In C. Ng & B. Bartlett (Eds), *Improving reading and reading engagement in the 21st century: International research and innovation* (pp. 333–350). Springer.

Graham, S., & Hebert, M. (2010). *Writing to read: Evidence for how writing can improve reading: A report from Carnegie Corporation Time to Act Report.* Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Graham, S., & Hebert, M. (2011). Writing to read: A meta-analysis of the impact of writing and writing instruction on reading. *Harvard Educational Review*, *81*(4), 710–744.

Graham, S., Liu, X., Aitken, A., Ng, C., Bartlett, B., Harris, K. R., & Holzapfel, J. (2018). Effectiveness of literacy programs balancing reading and writing instruction: A meta-analysis. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *53*(3), 279–304.

Graham, S., McKeown, D., Kiuhara, S., & Harris, K. R. (2012). A meta-analysis of writing instruction for students in the elementary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *104*(4), 879.

Graves, D. H. (1991). *Writing: Teachers and children at work.* Heinemann.

Graves, M. (2022). *Vocabulary instruction.* Routledge Resources Online: Education. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781138609877-REE95-1

Graves, M. F. (2016). *The vocabulary book: Learning and instruction*. Teachers College Press.

Graves, M. F., Baumann, J. F., Blachowicz, C. L. Z., Manyak, P., Bates, A., Cieply, C., Davis, J. R., & Von Gunten, H. (2013). Words, words everywhere; But which ones do we teach. *The Reading Teacher, 67*, 333–346.

Graves, M. F., & Dykstra, R. (1997). Contextualizing the first-grade studies: What is the best way to teach children to read? *Reading Research Quarterly, 32,* 342–344.

Graves, M. F., Flynn, K., & Ringstaff, C. (2020). Reflections on seven years of strategy instruction. *Journal of Education, 201*(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/0022057420914912

Graves, M. F., & Graves, B. B. (2003). *Scaffolding reading experiences: Designs for student success* (2nd ed.). Christopher-Gordon.

Graves, M. F., & Philippot, R. A. (2001). High interest-easy reading book series. In B. E. Cullinan & D. G. Person (Eds.), *The encyclopedia of children's literature* (pp. 194–215). Continuum.

Graves, M. F., & Slater, W. H. (2016). Vocabulary instruction in content areas. In D. Lapp, J. Flood, & N. Farnan (Eds.), *Content area reading and learning: Instructional strategies* (3rd ed.). Erlbaum.

Graves, M. F., Sales, G. C., & Ruda, M. (2008). *The first 4,000 words.* Seward Inc.

Graves, M. F., Schneider, S., & Ringstaff, C. (2018). Empowering students with word-learning strategies: Teach a child to fish. *The Reading Teacher, 71*, 533–543.

Graves, M. F., & Watts-Taffe, S. W. (2008). For the love of words: Fostering word consciousness in young readers. *The Reading Teacher, 62,* 185–193.

Greenberg, M. T. (2023). *Evidence for social and emotional learning in schools*. Learning Policy Institute. https://doi.org/10.54300/928.269

Greenleaf, C., & Valencia, S. (2017). Missing in action: Learning from texts in subject-matter classrooms. In K. A. Hinchman & D. A. Appleman (Eds), *Adolescent literacies: A handbook of practice-based research* (pp. 235–256). Guilford Press.

Grigorenko, E. L., Compton, D. L., Fuchs, L. S., Wagner, R. K., Willcutt, E. G., & Fletcher, J. M. (2020). Understanding, educating, and supporting children with specific learning disabilities: 50 Years of science and practice. *American Psychologist*, *75*(1), 37.

Grønli, K. M., Walgermo, B. R., McTigue, E. M., & Uppstad, P. H. (2024). Teachers' feedback on oral reading: A critical review of its effects and the use of theory in research. *Educational Psychology Review*, *36*(4), 121.

Grønli, K. M., Walgermo, B. R., McTigue, E. M., & Uppstad, P. H. (2025). Feedback practices on young students' oral reading: A systematic review. *Review of Educational Research*, 00346543241306070.

Guthrie, J. E., & Wigfield, A. (2024). Roles of motivation and engagement in teaching the English language arts. In D. Fisher & D. Lapp (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (5th ed., pp. 267–293). Routledge.

Guthrie, J. T., & Anderson, E. (1999). Engagement in reading: Processes of motivated, strategic, knowledgeable, social readers. In J. T. Guthrie & D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), *Engaged reading: Processes, practices, and policy implications* (pp. 17–45). Teachers College Press.

Guthrie, J. T., Van Meter, P., Hancock, G. R., Alao, S., Anderson, E., & McCann, A. (1998). Does concept-oriented reading

instruction increase strategy use and conceptual learning from text? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*(2), 261.

Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 403–424). Erlbaum.

Guthrie, J. T., Wigfield, A., Barbosa, P., Perencevich, K. C., Taboada, A., Davis, M. H., Scaffidi, N. T., & Tonks, S. (2004). Increasing reading comprehension and engagement through concept-oriented reading instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *96*(3), 403.

Gutierrez, K. D. (2005). The persistence of inequality: English-language learners and educational reform. In J. Flood & P. L. Anders (Eds.), *Literacy development of students in urban schools: Research and policy* (pp. 288–304). International Reading Association.

Hacker, D. J., & Tenent, A. (2002). Implementing reciprocal teaching in the classroom: Overcoming obstacles and making modifications. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(4), 699.

Haidt, J. (2024). *The anxious generation*. Penguin Press.

Hall, C., Dahl-Leonard, K., Cho, E., Solari, E. J., Capin, P., Conner, C. L., Henry, A. R., Cook, L., Hayes, L., Vargas, I., Richmond, C., & Kehoe, K. F. (2023). Forty years of reading intervention research for elementary students with or at risk for dyslexia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(2), 285–312.

Hall, L. A. (2005). Teachers and content area reading: Attitudes, beliefs and change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *21*(4), 403–414.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Webster, J. J. (2009). *Systemic functional linguistics*. Continuum.

Hanford, E. (2018). *Hard words: Why aren't kids being taught to read*. https://www.apmreports.org/episode/2018/09/10/hard-words-why-american-kids-arent-being-taught-to-read

Hanford, E. (2019a). There is a right way to teach reading, and Mississippi knows it. *The New York Times*, December 6.

Hanford, E. (2019b). Why millions of kids can't read and what better teaching can do about it. *NPR*, January 2.

Hanford, E. (Host). (2022). *Sold a story: How teaching kids to read went so wrong*. (Audio podcast). https://features.apmreports.org/sold-a-story/

Hansen, J., & Pearson, P. D. (1981). The effects of inference training and practice on young children's reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *16*(3), 391–417.

Hare, V. C., Rabinowitz, M., & Schieble, K. M. (1989). Text effects on main idea comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *24*(1), 72–88.

Harris, Z. S. (1954). Distributional structure. *Word*, *10*(2–3), 146–162.

Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experiences of young American children.* Paul H. Brookes.

Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (2003, Spring). The early catastrophe: The 30 million word gap. *American Educator*, *27*(1), 4–9.

Hart, B., Risley, T. R., & Kirby, J. R. (1997). Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children. *Canadian Journal of Education*, *22*(3), 323.

Harvey, S., & Goudvis, A. (2023). *Strategies that work: Teaching comprehension for understanding and engagement*. Stenhouse Publishers.

Harwayne, S. (2023). *Above and beyond the writing workshop*. Routledge.

Hasbrouch, J., & Tindal, G. (2017). *Oral reading fluency data*. https://www.readnaturally.com/article/hasbrouck-tindal-oral-reading-fluency-data-2017

Hasbrouck, J. (2022). *The science of reading 2.0*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BVBlywaNI9o

Hasbrouck, J., & Tindal, G. (2017). *An update to compiled ORF norms* (No. 1702, pp. 1–17). Technical report.

Hasbrouck, J., & Tindal, G. A. (2006). Oral reading fluency norms: A valuable assessment tool for reading teachers. *The Reading Teacher*, *59*(7), 636–644.

Hattan, C. (2019). Prompting rural students' use of background knowledge and experience to support comprehension of unfamiliar content. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *54*(4), 451–455.

Hattan, C. (2024). Supporting students' knowledge activation before, during, and after reading. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(6), 861–869.

Hattan, C., & Alexander, P. A. (2020). Prior knowledge and its activation in elementary classroom discourse. *Reading and Writing*, *33*(6), 1617–1647.

Hattan, C., & Alexander, P. A. (2021). The effects of knowledge activation training on rural middle-school students' expository text comprehension: A mixed-methods study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *113*(5), 879.

Hattan, C., Alexander, P. A., & Lupo, S. M. (2024). Leveraging what students know to make sense of texts: What the research says about prior knowledge activation. *Review of Educational Research*, *94*(1), 73–111.

Hattan, C., & Lupo, S. M. (2020). Rethinking the role of knowledge in the literacy classroom. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S283–S298.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, *77*(1), 81–112.

Heath, S. B. (1982). What no bedtime story means: Narrative skills at home and school. *Language in Society*, *11*(1), 49–76.

Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Heath, S. B. (2012). *Words at work and play: Three decades in family and community life*. Cambridge University Press.

Hebert, M., Bohaty, J. J., Nelson, J. R., & Brown, J. (2016). The effects of text structure instruction on expository reading comprehension: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *108*(5), 609.

Hebert, M., Simpson, A., & Graham, S. (2013). Comparing effects of different writing activities on reading comprehension: A meta-analysis. *Reading and Writing*, *26*(1), 111–138.

Heckelman, R. G. (1969). A neurological-impress method of remedial-reading instruction. *Academic Therapy Quarterly, 4*, 277–282.

Heimlich, J. E., & Pittelman, S. D. (1986). *Semantic mapping: Classroom applications.* International Reading Association.

Hiebert, E. H. (2005). The effects of text difficulty on second graders' fluency development. *Reading Psychology, 26*(2), 183-209.

Heins-Israelson, M. (2015). The App Map: A tool for systematic evaluation of apps for early literacy learning. *The Reading Teacher, 69*(3), 339–349.

Henry, L. A. (2006). SEARCHing for an answer: The critical role of new literacies while reading on the Internet. *The Reading Teacher*, *59*(7), 614–627.

Hidi, S. (2001). Interest, reading, and learning: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Educational Psychology Review*, *13*(3), 191–209.

Hidi, S., & Renninger, K. A. (2006). The four-phase model of interest development. *Educational Psychologist*, *41*(2), 111–127.

Hiebert, E. F. (2024, December 4–7). *Terminology, texts, and teachers in an Al world: Possibilities and problems*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Literacy Research Association, Atlanta, GA.

Hiebert, E. H. (1994). Reading recovery in the United States: What difference does it make to an age cohort? *Educational Researcher, 23*(9), 15–25.

Hiebert, E. H. (1999). Texts matters in learning to read. *The Reading Teacher*, *52*(6), 552–569.

Hiebert, E. H. (2010). Understanding the word-level features of texts for students who depend on schools to become literate. In M. G. McKeown & L. Kucan (Eds.), *Bringing reading research to life* (pp. 207–231). Guilford Press.

Hiebert, E. H. (Ed.). (2009). *Reading more, reading better*. Guilford Press.

Hiebert, E. H. (2013). Core vocabulary and the challenge of complex text. In S. B. Neuman & L. B. Gambrell (Eds), *Quality reading instruction in the Age of Common Core Standards* (pp. 149–161). International Reading Association.

Hiebert, E. H. (2014). *Changing readers, changing texts: Beginning reading texts from 1960 to 2010*. TextProject & University of California.

Hiebert, E. H. (2024). Enhancing opportunities for decoding and knowledge building through beginning texts. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(6), 965–974.

Hiebert, E. H. (2025). Flattening the Developmental Staircase: Lexical Complexity Progression in Elementary Reading Texts Across Six Decades. *Education Sciences, 15*(11), 1546.

Hiebert, E. H., & Martin, L. A. (2015). Changes in the texts of reading instruction during the past 50 years. In P. D. Pearson & E. H. Hiebert (Eds.), *Research-based practices for teaching common core literacy* (pp. 237–257). International Literacy Association.

Hiebert, E. H., & Mesmer, H. A. (2013). Upping the ante of text complexity in the Common Core State Standards: Examining its potential impact on young readers. *Educational Researcher, 42*(1), 44–51.

Hiebert, E. H., & Tortorelli, L. S. (2022). The role of word-, sentence-, and text-level variables in predicting guided reading levels of kindergarten and first-grade texts. *The Elementary School Journal*, *122*(4), 557–590.

Higham, J. (1988). *Strangers in the land: Patterns of American nativism, 1860–1925*. Rutgers University Press.

Hill, D., Ameenuddin, N., Reid Chassiakos, Y. L., Cross, C., Hutchinson, J., Levine, A., Boyd, R., Mendelson, R, Moreno, M., & Swanson, W. S. (2016). Media and young minds. *Pediatrics*, *138*(5), e20162591.

Hirsch, E. D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge of words and the world. *American Educator*, *27*(1), 10–13.

Hirsch, E. D. (2019). *Why knowledge matters: Rescuing our children from failed educational theories*. Harvard Education Press.

Hjetland, H. N., Brinchmann, E. I., Scherer, R., Hulme, C., & Melby-Lervåg, M. (2020). Preschool pathways to reading comprehension: A systematic meta-analytic review. *Educational Research Review*, *30*, 100323.

Hoffman, J. V. (2017). What if "just right" is just wrong? The unintended consequences of leveling readers. *The Reading Teacher, 71*(3), 265–274.

Hoffman, J. V., McCarthey, S. J., Abbott, J., Christian, C., Corman, L., Curry, C., Dressman, M., Elliot, B., & Stahle, D. (1994). So what's new in the new basals? A focus on first grade. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *26*(1), 47–73.

Hoffman, J. V., Sailors, M., Duffy, G. R., & Beretvas, S. N. (2004). Effective elementary classroom literacy environment: Examining the validity of the TEX-IN3 observation system. *Journal of Literacy Research, 36,* 303–334.

Hoover, W. A., & Gough, P. B. (1990). The simple view of reading. *Reading and writing*, *2*(2), 127–160.

Houghton Mifflin Harcourt. (2023). *Into reading* (2020). Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Howell, E., Butler, T., & Reinking, D. (2017). Integrating multimodal arguments into high school writing instruction. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *49*(2), 181–209.

Huey, E. B. (1908). *The psychology and pedagogy of reading*. MIT Press.

Hutchison, A. C., Woodward, L., & Colwell, J. (2016). What are preadolescent readers doing online? An examination of upper elementary students' reading, writing, and communication in digital spaces. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *51*(4), 435–454.

Hwang, H., & Duke, N. K. (2020). Content counts and motivation matters: Reading comprehension in third-grade students who are English learners. *AERA Open*, *6*(1), 2332858419899075.

Hwang, H., Cabell, S. Q., & Joyner, R. E. (2020). *Effects of integrated literacy and content-area instruction on comprehension and vocabulary in the elementary years: A meta-analysis*. [Manuscript submitted for publication]. Florida Center for Reading Research, Florida State University.

Hwang, H., McMaster, K. L., & Kendeou, P. (2023). A longitudinal investigation of directional relations between domain knowledge and reading in the elementary years. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(1), 59–77.

Ihnot, C. (2004). *Read Naturally* (Software ed., version 2.0). Read Naturally.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990, 20U.S.C. et seg.

International Reading Association. (1997). *We love to read beary much*. International Literacy Association.

Invernizzi, M., Meier, J., Swank, L., & Juel, C. (2015). *PALS: Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening*. University of Virginia Printing Services.

Irwin, V., Zhang, J., Wang, X., Hein, S., Wang, K., Roberts, A., York, C., Barmer, A., Bullock Mann, F., Dilig, R., Parker, S., Nachazel, T., Barnett, M., & Purcell, S. (2021). *Report on the Condition of Education 2021*. NCES 2021-144. National Center for Education Statistics.

Iversen, S., & Tunmer, W. E. (1993). Phonological processing skills and the Reading Recovery Program. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *85*(1), 112.

Jabr, F. (2013). Why the brain prefers paper. *Scientific American*, *309*(5), 48–53.

January, S. A. A., & Klingbeil, D. A. (2020). Universal screening in grades K-2: A systematic review and meta-analysis of early reading curriculum-based measures. *Journal of School Psychology*, *82*, 103–122.

Jenkins, J. R., Peyton, J. A., Sanders, E. A., & Vadasy, P. F. (2004). Effects of reading decodable texts in supplemental first-grade tutoring. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *8*(1), 53–85.

Jenkins, J., Schulze, M., Marti, A., & Harbaugh, A. G. (2017). Curriculum-based measurement of reading growth: Weekly versus intermittent progress monitoring. *Exceptional Children*, *84*(1), 42–54.

Jensen, B. (2021). Advancing the science of teaching reading equitably. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S69–S84.

Johnson, D. D., & Pearson, P. D. (1975). Skills management systems: A critique. *The Reading Teacher*, *28*(8), 757–764.

Johnson, D. D., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). *Teaching reading vocabulary* (2nd ed.). Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Johnson, D. D., Pittelman, S. D., & Heimlich, J. E. (1986). Semantic mapping. *The Reading Teacher*, *39*(8), 778–783.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1989). *Cooperation and competition: Theory and research.* Interaction Book Company.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2002). Teaching students to resolve their own and their schoolmates' conflicts. *Counseling and Human Development, 34*(6), 1–12.

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. J. (1994). *The new circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom.* Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Johnston, F. R. (2000). Word learning in predictable text. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*, 248–255.

Johnston, P. H., & Winograd, P. N. (1985). Passive failure in reading. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 17,* 279–301

Joseph, L. M., Alber-Morgan, S., Cullen, J., & Rouse, C. (2016). The effects of self-questioning on reading comprehension: A literature review. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *32*(2), 152–173.

Juel, C. (1988). Learning to read and write: A longitudinal study of 54 children from first through fourth grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *80*(4), 437–447.

Juel, C. (1990). Effects of reading group assignment on reading development in first and second grade. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 22,* 223–254.

Juel, C. (1995). The messenger may be wrong, but the message may be right. *Journal of Research in Reading*, *18*, 146–146.

Juel, C. (2005). The impact of early school experiences on initial reading. In D. K. Dickinson & S. B. Neuman (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research* (Vol. 2, pp. 410–426). Guilford Press.

Juel, C., & Minden-Cupp, C. (2000). Learning to read words: Linguistic units and instructional strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly, 35*(4), 458–492.

Juel, C., Biancarosa, G., Coker, D., & Deffes, R. (2003). Walking with Rosie: A cautionary tale of early reading instruction. *Educational Leadership*, *60*(7), 12–18.

Juel, C., Griffith, P. L., & Gough, P. B. (1986). Acquisition of literacy: A longitudinal study of children in first and second grade. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78, 243–255.*

Juel, C., & Roper/Schneider, D. (1985). The influence of basal readers on first grade reading. *Reading Research Quarterly, 18,* 306–327.

Kaefer, T. (2020). When did you learn it? How background knowledge impacts attention and comprehension in read-aloud activities. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S173–S183.

Kalantzis, M., & Cope, B. (2025). Literacy in the time of Artificial Intelligence. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *60*(1), e591.

Kambach, A. E., & Mesmer, H. A. (2024). Comprehension for emergent readers: Revisiting the reading rope. *Reading Teacher*, *77*(6).

Kaminski, R. A., Good, R. H., Baker, D., Cummings, K., Dufour-Martel, C., Fleming, K., Knutson, N., Powell-Smith, K. A., & Wallin, J. (2006). *Position paper on use of DIBELS for diverse learners*. Dynamic Measurement Group.

Karchmer, R. A., Mallette, M. H., Kara-Soteriou, J., & Leu Jr, D. J. (2005). *Innovative approaches to literacy education: Using the internet to support new literacies*. International Reading Association.

Kaufman, G., & Flanagan, M. (2016, May). High-low split: Divergent cognitive construal levels triggered by digital and non-digital platforms. In *Proceedings of the 2016 CHI conference on human factors in computing systems* (pp. 2773–2777).

Kearns, D. M. (2015). How elementary-age children read polysyllabic polymorphemic words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *107*(2), 364.

Kearns, D. M. (2020). Does English have useful syllable division patterns? *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S145–S160.

Kearns, D. M., & Cooper Borkenhagen, M. J. (2024). Following the rules in an unruly writing system: The cognitive science of learning to read English. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(5), 712–726.

Kearns, D. M., & Hiebert, E. H. (2022). The word complexity of primary-level texts: Differences between first and third grade in widely used curricula. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *57*(1), 255–285.

Keenan, J. M., Betjemann, R. S., & Olson, R. K. (2008). Reading comprehension tests vary in the skills they assess: Differential dependence on decoding and oral comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *12*(3), 281–300.

Kehret, P. (1998). *Earthquake terror*. Penguin Putnam Books.

Kenavey, L. A. (2016). *A longitudinal investigation of content, resources, and instructional approaches in a basal reading series within a research and policy context*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Pittsburgh.

Kendeou, P., & O'Brien, E. J. (2014). The knowledge revision components (KReC) framework: Processes and mechanisms. In D. N. Rapp & J. L. G. Braasch (Eds.), *Processing inaccurate information: Theoretical and applied perspectives from cognitive science and the educational sciences* (pp. 353–377). The MIT Press.

Kendeou, P., Rapp, D. N., & van den Broek, P. (2003). The influence of reader's prior knowledge on text comprehension and learning from text. *Progress in Education*, *13*, 189–209.

Kendeou, P., Van Den Broek, P., Helder, A., & Karlsson, J. (2014). A cognitive view of reading comprehension: Implications for reading difficulties. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, *29*(1), 10–16.

Kidd, D. C., & Castano, E. (2013). Reading literary fiction improves theory of mind. *Science*, *342*(6156), 377–380.

Kieffer, M. J., & Lesaux, N. K. (2007). Breaking down words to build meaning: Morphology, vocabulary, and reading comprehension in the urban classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(2), 134–144.

Kim, J. S. (2008). Research and the reading wars. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *89*(5), 372–375.

Kim, J. S., Burkhauser, M. A., Mesite, L. M., Asher, C. A., Relyea, J. E., Fitzgerald, J., & Elmore, J. (2021). Improving reading comprehension, science domain knowledge, and reading engagement through a first-grade content literacy intervention. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *113*(1), 3.

Kim, J., Gilbert, J., Yu, Q., & Gale, C. (2021). Measures matter: A meta-analysis of the effects of educational apps on preschool to grade 3 children's literacy and math skills. *Aera Open*, *7*, 23328584211004183.

Kim, J. S., Gilbert, J. B., Relyea, J. E., Rich, P., Scherer, E., Burkhauser, M. A., & Tvedt, J. N. (2024). Time to transfer: Long-term effects of a sustained and spiraled content literacy intervention in the elementary grades. *Developmental Psychology*, *60*(7), 1279–1297.

Kim, J. S., & Quinn, D. M. (2013). The effects of summer reading on low-income children's literacy achievement from kindergarten to grade 8: A meta-analysis of classroom and home interventions. *Review of Educational Research*, *83*(3), 386–431.

Kim, J. S., & White, T. G. (2008). Scaffolding voluntary summer reading for children in grades 3 to 5: An experimental study. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *12*(1), 1–23.

Kim, J. S., & White, T. G. (2014). *Replicating the effects of a scaled-up, teacher-scaffolded voluntary summer reading program*. Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.

Kim, Y. S., & Snow, C. (2021). *The science of reading is incomplete without the science of Teaching Reading*. Grantee Submission.

Kim, Y. S. G. (2015). Developmental, component-based model of reading fluency: An investigation of predictors of word-reading fluency, text-reading fluency, and reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(4), 459–481.

Kim, Y.-S. G., Boyle, H. N., Zuilkowski, S. S., & Nakamura, P. (2016). *Landscape report on early grade literacy*. USAID.

Kim, J. S., Gilbert, J. B., Relyea, J. E., Rich, P., Scherer, E., Burkhauser, M. A., & Tvedt, J. N. (2024). Time to transfer: Long-term effects of a sustained and spiraled content literacy intervention in the elementary grades. *Developmental Psychology*, *60*(7), 1279.

Kintsch, W. (1998). *Comprehension: A paradigm for cognition*. Cambridge University Press.

Kintsch, W. (2004). The construction-integration model of text comprehension and its implications for instruction. *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, *5*, 1270–1328.

Kintsch, W. (2004). The construction-integration model of text comprehension and its implications for instruction. In R. Ruddell & N. Unrau (Eds.) *Theoretical models and processes of reading*, *5*, 1270–1328. International Reading Association.

Kintsch, W., & Kintsch, E. (2005). Comprehension. In S. G. Paris & S. A. Stahl (Eds), *Children's reading comprehension and assessment* (pp. 89–110). Routledge.

Kirby, J. R., & Savage, R. S. (2008). Can the simple view handle the complexities of reading? *Literacy*, *42*(2), 75–82.

Kirsch, I., & Jungeblut, A. (1986). *Literacy: Profiles of America's young adults*. National Assessment of Educational Progress and Educational Testing Service.

Klingbeil, D. A., McComas, J. J., Burns, M. K., & Helman, L. (2015). Comparison of predictive validity and diagnostic accuracy of screening measures of reading skills. *Psychology in the Schools*, *52*(5), 500–514.

Klingner, J. K., & Vaughn, S. (1996). Reciprocal teaching of reading comprehension strategies for students with learning disabilities who use English as a second language. *Elementary School Journal, 96*(3), 275–293. https://doi.org/10.1086/461828

Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., Boardman, A., & Swanson, E. (2012). *Teaching reading comprehension to students with learning difficulties*. Guilford Press.

Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., & Schumm, J. S. (1998). Collaborative strategic reading during social studies in heterogeneous fourth-grade classrooms. *The Elementary School Journal*, *99*(1), 3–22.

Kohnen, A. M., Mertens, G. E., & Boehm, S. M. (2020). Can middle schoolers learn to read the Web like experts? Possibilities and limits of a strategy-based intervention. *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, *12*(2), 64–79.

Kois, D. (2024). Not lost in a book. *Slate*. https://slate.com/culture/2024/05/kids-reading-fun-books-decline-by-nine-crisis.html

Konopka, C. L., Adaime, M. B., & Mosele, P. H. (2015). Active teaching and learning methodologies: Some considerations. *Creative Education*, *6*(14), 1536–1545.

Koretz, D. (2008). "*Measuring up." What educational testing tells us*. Harvard University Press.

Koretz, D. (2017). *The testing charade. Pretending to make schools better*. University of Chicago Press.

Kosmyna, N., Hauptmann, E., Yuan, Y. T., Situ, J., Liao, X. H., Beresnitzky, A. V., Braunstein, I., & Maes, P. (2025). Your brain on ChatGPT: Accumulation of cognitive debt when using an AI assistant for essay writing task. *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:2506.08872, *4*.

Kraft, M. A., & Novicoff, S. (2024). Time in school: A conceptual framework, synthesis of the causal research, and empirical exploration. *American Educational Research Journal*, *61*(4), 724–766.

Krashan, S. (2004). False claims about literacy development. *Educational Leadership*, *61*(6), 18–21.

Kuhn, M., Rasinski, T., & Zimmerman, B. (2014). Integrated fluency instruction: Three approaches for working with struggling readers. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *7*(1), 71–82.

Kuhn, M. R. (2005). A comparative study of small group fluency instruction. *Reading Psychology*, *26*(2), 127–146.

Kuhn, M. R. (2020). Whole class or small group fluency instruction: A tutorial of four effective approaches. *Education Sciences*, *10*(5), 145.

Kuhn, M. R., & Morrow, L. M. (2003). Taking computers out of the corner: Making technology work for struggling readers. In R. L. McCormack & J. R. Paratore (Eds), *After early intervention, then what* (pp. 172–189). International Reading Association.

Kuhn, M. R., Schwanenflugel, P. J., & Meisinger, E. B. (2010). Aligning theory and assessment of reading fluency: Automaticity, prosody, and definitions of fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *45*(2), 230–251.

Kuhn, M. R., & Stahl, S. A. (2003). Fluency: A review of developmental and remedial practices. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*, 3–21.

Labaree, D. F. (2010). How Dewey lost: The victory of David Snedden and social efficiency in the reform of American education. In *Pragmatism and modernities* (pp. 163–188). Brill.

Labbo, L. D., Love, M. S., & Ryan, T. (2007). A vocabulary flood: Making words "sticky" with computer-response activities. *The Reading Teacher*, *60*(6), 582–588.

LaBerge, D., & Samuels, S. J. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. *Cognitive Psychology*, *6*, 293–323.

Lane, B. (2015). After the END. *Teaching and learning creative revision.* Heinemann.

Langer, J. (1998). Thinking and doing literature: An eight-year study. *English Journal*, *87*(2), 16–23.

Language and Reading Research Consortium. (2015). Learning to read: Should we keep things simple? *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(2), 151–169.

Le Bigot, L. L., & Rouet, J. F. (2007). The impact of presentation format, task assignment, and prior knowledge on students' comprehension of multiple online documents. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *39*(4), 445–470.

Leavitt, J. (1832). *Easy lessons in reading*. J. and J. W. Prentiss.

Lee, H., Chung, H. Q., Zhang, Y., Abedi, J., & Warschauer, M. (2020). The effectiveness and features of formative assessment in US K-12 education: A systematic review. *Applied Measurement in Education*, *33*(2), 124–140.

Lems, K. (2011). Pun work helps English learners get the joke. *The Reading Teacher*, *65*(3), 197–202.

Lenski, S. D., Ehlers-Zavala, F., Daniel, M. C., & Sun-Irminger, X. (2006). Assessing English-Language learners in mainstream classrooms. *The Reading Teacher, 60*(1), 24-34.

Lepore, J. (2018). *These truths: History of the United States*. W.W. Norton & Company.

Leslie, L., & Allen, L. (1999). Factors that predict success in an early literacy intervention project. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *34*(4), 404–424.

Leslie, L., & Caldwell, J. (2020). *The qualitative reading inventory-7*. Pearson.

Lesaux, N. K., & Siegel, L. S. (2003). The development of reading in children who speak English as a second language. *Developmental psychology, 39*(6), 1005.

Leu, D. J., Forzani, E., Burlingame, C., Kulikowich, J., Sedransk, N., Coiro, J., & Kennedy, C. (2013). The new literacies of online research and comprehension: Assessing and preparing students for the 21st century with Common Core State Standards. *Quality Reading Instruction in the Age of Common Core Standards*, *219*, 236.

Leu, D. J., Forzani, E., Rhoads, C., Maykel, C., Kennedy, C., & Timbrell, N. (2015). The new literacies of online research and comprehension: Rethinking the reading achievement gap. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(1), 37–59.

Leu, D. J., Jr, & Kinzer, C. K. (2000). The convergence of literacy instruction with networked technologies for information and communication. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *35*(1), 108–127.

Leu, D. J., Kinzer, C. K., Coiro, J., Castek, J., & Henry, L. A. (2017). New literacies: A dual-level theory of the changing nature of literacy, instruction, and assessment. *Journal of Education*, *197*(2), 1–18.

Leu, D. J., Kinzer, C. K., Coiro, J., Castek, J., & Henry, L. A. (2018). New literacies: A dual-level theory of the changing nature of literacy, instruction, and assessment. In M. Sailors & D. E. Alverman (Eds), *Theoretical models and processes of literacy* (pp. 319–346). Routledge.

Levesque, K. C., Kieffer, M. J., & Deacon, S. H. (2019). Inferring meaning from meaningful parts: The contributions of morphological skills to the development of children's reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *54*(1), 63–80.

Lexia Learning, Inc. (2019). *Lexia RAPID Assessment technical manual for RAPID Version 5.0: Grades 3–12*. Lexia Learning.

Liebfreund, M. D. (2021). Cognitive and motivational predictors of narrative and informational text comprehension. *Reading Psychology*, *42*(2), 177–196.

Link, L. J., & Guskey, T. R. (2022). Is standards-based grading effective?. *Theory Into Practice*, *61*(4), 406–417.

Lipnevich, A. A., & Panadero, E. (2021, December). A review of feedback models and theories: Descriptions, definitions, and conclusions. In D. Trohler, T. Schlag, & F. Osterwalder (Eds), *Frontiers in education* (Vol. 6, p. 720195). Frontiers.

Logan, J. A., Piasta, S. B., Purtell, K. M., Nichols, R., & Schachter, R. E. (2024). Early childhood language gains, kindergarten readiness, and Grade 3 reading achievement. *Child Development*, *95*(2), 609–624.

Longman. (2000). *Longman American idioms dictionary*. Pearson Education.

Lonigan, C. J., Burgess, S. R., & Schatschneider, C. (2018). Examining the simple view of reading with elementary school children: Still simple after all these years. *Remedial and Special Education*, *39*(5), 260–273.

Lovett, M. W., Frijters, J. C., Wolf, M., Steinbach, K. A., Sevcik, R. A., & Morris, R. D. (2017). Early intervention for children at risk for reading disabilities: The impact of grade at intervention and individual differences on intervention outcomes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *109*(7), 889.

Lupo, S. M., Berry, A., Thacker, E., Sawyer, A., & Merritt, J. (2020). Rethinking text sets to support knowledge building and interdisciplinary learning. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(4), 513–524.

Lupo, S. M., Tortorelli, L., Invernizzi, M., Ryoo, J. H., & Strong, J. Z. (2019). An exploration of text difficulty and knowledge support on adolescents' comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *54*(4), 457–479.

MacGinitie, W. H., MacGinitie, K. A., Maria, K. B., & Dreyer, L. G. (2000). *Gates-MacGinitie reading tests* (4th ed.). Riverside Publishing.

Maehr, M., & Midgley, C. (1996). *Transforming school cultures.* Westview Press.

Mandinach, E. B., & Schildkamp, K. (2021). Misconceptions about data-based decision making in education: An exploration of the literature. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, *69*, 100842.

Mandler, J., & Johnson, N. (1977). Remembrance of things parsed: Story structure and recall. *Cognitive Psychology, 9,* 111–151.

Mangen, A., & Van der Weel, A. (2016). The evolution of reading in the age of digitisation: An integrative framework for reading research. *Literacy*, *50*(3), 116–124.

Mangen, A., Walgermo, B. R., & Brønnick, K. (2013). Reading linear texts on paper versus computer screen: Effects on

reading comprehension. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *58*, 61–68.

Mann, H. (1965). Method of teaching young children on their first entering school. In N. B. Smith (Ed.), *American reading instruction* (2nd ed., p. 117). International Reading Association. (Original work published in 1884.)

Manyak, P. (2007). Character trait vocabulary: A schoolwide approach. *The Reading Teacher*, *60*(6), 574–577.

Manyak, P., Blachowics, C. L., & Graves, M. F. (2020). The multifaceted, comprehensive vocabulary instructional program: Quantitative findings from a three-year formative experiment. *Literacy Research and Instruction, 60*(4), 301–331.

Manyak, P. C., Baumann, J. F., & Manyak, A. M. (2018). Morphological analysis instruction in the elementary grades: Which morphemes to teach and how to teach them. *The Reading Teacher*, *72*(3), 289–300.

Marieswari, M., & Prema, N. (2016). Effectiveness of peer tutoring in learning English among tutors and tutees of class VIII students in Kancjeepiram DT. *English Language Teaching, 9*(11), 1–5.

Marshall, J. (2000). Response to literature. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 381–402). Erlbaum.

Martinez, M., Roser, N. L., & Strecker, S. (1998). "I never thought I could be a star": A Readers Theatre ticket to fluency. *The Reading Teacher*, *52*(4), 326–334.

Marulis, L. M., & Neuman, S. B. (2010). The effects of vocabulary intervention on young children's word learning: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *80*(3), 300–335.

Marzano, R. J. (2000). *Transforming classroom grading*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Massaro, D. W. (2017). Reading aloud to children: Benefits and implications for acquiring literacy before schooling begins. *The American Journal of Psychology*, *130*(1), 63–72.

Mather, N., Sammons, J., & Schwartz, J. (2006). Adaptations of the Names Test: Easy-to-use phonics assessments. *The Reading Teacher*, *60*(2), 114–122.

Mathes, P. G., Denton, C. A., Fletcher, J. M., Anthony, J. L., Francis, D. J., & Schatschneider, C. (2005). The effects of theoretically different instruction and student characteristics on the skills of struggling readers. *Reading Research Quarterly, 40*(2), 148–182.

May, L., Crisp, T., Bingham, G. E., Schwartz, R. S., Pickens, M. T., & Woodbridge, K. (2020). The durable, dynamic nature of genre and science: A purpose-driven typology of science trade books. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*(3), 399–418.

McAdams, D. P. (2011). Narrative identity. In S. J. Schwarts, K. Luycks, & V. L. Vignoles (Eds), *Handbook of identity theory and research* (pp. 99–115). Springer.

McCarthy, K. S., & McNamara, D. S. (2021). The multidimensional knowledge in text comprehension framework. *Educational Psychologist*, *56*(3), 196–214.

McClay, J. K., Peterson, S. S., & Nixon, R. (2012). Parents and communities as partners in teaching writing in Canadian middle grades classrooms: Teachers engage the support of parents and their communities for writing instruction. *Middle School Journal*, *44*(1), 44–52.

McClure, A. A., Harrison, P., & Reed, S. (1990). *Sunrises and songs: Reading and writing poetry in an elementary classroom.* Heinemann.

McGill-Franzen, A., Zmach, C., Solic, K., & Zeig, J. L. (2006). The confluence of two policy mandates: Core reading programs and third-grade retention in Florida. *The Elementary School Journal*, *107*(1), 67–91.

McGuffey, W. H. (1857). *McGuffey's new first eclectic reader* (Vol. 6). WB Smith & Company.

McKenna, M. C., Conradi, K., Lawrence, C., Jang, B. G., & Meyer, J. P. (2012). Reading attitudes of middle school students: Results of a U.S. Survey. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*(3), 283–306.

McKenna, M. C., Kear, D. J., & Ellsworth, R. A. (1995). Children's attitudes toward reading: A national survey. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *30*(4), 934–956.

McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., & Blake, R. G. (2009). Rethinking reading comprehension instruction: A comparison of instruction for strategies and content approaches. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *44*(3), 218–253.

McKeown, M. G., Deane, P. D., & Lawless, R. R. (2017). *Vocabulary assessment to support instruction: Building rich word-learning experiences*. Guilford Publications.

McMaster, K. L., van den Broek, P., Espin, C. A., Pinto, V., Janda, B., Lam, E., Hsu, H.-C., Jung, P.-G., Leinen, A. B., & van Boekel, M. (2015). Developing a reading comprehension intervention: Translating cognitive theory to educational practice. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *40*, 28–40.

McNair, J. C. (2016). We need mirrors and windows: Diverse classroom libraries for K-6 students. *The Reading Teacher*, *70*(3), 375–381.

McNamara, D. S., Jacovina, M. E., & Allen, L. K. (2015). Higher order thinking in comprehension. In P. Afflerbach (Ed.), *Handbook of individual differences in reading* (pp. 164–176). Routledge.

McNamara, D. S., Kintsch, E., Songer, N. B., & Kintsch, W. (1996). Are good texts always better? Interactions of text coherence, background knowledge, and levels of understanding in learning from text. *Cognition and Instruction*, *14*(1), 1–43.

McNeil, L. (2002). *Contradictions of school reform: Educational costs of standardized testing*. Routledge.

McQuillan, J. E. (2019a). The inefficiency of vocabulary instruction. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *11*(4), 309–318.

McQuillan, J. (2019b). Where do we get our academic vocabulary? Comparing the efficiency of direct instruction and free voluntary reading. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal, 19*(1), 129–138.

McWhorter, J. (2013). Is texting killing the English language. *Time Magazine*, *25*.

Menand, L. (2015). *Out of Bethlehem*. The New Yorker.

Menon, S., & Hiebert, E. H. (2005). A comparison of first graders' reading with little books or literature-based basal anthologies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *40*(1), 12–38.

Merke, S., Ganushchak, L., & van Steensel, R. (2024). Effects of additions to independent silent reading on students' reading proficiency, motivation, and behavior: Results of a meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *42*, 100572.

Mesmer, H. (2019). *Letter lessons and first words*. Heinemann.

Mesmer, H. A., & Kambach, A. (2022). Beyond labels and agendas: Research teachers need to know about phonics and phonological awareness. *The Reading Teacher*, *76*(1), 62–72.

Messick, S. (1993). Foundations of validity: Meaning and consequences in psychological assessment. *ETS Research Report Series*, *1993*(2), i–18.

Meyer, B. J., & Ray, M. N. (2011). Structure strategy interventions: Increasing reading comprehension of expository text. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *4*(1), 127–152.

Miller, G., & Gildea, P. M. (1987). How children learn words. *Scientific American*, *257*(3), 94–99.

Milliot, J. (2024). Middle-grade sales continue to slip. *Publisher Weekly*. https://www.publishersweekly.com/pw/by-topic/childrens/childrens-industry-news/article/95571-middle-grade-sales-continue-to-slip.html

Mills, H., & Jennings, L. (2011). Talking about talk: Reclaiming the value and power of literature circles. *The Reading Teacher*, *64*(8), 590–598.

Moats, L. C. (2020). Teaching reading "is" rocket science: What expert teachers of reading should know and be able to do. *American Educator*, *44*(2), 4.

Moats, L. C., & Brady, S. (2000). *Speech to print: Language essentials for teachers* (p. 304). Paul H. Brookes Publication.

Moats, L. C., & Tolman, C. A. (2019). *LETRS* (3rd ed.) Voyager Sopris Learning Inc.

Mol, S. E., & Bus, A. G. (2011). To read or not to read: A meta-analysis of print exposure from infancy to early adulthood. *Psychological Bulletin*, *137*(2), 267.

Moll, L. C. (1992). Literacy research in community classrooms: A socio-cultural approach. In R. Beach, J. L. Green, M. S. Kamil, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Multidisciplinary perspectives on literacy research* (pp. 211–244). National Council of Teachers of English.

Monaghan, E. J., & Barry, A. L. (1999). *Writing the past: Teaching reading in colonial America and the United States, 1640–1940*. The Catalogue.

Moore, D. W., Readence, J. E., & Rickelman, R. J. (1983). An historical exploration of content area reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *18*(4), 419–438.

Morais, J. (2013). Constraints on the development of phonemic awareness. In S. A. Brady & D. P. Shankweiler (Eds), *Phonological processes in literacy* (pp. 5–28). Routledge.

Morgan, D. N., Valerio, M., & Evans, K. I. (2024). A 20 year guided reading research synthesis: Examining student Data. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, *63*(3), 193–216.

Morrow, L. M. (1985). Retelling stories: A strategy for improving young children's comprehension, concept of story structure, and oral language complexity. *The Elementary School Journal*, *85*(5), 647–661.

Mullis, I. V. S., Martin, M. O., Foy, P., Kelly, D. L., & Fishbein, B. (2023). *PIRLS 2021 international results in reading*. International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). https://pirls2021.org

Murphy, P. K., Wilkinson, I. A., Soter, A. O., Hennessey, M. N., & Alexander, J. F. (2009). Examining the effects of classroom discussion on students' comprehension of text: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *101*(3), 740.

Murray, B. A., Brabham, E. G., Villaume, S. K., & Veal, M. (2008). The Cluella study: Optimal segmentation and voicing for oral blending. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *40*(4), 395–421.

NAEP. (2023). *Long-term trend data*. https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/ltt/reading/student-experiences/?age=9

Nagy, W., & Townsend, D. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*(1), 91–108.

Nagy, W. E., & Anderson, R. C. (1984). How many words are there in printed school English? *Reading Research Quarterly, 19,* 304–330.

Nagy, W. E., Anderson, R. C., & Herman, P. A. (1987). Learning word meanings from context during normal reading. *American Educational Research Journal*, *24*(2), 237–270.

Nagy, W. E., Berninger, V. W., & Abbott, R. D. (2006). Contributions of morphology beyond phonology to literacy outcomes of upper elementary and middle-school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(1), 134–147.

Nagy, W. E., Carlisle, J. F., & Goodwin, A. P. (2014). Morphological knowledge and literacy acquisition. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *47*(1), 3–12.

Nagy, W. E., Herman, P. A., & Anderson, R. C. (1985). Learning words from context. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *20*(2), 233–253.

Nagy, W. E., & Scott, J. A. (2000). Vocabulary processes. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 269–284). Erlbaum.

Najarro, I. (2025, March). Trump has made English the official language: What that means for schools. *Education Week*. https://www.edweek.org/teaching-learning/trump-has-made-english-the-official-language-what-that-means-for-schools/2025/03

Nation, K., Dawson, N. J., & Hsiao, Y. (2022). Book language and its implications for children's language, literacy, and development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *31*(4), 375–380.

National Assessment of Educational Progress. (2018). *2017 NAEP mathematics and reading assessments: Highlighted results at grades 4 and 8 for the nation, states, and districts.* NCES Number: 2018037. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2018037

National Assessment of Educational Progress. (2024). *NAEP report card: Reading*. https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/reading/nation/groups/?grade=4

National Center for Education Statistics. (2022). *Appendix tables: NAEP long-term trend reading age 9, average score results by selected characteristics, 1971–2022* [PDF]. U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/ltt/supporting_files/2022_appendix_ltt_9.pdf

National Center for Education Statistics. (2023a). *Highlights of U.S. PIRLS 2021 results: Reading achievement of U.S. fourth-grade students in an international context*. NCES 2023-048). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2023048

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2023b). *Highlights of the 2023 U.S. PIAAC results.* https://nces.ed.gov/surveys/piaac/2023/national_results.asp

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2025). *Conditions of education*. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. *The Elementary School Journal*, *84*(2), 113–130.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. (2014). *Principles to actions: Ensuring mathematical success for all*. Author.

National Early Literacy Panel. (2008). *Developing early literacy: Report of the National Early Literacy Panel.* National Institute for Literacy. https://lincs.ed.gov/publications/pdf/NELPReport09.pdf

National Governors Association Center for Best Practice & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010). *Common core state standards for English language arts and literacy in history, social studies, science and technical subjects*. Authors. www.corestandards.org/assets/CCSSL_ELA%20standards.pdf

National Library of Medicine. (2023). *MedlinePlus: Screen time and children*. https://medlineplus.gov/ency/patientinstructions/000355.htm

National Reading Panel (US), National Institute of Child Health, & Human Development (US). (2000). *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction: Reports of the subgroups* (NIH Publication No. 00-4769). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health. https://www.nichd.nih.gov/sites/default/files/publications/pubs/nrp/Documents/report.pdf

National Research Council. (2004). *Engaging schools: Fostering high school students' motivation to learn.* National Academies Press.

Neitzel, A. J., Lake, C., Byun, S., Shi, C., & Slavin, R. (2019). *Effective tier 1 reading instruction for elementary schools: A systematic review*. https://osf.io/xsw2p/

Neugebauer, S. R., Gámez, P. B., Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D. B., Cólon, I. T., & Ware, S. (2017). Promoting word consciousness to close the vocabulary gap in young word learners. *The Elementary School Journal, 118*(1), 28–54.

Neuman, S. B., Quintero, E., & Reist, K. (2025). *Bringing the rocket science of reading to all students recommendations for enhancing state legislation*. America Federation of Teachers.

Nicholson, T. (1991). Do children read words better in context or in lists? A classic study revisited. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *83*(4), 444.

Nilsson, N. L. (2013). Introduction to using informal reading inventories in research and practice. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *29*(3), 203–207.

Nitko, A. J. (1996). *Educational assessment of students*. Prentice-Hall.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, 20 U.S.C. § 6319.

Noddings, N. (2003). *Happiness and education.* Cambridge University Press.

NWEA. (2018). *MAP® Growth™ technical report*.

Oakhill, J., & Cain, K. (2018). Children's problems with inference making: Causes and consequences. *Bulletin of Educational Psychology*, *49*(4), 683–699.

OCED. (2025). *Using technology at school and students' learning outcomes.* https://www.oecd.org/content/dam/oecd/en/publications/reports/2024/12/technology-use-at-school-and-students-learning-outcomes_4c4f92e6/422db044-en.pdf

O'Connor, R. E., Bell, K. M., Harty, K. R., Larkin, L. K., Sackor, S. M., & Zigmond, N. (2002). Teaching reading to poor readers in the intermediate grades: A comparison of text difficulty. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(3), 474.

Oczkus, L. (2004). *Super 6 comprehension strategies*. Christopher-Gordon.

OECD. (2023). *PISA 2022 Results (Volume I): The state of learning and equity in education*. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/53f23881-en

Ogle, D. M. (1986). KWL: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *The Reading Teacher*, *39*(6), 564–570.

Okkinga, M., van Steensel, R., van Gelderen, A. J., van Schooten, E., Sleegers, P. J., & Arends, L. R. (2018). Effectiveness of reading-strategy interventions in whole classrooms: A meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, *30*(4), 1215–1239.

Oláh, L. N., Lawrence, N. R., & Riggan, M. (2010). Learning to learn from benchmark assessment data: How teachers analyze results. *Peabody Journal of Education*, *85*(2), 226–245.

Ong, W. J., & Hartley, J. (2013). *Orality and literacy*. Routledge.

Ophir, E., Nass, C., & Wagner, A. (2009). Cognitive control in media multitaskers. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0903620106

Otto, W., & Askov, E. N. (1971). *Wisconsin design for reading skill development: Rationale and guidelines*. National Computer Systems, Incorporated.

Oudega, M., & van den Broek, P. (2018). Standards of coherence in reading: Variations in processing and comprehension of text. In K. K. Millis, D. Long, J. Magliano, & K. Wiemer (Eds), *Deep comprehension* (pp. 41–51). Routledge.

Paige, D. D., Rasinski, T. V., & Magpuri-Lavell, T. (2012). Is fluent, expressive reading important for high school readers? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *56*(1), 67–76.

Palincsar, A., & David, Y. (1991). Promoting literacy through classroom dialogue. In E. H. Hiebert (Ed.), *Literacy for a diverse society: Perspectives, practices, and policies* (pp. 122–140). Teachers College Press.

Palinscar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, *1*(2), 117–175.

Papadakis, S., Kalogiannakis, M., & Zaranis, N. (2018). The effectiveness of computer and tablet assisted intervention in early childhood students' understanding of numbers. An empirical study conducted in Greece. *Education and Information Technologies*, *23*, 1849–1871.

Paré, A., & Smart, G. (1994). Observing genres in action: Towards a research methodology. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 146–154). Taylor & Francis.

Paris, A. H., & Paris, S. G. (2003). Assessing narrative comprehension in young children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *38*(1), 36–76.

Paris, S. G. (2005). Reinterpreting the development of reading skills. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *40*(2), 184–202.

Paris, S. G. (2026). The simple view of reading is not so simple: Fundamental problems and suggested alternatives. In M. Sailors, I. Nuñez, V. Watson, D. Alvermann, & J. Hoffman (Eds.), *Theories, models, and practices of literacy* (8th ed.). Routledge.

Paris, S. G., Lipson, M. Y., & Wixson, K. K. (1983). Becoming a strategic reader. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *8*(3), 293–316.

Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers. (2019). *PARCC final technical report for 2018 administration*. ERIC. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED599198

Pearson, P. D. (1974). The effects of grammatical complexity on children's comprehension, recall, and conception of certain semantic relations. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *10*(2), 155–192.

Pearson, P. D. (2000). Reading in the twentieth century. In T. L. Good (Ed.), *American education: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow* (pp. 152–208). National Society for the Study of Education.

Pearson, P. D. (2011). An endangered species act for literacy education. In P. L. Anders (Ed.), *Defying convention, inventing the future in literary research and practice* (pp. 246–262). Routledge.

Pearson, P. D., & Cervetti, G. N. (2017). Fifty years of reading comprehension theory and practice. In P. D. Pearson & E. H. Hiebert (Eds.), *Research-based practices for teaching common core literacy* (pp.1–224). Teachers College Press.

Pearson, P. D., & Gallagher, M. C. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *8*(3), 317–344.

Pearson, P. D., Garavaglia, D., Lycke, K., Roberts, E., Danridge, J., & Hamm, D. (1999). *The impact of item format on the depth of students' cognitive engagement*. Unpublished manuscript. NAEP Validity Study Panel.

Pearson, P. D., & Hamm, D. N. (2005). The assessment of reading comprehension: A review of practices—Past, present, and future. In S. G. Paris & S. A. Stahl (Eds), *Children's reading comprehension and assessment* (pp. 31–88). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pearson, P. D., Hiebert, E. H., & Kamil, M. L. (2012). Vocabulary assessment: Making do with what we have while we create the tools we need. In E. J. Kame'enui & J. F. Baunann (Eds.), *Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice* (2nd ed., pp. 231–255). Guilford Press.

Pearson, P. D., & Johnson, D. D. (1978). *Teaching reading comprehension*. Holt Rinehart Winston.

Pearson, P. D., Roehler, L. R., Dole, J. A., & Duffy, G. G. (1992). Developing expertise in reading comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (Vol. *2*, pp. 145–199). International Reading Association.

Pearson, P. D., Salinger, T., Lee, C. D., Uccelli, P., Alexander, P., & Vogt, M. E. (2024). *Response to Ranking Member Bill Cassidy's preventing a lost generation: Facing a critical moment for students' literacy report.* https://casel.org/student-literacy_white-paper/?view=true

Pearson, P. D., & Tierney, R. J. (1984). Chapter VI: On becoming a thoughtful reader: Learning to read like a writer. *Teachers College Record*, *85*(5), 144–173.

Peng, P., Wang, W., Filderman, M. J., Zhang, W., & Lin, L. (2024). The active ingredient in reading comprehension strategy intervention for struggling readers: A Bayesian network meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *94*(2), 228–267.

Perfetti, C. (2007). Reading ability: Lexical quality and comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *11*(4), 357–383.

Perfetti, C. A., & Lesgold, A. M. (2013). Coding and comprehension in skilled reading and implications for reading instruction. *Theory and Practice of Early Reading*, 57–84. Routledge.

Perkins, D. (1992). *Smart schools: From training memories to educating minds*. The Free Press.

Perkins, D. (2004). Knowledge alive. *Educational Leadership*, *62*(1), 14–18.

Perkins, D., & Blythe, T. (1994). Putting understanding up front. *Educational Leadership*, *51*, 4–7.

Pew Research Center Short Reads. (2022). *Three-in-ten Americans now read e-books*. https://www.pewresearch.org/short-reads/2022/01/06/three-in-ten-americans-now-read-e-books/

Piasta, S. B., Connor, C. M., Fishman, B. J., & Morrison, F. J. (2009). Teachers' knowledge of literacy concepts, classroom practices, and student reading growth. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 13*(3), 224–248.

Piasta, S. B., Connor, C. M., Fishman, B. J., & Morrison, F. J. (2009). Teachers' knowledge of literacy concepts, classroom practices, and student reading growth. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 13*(3), 224-248.

Piasta, S. B., & Wagner, R. K. (2010). Learning letter names and sounds: Effects of instruction, letter type, and phonological processing skill. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *105*(4), 324–344.

Picton, I., & Clark, C. (2024). Young people's reading in the United Kingdom. In C. E. Loh (Ed.), *The reading lives of teens* (pp. 18–39). Routledge.

Pilgrim, J., & Vasinda, S. (2021). Fake news and the "wild wide web": A study of elementary students' reliability reasoning. *Societies*, *11*(4), 121.

Pilgrim, J., Vasinda, S., Bledsoe, C., & Martinez, E. (2019). Critical thinking is critical: Octopuses, online sources, and reliability reasoning. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(1), 85–93.

Pintrich, P. R., & Zusho, A. (2002). The development of academic self-regulation: The role of cognitive and motivational factors. In A. Wigfield & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *A Vol. in the Educational Psychology Series. Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 249–284). Academic Press.

Poindexter, C. C., & Oliver, I. R. (1998). Navigating the writing process: Strategies for young children. *The Reading Teacher*, *52*(4), 420–423.

Popham, W. J. (1997). Consequential validity: Right concern-wrong concept. *Educational measurement: Issues and practice*, *16*(2), 9–13.

Popham, W. J. (2019). *Classroom assessment: What teachers need to know*. Pearson.

Pressley, M. (2000). What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. III). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pressley, M. (2002). Metacognition and self-regulated comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (Vol. 3, pp.291–309). International Reading Association.

Pressley, M. (2005). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching*. Christopher-Gordon.

Pressley, M. (2006). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching* (3rd ed.). Guilford Press.

Pressley, M., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). *Verbal protocols of reading: The nature of constructively responsive reading*. Erlbaum.

Pressley, M., Allington, R. L., Wharton-McDonald, R., Block, C. C., & Morrow, L. M. (2001). *Learning to read: Lessons from exemplary first-grade classrooms*. The Guilford Press.

Pressley, M., Dolezal, S. E., Raphael, L., Mohan, L., Bogner, K., & Roehrig, A. (2003). *Motivating primary grade students*. Guilford Press.

Pressley, M., Wharton-McDonald, R., Allington, R., Block, C. C., Morrow, L., Tracey, D., Baker, K., Brooks, G., & Woo, D. (2001). A study of effective first-grade literacy instruction. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *5*(1), 35–58.

Pressley, T., Allington, R. L., & Pressley, M. (2023). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching*. Guilford Publications.

Pritchard, A., & Cartwright, V. (2004). Transforming what they read: Helping eleven-year-olds engage with Internet information. *Literacy*, *38*(1), 26–31.

Proctor, C. P., Dalton, B., & Grisham, D. L. (2007). Scaffolding English language learners and struggling readers in a universal literacy environment with embedded strategy instruction and vocabulary support. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *39*(1), 71–93.

Prose, F. (2012). *Reading like a writer: A guide for people who love books and for those who want to write them*. Union Books.

Pugh, A., Kearns, D. M., & Hiebert, E. H. (2023). Text types and their relation to efficacy in beginning reading interventions. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(4), 710–732.

Purcell-Gates, V. (1989). What oral/written language differences can tell us about beginning instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 42,* 290–294.

Purcell-Gates, V., Duke, N. K., & Martineau, J. A. (2007). Learning to read and write genre-specific text: Roles of authentic experience and explicit teaching. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *42*(1), 8–45.

Puzio, K., Colby, G. T., & Algeo-Nichols, D. (2020). Differentiated literacy instruction: Boondoggle or best practice? *Review of Educational Research*, *90*(4), 459–498.

Quiocho, A. L., & Ulanoff, S. H. (2009). *Differentiated literacy instruction for English language learners*. Prentice Hall.

Rampe, M. (2023. October 27). The U.S. needs to improve foreign language education. *The Tufts Daily*. https://www.tuftsdaily.com/article/2023/10/the-us-needs-to-improve-foreign-language-education

RAND Reading Study Group. (2002). *Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension.* Rand Education. www.rand.org/multi/achievement-forall/reading

Rand, M. K., & Morrow, L. M. (2021). The contribution of play experiences in early literacy: Expanding the science of reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S239–S248.

Ransom, J. C. (1979). *The new criticism 1941*. Greenwood Press.

Raphael, T. E. (1986). Teaching question answer relationships, revisited. *The Reading Teacher*, *39*(6), 516–522.

Raphael, T. E., & Au, K. H. (2005). QAR: Enhancing comprehension and test taking across grades and content areas. *The Reading Teacher*, *59*(3), 206–221.

Rasinski, T., Homan, S., & Biggs, M. (2009). Teaching reading fluency to struggling readers: Method, materials, and evidence. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *25*(2–3), 192–204.

Rasinski, T., Padak, N., Newton, R., & Newton, E. (2011). *Greek and Latin roots: Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension.* Shell Education.

Rasinski, T., Smith, M. C., & Campbell, S. (2026). *The megabook of vocabulary*. Scholastic.

Rasinski, T. V. (2004). *Assessing reading fluency*. Pacific resources for education and learning (PREL).

Rauch, D. P., & Hartig, J. (2010). Multiple-choice versus open-ended response formats of reading test items: A two-dimensional IRT analysis. *Psychological Test and Assessment Modeling*, *52*(4), 354.

Ravitch, D. (2010). *The death and life of the great American school system*. Basic Books.

Read, C., & Treiman, R. (2013). Children's invented spelling: What we have learned in forty years. In M. Piattelli-Palmarini & R. C. Berwick (Eds), *Rich languages from poor inputs* (pp. 197–211). Oxford University Press.

Reading Rockets. (2024). *Concept-oriented reading instruction*. https://www.readingrockets.org/topics/comprehension/articles/concept-oriented-reading-instruction-cori

Reinking, D., Hruby, G. G., & Risko, V. J. (2023). Legislating phonics: Settled science or political polemics? *Teachers College Record*, *125*(1), 104–131.

Reinking, D., & Yaden, D. B., Jr (2021). Do we need more productive theorizing? A commentary. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(3), 383–399.

Renkl, A., Mandl, H., & Gruber, H. (1996). Inert knowledge: Analyses and remedies. *Educational Psychologist*, *31*(2), 115–121.

Reutzel, D. R., Child, A., Jones, C. D., & Clark, S. K. (2014). Explicit instruction in core reading programs. *The Elementary School Journal*, *114*(3), 406–430.

Reutzel, D. R., Jones, C. D., Fawson, P. C., & Smith, J. A. (2008). Scaffolded silent reading: A complement to guided repeated oral reading that works! *The Reading Teacher*, *62*(3), 194–207.

Reynolds, D., & Goodwin, A. (2016). Supporting students reading complex texts: Evidence for motivational scaffolding. *Aera Open*, *2*(4), 2332858416680353.

Reynolds, R. E., & Anderson, R. C. (1982). Influence of questions on the allocation of attention during reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *74*(5), 623.

Richards, I. A. (1926). *Poetries and sciences* (Vol. 2). Routledge & Kegan Paul, Limited.

Richardson, J. (2009). *The next step in guided reading*. Scholastic.

Rinsky, L. A. (1993). *Teaching word recognition skills*. Gorsuch Scarisbrick.

Roessing, L. (2009). *The write to read: Response journals that increase comprehension*. Corwin Press.

Romeo, R. R., Segaran, J., Leonard, J. A., Robinson, S., West, M. R., Mackey, A. P., Yendiki, A, Rowe, M. L., & Gabrieli, J. D. E. (2022). Socioeconomic status and reading outcomes. *Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience, 53*, Article 101087. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcn.2021.101087

Rosenblatt, L. (1978). *The reader, the text, the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work*. Southern Illinois Press.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1938/1995). *Literature as exploration.* Modern Language Association.

Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1994). Reciprocal teaching: A review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, *64*(4), 479–530.

Rosenshine, B., Meister, C., & Chapman, S. (1996). Teaching students to generate questions: A review of the intervention studies. *Review of Educational Research*, *66*(2), 181–221.

Roth, K., & Guinee, K. (2011). Ten minutes a day: The impact of interactive writing instruction on first graders'

independent writing. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, *11*(3), 331–361.

Routman, R. (2014). *Read, write, lead: Breakthrough strategies for schoolwide literacy success*. ASCD.

Ruddell, R. B., & Unrau, N. J. (2004). *Theoretical models and processes of reading*. International Reading Association.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1980). Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension* (pp. 33–58). Erlbaum.

Rupley, W. H., Blair, T. R., & Nichols, W. D. (2009). Effective reading instruction for struggling readers: The role of direct/explicit teaching. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *25*(2–3), 125–138.

Rupp, A. A., Ferne, T., & Choi, H. (2006). How assessing reading comprehension with multiple-choice questions shapes the construct: A cognitive processing perspective. *Language Testing*, *23,* 441–474.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2020). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from a self-determination theory perspective: Definitions, theory, practices, and future directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 61*, 101860. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2020.101860

Rylant, C. (1988). *Every living thing*. Modern Curriculum Press.

Sáenz, L. M., Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (2005). Peer-assisted learning strategies for English language learners with learning disabilities. *Exceptional children, 71*(3), 231-247.

Sales, G. C. (2008–2011). *Word learning strategies* (no. R305S050072). Small Business Innovation Research, Institute for Educational Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.

Salmerón, L., García, A., & Vidal-Abarca, E. (2018). The development of adolescents' comprehension-based Internet reading activities. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *61*, 31–39.

Samuels, S. J. (1997). The method of repeated readings. *The Reading Teacher*, *50*(5), 376–381.

Samuels, S. J. (2002). Reading fluency: Its development and assessment. In S. J. Samuels & A. E. Farstrup (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (3rd ed., pp. 166–183). International Reading Association.

Samuels, S. J., Tennyson, R., Schermer, N., & Hajovy, H. (1988). Adults' use of text structure in the recall of a scientific journal article. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *81*(3), 171–174.

Santoro, L. E., Chard, D. J., Howard, L., & Baker, S. K. (2008). Making the very most of classroom read-alouds to promote comprehension and vocabulary. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(5), 396–408.

Saunders, W. M., & Goldenberg, C. (1999). The effects of instructional conversations and literature logs on the story comprehension and thematic understanding of English-proficient and limited-English-proficient students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *34*(4), 386–412.

Scammacca, N. K., Roberts, G., Vaughn, S., & Stuebing, K. K. (2015). A meta-analysis of interventions for struggling readers in grades 4–12: 1980–2011. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *48*(4), 369–390.

Scanlon, D. M., Anderson, K. L., & Sweeney, J. M. (2016). *Early intervention for reading difficulties: The interactive strategies approach*. Guilford Publications.

Scarborough, H. S. (2001). Connecting early language and literacy to later reading (dis)abilities: Evidence, theory, and practice. In S. B. Neuman & D. K. Dickinson (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research* (Vol. 1, pp. 97–110). Guilford Press.

Scharping, M. (2025). *K-12 Reading market report*. Simba Freedonia Group.

Schiefele, U., & Löweke, S. (2018). The nature, development, and effects of elementary students' reading motivation profiles. *Reading Research Quarterly, 53*(4), 405–421.

Schiefele, U., & Schaffner, E. (2016). Factorial and construct validity of a new instrument for the assessment of reading motivation. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *51*(2), 221–237.

Schiefele, U., Schaffner, E., Moller, J., & Wigfield, A. (2012). Dimensions of reading motivations and their relation to reading behavior and competence. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*, 427–463.

Schneider, S. (2015–2019). *Word learning strategies: A program for upper elementary students* (IES Award #R305A150108, Goal 3 Efficacy Study). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Research.

Schraw, G., & Dennison, R. S. (1994). Assessing metacognitive awareness. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *19*(4), 460–475.

Schwanenflugel, P. J., Hamilton, A. M., Kuhn, M. R., Wisenbaker, J. M., & Stahl, S. A. (2004). Becoming a fluent reader: Reading skill and prosodic features in the oral reading of young readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *96*(1), 119.

Schwanenflugel, P. J., & Kuhn, M. R. (2015). Reading fluency. In P. Afflerbach (Ed.), *Handbook of individual differences in reading* (pp. 107–119). Routledge.

Scott, J. A., Skobel, B. J., & Wells, J. (2016). *The word-conscious classroom.* TextProject.

Seidenberg, M. (2017). *Language at the speed of sight: How we read, why so many can't, and what can be done about it*. Basic Books.

Seidenberg, M. S., Cooper Borkenhagen, M., & Kearns, D. M. (2020). Lost in translation? Challenges in connecting reading science and educational practice. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S119–S130.

Seidenberg, M. S., & MacDonald, M. C. (2018). The impact of language experience on language and reading: A statistical learning approach. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *38*(1), 66–83.

Selwyn, N. (2021). *Education and technology: Key issues and debates*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Senate Committee on Health, Education, Labor & Pensions. (2024). *Preventing a lost generation: Facing a critical moments for students'* literacy. https://www.help.senate.gov/imo/media/doc/literacy_report.pdf

Serravallo, J. (2015). *Reading strategies book*. Heinemann.

Shahaeian, A., Wang, C., Tucker-Drob, E., Geiger, V., Bus, A. G., & Harrison, L. J. (2018). Early shared reading, socioeconomic status, and children's cognitive and school competencies: Six years of longitudinal evidence. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *22*(6), 485–502.

Shanahan, T. (2016). Relationships between reading and writing development. In C. A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (2nd ed., pp. 194–207). The Guilford Press.

Shanahan, T. (2019, February 9). *Which texts for teaching reading: Decodable, predictable, or controlled vocabulary?* Shanahan on Literacy. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/which-texts-for-teaching-reading-decodable-predictable-or-controlled-vocabulary

Shanahan, T. (2023a). *Shanahan on literacy*. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/what-about-the-new-research-that-says-phonics-instruction-isnt-very-important

Shanahan, T. (2023b). *Why the main idea is not the main idea or how best to teach reading comprehension*. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/why-main-idea-is-not-the-main-idea-or-how-best-to-teach-reading-comprehension

Shanahan, T. (2024a). *'Tis the season of test prep: Bah Humbug*. Shanahan on Literacy. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/tis-the-season-of-test-prep-bah-humbug

Shanahan, T. (2024b). *Shanahan on literacy*. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/the-instructional-level-concept-revisited-teaching-with-complex-text-1

Shanahan, T. (2025a). *Leveled reading, leveled lives: How students' reading achievement has been held back and what we can do about it*. Harvard Education Press.

Shanahan, T. (2025b). *Leveled texts, leveled lives.* Harvard Educational Press.

Shanahan, T. (2025c, January 4). *Are we getting the right information when it comes to the science of reading?* https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/are-we-getting-the-right-information-when-it-comes-to-the-science-of-reading

Shanahan, T., & Barr, R. (1995). Reading recovery: An independent evaluation of the effects of an early instructional intervention for at-risk learners. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *30*(4), 958–996.

Shanahan, T., Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2016). The challenge of challenging text. In *On developing readers: Readings from educational leadership* (EL Essentials), 100.

Shanahan, T., & Shanahan, C. (2008). Teaching disciplinary literacy to adolescents: Rethinking content-area literacy. *Harvard Educational Review*, *78*(1), 40–59.

Shany, M. T., & Biemiller, A. (1995). Assisted reading practice: Effects on performance of poor readers in grades 3 and 4. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 382–395.

Share, D. L. (1995). Phonological recoding and self-teaching: Sine qua non of reading acquisition. *Cognition*, *55*, 151–218.

Share, D. L. (1999). Phonological recoding and orthographic learning: A direct test of the self-teaching hypothesis. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *72*(2), 95–129.

Share, D. L. (2004). Orthographic learning at a glance: On the time course and developmental onset of self-teaching. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *87*(4), 267–298.

Share, D. L. (2025). Blueprint for a universal theory of learning to read: The combinatorial model. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *60*(2), e603.

Share, D. L., Jorm, A. F., Maclean, R., & Matthews, R. (1984). Sources of individual differences in reading acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *76*, 1309–1324.

Shepard, L. A. (2010). What the marketplace has brought us: Item-by-item teaching with little instructional insight. *Peabody Journal of Education*, *85*(2), 246–257.

Short, K. G., & Klassen, C. (1993). Literature circles: Hearing children's voices. In B. E. Cullinan (Ed.), *Children's voices: Talk in the classroom* (pp. 66–85). International Reading Association.

Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, *57*(1), 1–23.

Silverman, R. D., Keane, K., Darling-Hammond, E., & Khanna, S. (2024). The effects of educational technology interventions on literacy in elementary school: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *95*(5), 00346543241261073.

Simpson, D. (1986). *The politics of American English, 1976–1850*. Oxford University Press.

Singer, L. M., & Alexander, P. A. (2017). Reading across mediums: Effects of reading digital and print texts on comprehension and calibration. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *85*(1), 155–172.

Skinner, B. F. (1957). The experimental analysis of behavior. *American Scientist*, *45*(4), 343–371.

Slavin, R. E. (1987). *Cooperative learning: Student teams* (2nd ed.). National Education Association.

Slavin, R. E. (1989). PET and the Pendulum: e L-L 1-dl ltl ItIV, 1 C 1 U ll Faddism in Education and. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, *70*(10), 752–758.

Slavin, R. E., & Cheung, A. (2005). A synthesis of research on language of reading instruction for English language learners. *Review of Educational Research, 75,* 247–284.

Slavin, R. E., Lake, C., Chambers, B., Cheung, A., & Davis, S. (2009). Effective reading programs for the elementary grades: A best-evidence synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, *79*(4), 1391–1466.

Smith, C. B. (2002). *Building a strong vocabulary: A twelve-week plan for students*. ERIC/EDINFO Press.

Smith, F. (1971). *Understanding reading: A psycholinguistic analysis of reading and learning to read.* Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Smith, L. E., Borkowski, J. G., & Whitman, T. L. (2008). From reading readiness to reading competence: The role of self-regulation in at-risk children. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 12*(2), 131–152.

Smith, N. B. (2002). *American reading instruction*. Newark/IRA.

Smith, R., Snow, P., Serry, T., & Hammond, L. (2021). The role of background knowledge in reading comprehension: A critical review. *Reading Psychology*, *42*(3), 214–240.

Snow, C. (2002). *Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension*. Rand Corporation.

Snow, C., Barnes, W. S., Chandler, J., Goodman, I. F., & Hemphill, L (1991). *Unfulfilled expectations: Home and school influences on literacy*. Harvard University Press.

Snow, C., & O'Connor, C. (2013). *Close reading and far-reaching classroom discussion: Fostering a vital connection* (Policy brief). International Reading Association. http://www.reading.org/Libraries/lrp/ira-lrp-policy-brief—close reading--13sept2013. pdf

Snow, C., & O'Connor, C. (2016). Close reading and far-reaching classroom discussion: Fostering a vital connection. *Journal of Education*, *196*(1), 1–8.

Snow, C., & RAND Reading Study Group. (2002). *Reading for understanding. Chapter 2: A research agenda for improving reading comprehension*. RAND Corporation.

Snow, C. E. (2018). Simple and not-so-simple views of reading. *Remedial and Special Education*, *39*(5), 313–316.

Snow, C. E., Barnes, W. S., Chandler, J., Goodman, I. F., & Hemphill, L. (1991). *Unfulfilled expectations: Home and school influences on literacy*. Harvard University Press.

Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.). (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children.* National Academies Press.

Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (2001). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. National Academy Press.

Snow, C. E., & Kim, Y. (2007). Large problem spaces: The challenge of vocabulary for English language learners. In R. K. Wagner, A. E. Muse, & K. R. Tannenbaum (Eds.), *Vocabulary acquisition: Implications for reading comprehension* (pp. 123–139). Guilford Press.

Snow, C. E., & Juel, C. (2005). *Teaching children to read: What do we know about how to do it?*

Snowling, M. J., Hulme, C., & Nation, K. (2020). Defining and understanding dyslexia: Past, present and future. *Oxford Review of Education*, *46*(4), 501–513.

Snowling, M. J., Hulme, C., & Nation, K. (Eds.). (2022). *The science of reading: A handbook*. John Wiley & Sons.

Solari, E. J., Denton, C. A., & Haring, C. (2017). How to reach first-grade struggling readers: An integrated instructional approach. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, *49*(3), 149–159.

Solari, E. J., Terry, N. P., Gaab, N., Hogan, T. P., Nelson, N. J., Pentimonti, J. M., Petscher, Y., & Sayko, S. (2020). Translational science: A road map for the science of reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S347–S360.

Spandel, V. (2005). *Creating writers: Through 6-trait writing assessment and instruction*. Allyn & Bacon.

Sparks, S. D. (2016). Teaching English-language learners: What does the research tell us? *Education Week*, *35*(30), 3–6. www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2016/05/11/teaching-english-language-learners-what-does-the-research.html?r=2135472880

Spichtig, A. N., Hiebert, E. H., Vorstius, C., Pascoe, J. P., David Pearson, P., & Radach, R. (2016). The decline of comprehension-based silent reading efficiency in the United States: A comparison of current data with performance in 1960. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *51*(2), 239–259.

Stahl, S. A., & Heubach, K. M. (2005). Fluency-oriented reading instruction. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *37*(1), 25–60.

Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. (2006). *Teaching word meanings.* Erlbaum.

Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. E. (2007). *Teaching word meanings*. Routledge.

Stanovich, K. E. (1980). Toward an interactive-compensatory model of individual differences in the development of reading fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *16*(1), 32–71.

Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading. Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *21*(4), 360–406.

Stanovich, K. E. (1988). The right and wrong places to look for the cognitive locus of reading disability. *Annals of Dyslexia*, *38*, 154–177.

Stanovich, K. E. (1991). Word recognition: Changing perspectives. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 418–452). Longman.

Stanovich, K. E. (1992). Speculations on the causes and consequences of individual differences in early reading acquisition. In P. B. Gough, L. C. Ehri, & R. Treiman (Eds.), *Reading acquisition* (pp. 307–342). Erlbaum.

Stanovich, K. E. (1994). Constructivism in reading education. *Journal of Special Education, 28,* 259–274.

Stanovich, K. E., & Siegel, L. S. (1994). Phenotypic performance profile of children with reading disabilities: A regression-based test of the phonological-core variable-difference model. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *86*(1), 24.

Stanovich, K. E., West, R. F., & Harrison, M. R. (1995). Knowledge growth and maintenance across the life span: The role of print exposure. *Developmental Psychology*, *31*(5), 811.

Steacy, L. M., Edwards, A. A., Rigobon, V. M., Gutierrez, N., Marencin, N. C., Siegelman, N., Himelhoch, A. C., Himelhoch, C., Rueckl, J., & Compton, D. L. (2023). Set for variability as a critical predictor of word reading: Potential implications for early identification and treatment of dyslexia. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(2), 254–267.

Steiss, J., Tate, T., Graham, S., Cruz, J., Hebert, M., Wang, J., Moon, Y., Tseng, W., Warschauer, M., & Olson, C. B. (2024). Comparing the quality of human and ChatGPT feedback of students' writing. *Learning and Instruction*, *91*, 101894.

Stipek, D. (2002). *Motivation to learn: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Suggate, S. P., Schaughency, E. A., & Reese, E. (2013). Children learning to read later catch up to children reading earlier. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *28*(1), 33–48.

Sulzby, E., & Teale, W. (1996). Emergent literacy. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 727–758). Longman.

Sung, Y. T., Chang, K. E., & Liu, T. C. (2016). The effects of integrating mobile devices with teaching and learning on students' learning performance: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. *Computers & Education*, *94*, 252–275.

Swire-Thompson, B., & Lazer, D. (2020). Public health and online misinformation: Challenges and recommendations. *Annual Review of Public Health*, *41*, 433–451.

Tanner, D., & Tanner, L. (1995). C*urriculum development: Theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Merrill.

Taylor, B. M., & Beach, R. W. (1984). The effects of text structure instruction on middle-grade students' comprehension and production of expository text. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *19*(2), 134–146.

Taylor, B. M., Frye, B. J., & Maruyama, G. M. (1990). Time spent reading and reading growth. *American Educational Research Journal, 27*(2), 351-362.

Taylor, B. M., & Pearson, P. D. (Eds.). (2005). *Teaching reading: Effective schools, accomplished teachers*. Routledge.

Taylor, B. M., Pearson, P. D., Clark, K., & Walpole, S. (2000). Effective schools and accomplished teachers: Lessons about primary-grade reading instruction in low-income schools. *Elementary School Journal, 101,* 121–165.

Taylor, B. M., Pearson, P. D., Peterson, D. S., & Rodriguez, M. C. (2003). Reading growth in high-poverty classrooms: The influence of teacher practices that encourage cognitive engagement in literacy learning. *The Elementary School Journal*, *104*(1), 3–28.

Taylor, B. M., Pressley, M., & Pearson, P. D. (2002). Research-supported characteristics of schools and teachers that promote reading achievement. In B. M. Taylor & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Teaching reading: Effective schools, accomplished teachers* (pp. 361–373). Erlbaum.

Tegmark, M., Vinterek, M., Alatalo, T., & Winberg, M. (2025). The complex relationship between teachers' instructional practices and students' reading amount. *Reading Research Quarterly, 60*(1), e561.

The New England Primer. (1777). Edward Draper.

Thomas, P. L. (2022). *How to end the reading war and serve the literacy needs of all students: A primer for parents, policy makers, and people who care*. Information Age Publishing.

Thompson, G. B., & Johanston, R. S. (2000). Are nonword and other phonological deficits indicative of a failed reading process? *Reading and Writing*, *12*, 63–97. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008048712877

Thorndyke, P. (1977). Cognitive structures in comprehension and memory of narrative discourse. *Cognitive Psychology, 9*, 97–110.

Tierney, R., & Pearson, P. D. (2024). *Fact-checking the science of reading*. Literacy Research Commons.

Tierney, R. J., & Pearson, P. D. (2021). *A history of literacy education: Waves of research and practice*. Teachers College Press.

Tierney, R.T. & Cunningham, J. W. (1984). *Research on teaching reading comprehension.* In (P.D. Pearson, R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, & P. Mosenthal) Handbook of Reading Research. Longman.

Tollefson, J. W. (1995). Introduction: Language policy, power, and inequality. In J. W. Tollefson (Ed.), *Power and inequality in language education* (pp. 1–9). Cambridge University Press.

Torppa, M., Niemi, P., Vasalampi, K., Lerkkanen, M. K., Tolvanen, A., & Poikkeus, A. M. (2020). Leisure reading (but not any kind) and reading comprehension support each other—A longitudinal study across grades 1 and 9. *Child Development*, *91*(3), 876–900.

Toste, J. R., Didion, L., Peng, P., Filderman, M. J., & McClelland, A. M. (2020). A meta-analytic review of the relationship between motivation and reading achievement for K-12 students. *Review of Educational Research, 90*(3), 420–456. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654320919352

Toste, J. R., Fluhler, S. K., Farris, E. A., & Chandler, B. W. (2025). What's in a word? Analyzing students' oral reading fluency to inform instructional decision-making. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *60*(5), 251–261.

Toyama, Y. (2021). What makes reading difficult? An Investigation of the contributions of passage, task, and reader characteristics on comprehension performance. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(4), 633–642.

Toyama, Y., Hiebert, E. H., & Pearson, P. D. (2017). An analysis of the text complexity of leveled passages in four popular classroom reading assessments. *Educational Assessment*, *22*(3), 139–170.

Trainin, G., Hiebert, E. H., & Wilson, K. M. (2015). A comparison of reading rates, comprehension, and stamina in oral and silent reading of fourth-grade students. *Reading Psychology*, *36*(7), 595–626.

Treiman, R. (2018). Teaching and learning spelling. *Child Development Perspectives*, *12*(4), 235–239.

Treiman, R., & Rodriguez, K. (1999). Young children use letter names in learning to read words. *Psychological Science*, *10*(4), 334–338.

Troia, G. A., Lin, S. J. C., Cohen, S., & Monroe, B. W. (2011). A year in the writing workshop: Linking writing instruction practices and teachers' epistemologies and beliefs about writing instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, *112*(1), 155–182.

Truckenmiller, A. J., Cho, E., Bourgeois, S., & Friedman, E. (2024). Uses and misuses of commercial reading assessment: An applied framework for decision making in grades K through 6. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(5), 609–623.

Tuma, A. P., Suo, G., Eagan, J., Kaufman, J. H., Doan, S., Lee, S., & Suryavanshi, A. (2023). *The 2023 American instructional resources survey*. RAND.

Tunmer, W. E., & Nicholson, T. (2011). The development and teaching of word recognition skill. In *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. IV, pp. 405–431). Routledge.

Turner, J., & Paris, S. G. (2010). How literacy tasks influence children's motivation for literacy. *Essential Readings on Motivation: International Reading Association.*

Twenge, J. M., Martin, G. N., & Spitzberg, B. H. (2019). Trends in US Adolescents' media use, 1976–2016: The rise of digital media, the decline of TV, and the (near) demise of print. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture*, *8*(4), 329.

Tyner, A., & Kabourek, S. (2020). *Social studies instruction and reading comprehension: Evidence from the early childhood longitudinal study*. Thomas B. Fordham Institute.

U.S. Department of Education. (1983, April). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform*. The National Commission on Excellence in Education.

U.S. Department of Education. (2025). *Grant priorities will inform department discretionary grant programs*. https://www.ed.gov/about/news/press-release/us-department-of-education-releases-secretary-mcmahons-supplemental-grant-priorities

University of Oregon. (2018). *Dynamic indicators of basic early literacy skills (DIBELS®): Administration and scoring guide* (8th ed.). https://dibels.uoregon.edu

Usher, M. (2025). Generative AI vs. instructor vs. peer assessments: A comparison of grading and feedback in higher education. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 50*(6), 912–927.

Valencia, S. W., Smith, A. T., Reece, A. M., Li, M., Wixson, K. K., & Newman, H. (2010). Oral reading fluency assessment: Issues of construct, criterion, and consequential validity. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *45*(3), 270–291.

Valli, L., Croninger, R. G., & Buese, D. (2012). Studying high-quality teaching in a highly charged policy environment. *Teachers College Record*, *114*(4), 1–33.

Valli, L., Croninger, R. G., Chambliss, M. J., Graeber, A. O., & Buese, D. (2008). *Test driven: High-stakes accountability in elementary schools*. Teachers College Press.

van Bergen, E., Vasalampi, K., & Torppa, M. (2021). How are practice and performance related? Development of reading from age 5 to 15. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(3), 415–434.

van den Broek, P., Beker, K., & Oudega, M. (2015). Inference generation in text comprehension: Automatic and strategic processes in the construction of a mental representation. In E. J. O'Brien, A. E. Cook, & R. F. Lorch, Jr. (Eds.), *Inferences during reading* (pp. 94–121). Cambridge University Press.

van den Broek, P., & Kemer, K. E. (2000). The mind in action: What it means to comprehend during reading.

In B. M. Taylor, P. van den Broek, & M. Graves (Eds.), *Reading for meaning* (pp. 1–31). International Reading Association.

van Moort, M. L., de Bruïne, A., & van den Broek, P. (2025). Reading comprehension in an online world: Challenges, opportunities, and implications for education. *The Reading Teacher*, *79*(3), 1–14.

Vasinda, S., & Pilgrim, J. (2019). Are we preparing students for the web in the wild? An analysis of features of websites for children. *The Journal of Literacy and Technology*, *20*(2), 97–124.

Vaughn, M., Premo, J., Sotirovska, V. V., & Erickson, D. (2020). Evaluating agency in literacy using the student agency profile. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(4), 427–441.

Vaughn, S., Klingner, J. K., Swanson, E. A., Boardman, A. G., Roberts, G., Mohammed, S. S., & Stillman-Spisak, S. J. (2011). Efficacy of collaborative strategic reading with middle school students. *American Educational Research Journal*, *48*(4), 938–964.

Vandervelden, M. C., & Siegel, L. S. (1995). Phonological recoding and phoneme awareness in early literacy: A developmental approach. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 854-875.

Veenendaal, N. J., Groen, M. A., & Verhoeven, L. (2015). What oral text reading fluency can reveal about reading comprehension. *Journal of Research in Reading*, *38*(3), 213–225.

Vellutino, F. R., Scanlon, D. M., Sipay, E. R., Small, S. G., Pratt, A., Chen, R., & Denckla, M. B. (1996). Cognitive profiles of difficult to remediate and readily remediated poor readers: Early intervention as a vehicle for distinguishing between cognitive and experiential deficits as basic causes of specific reading disability. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 88*(4), 601–638.

Venezky, R. L. (1999). *The American way of spelling: The structure and origins of American English orthography*. Guilford Press.

Verhoeven, L., Voeten, M., & Segers, E. (2022). Computer-assisted word reading intervention effects throughout the primary grades: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *37*, 100486.

Vinovskis, M. A. (2022). Federal compensatory education policies from Lyndon B. Johnson to Barack H. Obama. *History of Education Quarterly*, *62*(3), 243–267.

von Gillern, S., Gleason, B., & Hutchison, A. (2022). Digital citizenship, media literacy, and the ACTS framework. *The Reading Teacher*, *76*(2), 145–158.

von Hippel, P. T. (2018). Inequality in reading and math skills forms mainly before school begins. *Psychological Science*, *29*(6), 1151–1159. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797617746189

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (Vol. 86). Harvard University Press.

Walpole, S., Amendum, S., Pasquarella, A., Strong, J. Z., & McKenna, M. C. (2017). The promise of a literacy reform effort in the upper elementary grades. *The Elementary School Journal*, *118*(2), 257–280.

Walpole, S., & McKenna, M. C. (2007). *Differentiated reading instruction: Strategies for the primary grades*. Guilford Press.

Walpole, S., McKenna, M. C., & Philippakos, Z. A. (2011). *Differentiated reading instruction in grades 4 and 5: Strategies and resources*. Guilford Press.

Walsh-Moorman, E., & Hovick, K. (2021). "This Is Crazy . . . She's Real": How fourth-grade readers establish source authority. *The Reading Teacher*, *74*(5), 559–568.

Wang, D. (2009). Factors affecting the comprehension of global and local main idea. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, *39*(2), 34–52.

Wanzek, J., Wexler, J., Vaughn, S., & Ciullo, S. (2010). Reading interventions for struggling readers in the upper elementary grades: A synthesis of 20 years of research. *Reading and Writing*, *23*, 889–912.

Watts-Taffe, S., Fisher, P., & Blachowiz, C. (2017). Vocabulary instruction: Research and Practice. In D. Lapp & D. Fisher (Eds.), *The handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (4th ed., pp. 130–161). Routledge.

Webb, S., Massey, D., Goggans, M., & Flajole, K. (2019). Thirty-five years of the gradual release of responsibility: Scaffolding toward complex and responsive teaching. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(1), 75–83.

Webster, N. (1790). *The little reader's assistant*. Elisha Babcock.

Webster, N. (1821). *The American spelling book: Containing the rudiments of the English language, for the use of schools in the United States*. Holbrook and Fessenden.

Welsch, J. G., Powell, J. J., & Robnolt, V. J. (2019). Getting to the core of close reading: What do we really know and what remains to be seen? *Reading Psychology*, *40*(1), 95–116.

Werderich, D. E. (2006). The teacher's response process in dialogue journals. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, *47*(1), 4.

Wertsch, J. V. (1998). *Mind as action.* Oxford University Press.

Westby, C., Culatta, B., Lawrence, B., & Hall-Kenyon, K. (2010). Summarizing expository texts. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *30*(4), 275–287.

Wexler, N. (2020). *The Knowledge Gap: The hidden cause of America's broken education system—And how to fix it*. Penguin.

Wharton-McDonald, R., Pressley, M., & Hampston, J. M. (1998). Literacy instruction in nine first-grade classrooms: Teacher characteristics and student achievement. *Elementary School Journal, 99,* 101–128.

White, S., Sabatini, J., Park, B. J., Chen, J., Bernstein, J., & Li, M. (2021). *The 2018 NAEP Oral Reading Fluency Study*. NCES 2021–2025. National Center for Education Statistics.

White, T. G. (2005). Effects of systematic and strategic analogy-based phonics on grade 2 students' word reading and reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *40*(2), 234–255.

White, T. G., Graves, M. F., & Slater, W. H. (1990). Growth of reading vocabulary in diverse elementary schools: Decoding and word meaning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(2), 281–290.

White, T. G., Slater, W. H., & Graves, M. F. (1989). Yes/no method of vocabulary assessment: Valid for whom and useful for what? In S. McCormick & V. Zutel (Eds.), *Cognitive and social perspectives for literacy research and instruction.* National Reading Conference.

White, T. G., Sowell, J., & Yanagihara, A. (1989). Teaching elementary students to use word-part clues. *The Reading Teacher, 44,* 302–307.

Whitehurst, G. J., Arnold, D. S., Epstein, J. N., Angell, A. L., Smith, M., & Fischel, J. E. (1994). A picture book reading intervention in day care and home for children from low-income families. *Developmental Psychology, 30*(5), 679–689. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.30.5.679

Whitehurst, G. J., Falco, F. L., Lonigan, C. J., Fischel, J. E., DeBaryshe, B. D., Valdez-Menchaca, M. C., & Caulfield, M. (1988). Accelerating language development through

picture book reading. *Developmental Psychology, 24*(4), 552–559. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.24.4.552

Wigfield, A., & Guthrie, J. T. (1997). Relations of children's motivation for reading to the amount and breadth of their reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *89*(3), 420.

Wijekumar, K. K., Meyer, B. J., & Lei, P. (2017). Web-based text structure strategy instruction improves seventh graders' content area reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *109*(6), 741.

Wiliam, D., & Thompson, M. (2007) Integrating assessment with instruction: what will it take to make it work? In C. A. Dwyer (Ed.), *The future of assessment: Shaping teaching and learning* (pp. 53–82). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Wilkinson, I. A., Murphy, P. K., & Binici, S. (2015). Dialogue-intensive pedagogies for promoting reading comprehension: What we know, what we need to know. In L. R. Resnick, C. S. C. Asterhan, & S. H. Clarke (Eds), *Socializing intelligence through academic talk and dialogue* (pp. 37–50). American Educational Research Association.

Wilkinson, I. A., Scott, J. A., Hiebert, E. H., & Anderson, R. C. (2016). Prologue: Becoming a nation of readers. *Journal of Education*, *196*(3), 1–5.

Williams, C. (2018). Learning to write with interactive writing instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *71*(5), 523–532.

Williams, C., & Beam, S. (2019). Technology and writing: Review of research. *Computers & Education*, *128*, 227–242.

Williams, J. P. (2018). Text structure instruction: The research is moving forward. *Reading and Writing*, *31*(9), 1923–1935.

Williams, J. P., Hall, K. M., Lauer, K. D., Stafford, K. B., DeSisto, L. A., & deCani, J. S. (2005). Expository text comprehension in the primary grade classroom. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *97*(4), 538.

Williams, J. P., Lauer, K. D., Hall, K. M., Lord, K. M., Gugga, S. S., Bak, S. J., Jacobs, P. R., & de Cani, J. S. (2002). Teaching elementary school students to identify story themes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(2), 235.

Williams, J. P., Pollini, S., Nubla-Kung, A. M., Snyder, A. E., Garcia, A., Ordynans, J. G., & Atkins, J. G. (2014). An intervention to improve comprehension of cause/effect through expository text structure instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *106*(1), 1.

Willingham, D. T. (2006a). How knowledge helps: It speeds and strengthens reading comprehension, learning and thinking. *American Educator, 30*(1), 30–37.

Willingham, D. T. (2006b). The usefulness of brief instruction in reading comprehension strategies. *American Educator, 31*(Winter), 39–45.

Wineburg, S., Breakstone, J., McGrew, S., & Ortega, T. (2017). Why google can't save us: The challenges of our post-Gutenberg moment. In O. Zlatkin-Troitschanskala, G. Wittum, & A. Dengel (Eds), *Positive learning in the age of information: A blessing or a curse?* (pp. 221–228). Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden.

Wiske, M. S. (1998). *Teaching for understanding: Linking research with practice.* Jossey-Bass.

Wittrock, M. (1986). Students' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 297–314). Macmillan.

Wood, D. J., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem-solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 17*(2), 89–100.

Woodruff, A. H., & Griffin, R. A. (2017). Reader response in secondary settings: Increasing comprehension through meaningful interactions with literary texts. *Texas Journal of Literacy Education*, *5*(2), 108–116.

Worcester, S. (1832). *First book for reading*. Jenks, Palmer & Co.

Wright, T. S. (2019). Reading to learn from the start: The power of interactive read-alouds. *American Educator*, *42*(4), 4.

Wright, T. S., & Cervetti, G. N. (2017). A systematic review of the research on vocabulary instruction that impacts text comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly 52*(2), 203–226.

Wright, T. S., & Neuman, S. B. (2013). Vocabulary instruction in commonly used kindergarten core reading curricula. *The Elementary School Journal*, *113*(3), 386–408.

Wylie, R. E., & Durrell, D. D. (1970). Teaching vowels through phonograms. *Elementary English*, *47*(6), 787–791.

Yopp, H. K. (1995). A test for assessing phonemic awareness in young children. *The Reading Teacher, 49*(1), 20–29.

Yopp, H., & Yopp, R. H. (2022). *Purposeful play for early childhood phonological awareness.* ebook. Teacher Created Materials.

Yopp, H. K., & Yopp, R. H. (2000). Supporting phonemic awareness development in the classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, *54*(2), 130–143.

Yopp, R. H., & Yopp, H. K. (2006). Informational texts as read-alouds at school and home. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *38*(1), 37–51.

Zevenbergen, A. A., & Whitehurst, G. J. (2004). Dialogic reading: A shared picture book reading intervention for preschoolers. In A. V. Kleeck, S. A. Stahl, & E. B. Bauer (Eds.), *On reading books to children: Parents and teachers* (pp. 177–200). Erlbaum.

Zhang, S., & Duke, N. K. (2008). Strategies for Internet reading with different reading purposes: A descriptive study of twelve good Internet readers. *Journal of Literacy Research, 40*(1), 128–162.

Zhang, S., Duke, N. K., & Jimenez, L. M. (2011). The WWW-DOT approach to improving students' critical evaluation of websites. *The Reading Teacher, 65*(2), 150–168.

Zheng, B., Warschauer, M., Lin, C.-H., & Chang, C. (2016). Learning in one-to-one laptop environments: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 86*(4), 1052–1084.

Zickuhr, K., & Madden, M. (2012). Older adults and internet use. *Pew Internet & American Life Project, 6*, 1–23.

Zwaan, R. A. (1996). Processing narrative time shifts. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 22*(5), 1196.

Name Index

A

Abramczyk, A., 90
Adams, J., 515
Adams, M., 3, 47, 120
Adams, M. J., 226, 264, 272
Adams, P., 240
Adler, D. A., 303
Adler, M. J., 414
Afflerbach, P., 22, 381, 382, 384, 438, 440, 443, 444
Agostini, A., 79
Ahn, S., 358
Alahmari, A., 128
Alcini, A., 428
Alexander, K. L., 311
Alexander, P., 4, 23, 73, 424, 431
Allen-Fletcher, C., 64
Allington, R. L., 51, 54, 82, 112, 179, 275, 311, 314, 346
Al Otaiba, S., 242, 252
Altamura, L., 209, 210
Alvarez, L., 428
Alvarez, W., 428
Alves, A., 487
Amendum, S. J., 191
Ames, C., 91
Anders, B., 497
Anderson, E., 390
Anderson, R. C., 2, 11, 21, 46, 62, 106, 201, 207, 295, 311, 315, 344, 346, 379, 424, 446
Anning, M., 63, 64
Anson, C., 481
Arias, M. B., 517
Armbruster, B. B., 201
Artley, A., 192
Askov, E., 45
Atteberry, A., 311
August, D., 344, 375, 515, 517, 535
Au, K. H., 396, 447
Au, W., 136, 137
Avalos, M. A., 538
Aydarova, O., 31, 50

B

Bacon, F., 470, 477
Baildon, M., 211–213
Baker, S., 196, 197, 425, 515, 534
Balu, R., 127, 138
Barone, D. M., 152
Barrett, S., 141
Barrett, T. S., 327
Barr, R., 130
Bartlett, F. C., 381
Barzilai, S., 464
Bassok, D., 223, 295
Bates, C. C., 335
Baumann, J., 65, 300, 344, 356, 360, 365
Baumann, J. F., 122
Baz, J., 503
Beach, R., 481
Beam, A. P., 503
Bear, D. R., 293
Beaver, J., 146
Becker, W. C., 344
Beck, I., 422, 425, 429, 446, 447
Beck, I. L., 120, 188, 197, 203, 205, 244, 247, 273, 281, 282, 284, 286–288, 290–292, 298, 301, 344, 348, 369, 398, 399, 410, 521, 537
Beck, M. E., 244, 281, 282, 284, 286–288, 290–292, 298, 301, 537
Beecher, Ann, 521, 522
Beers, K., 477
Begeny, J. C., 184
Beishuizen, M., 440, 443
Bell, T., 136
Bender, C., 191
Bender, E. M., 34
Benedetto, S., 456
Benjamin, R. G., 184
Bennett-Armistead, V. S., 441
Bennett, R. E., 147
Berliner, D. C., 46, 54
Berne, E. C., 165
Bernhardt, E., 524
Betts, B., 480
Betts, E., 168
Biancarosa, G., 460
Biddle, B. J., 46
Biddle, W. B., 446
Biemiller, A., 328, 346
Bisaillon, J., 428
Blachowicz, C. L. Z., 364, 367
Black, P., 56, 140, 147
Blake, W., 500
Blevins, W., 281
Bloodgood, J. W., 219
Blythe, T., 62, 392
Blything, L. P., 409
Boaler, J., 90
Boersma, A., 427, 496
Bogaerds-Hazenberg, S., 57, 381, 414, 433, 434, 440, 477, 493
Boggs, G. L., 494
Boggs, J., 494
Bogner, K., 51, 92, 93, 102
Bond, G., 45
Bond, G. L., 281
Bond, M., 217
Bone, E., 11
Bowers, P. N., 360
Box, G. E. P., 14
Boyles, N., 24
Brady, S., 283
Branch, T., 540
Branigan, C., 485
Bransford, J. D., 379
Braten, I., 458
Brenner, D., 36, 295, 313, 331, 374
Brindle, M., 470
Bronte, E., 404
Brooks, C., 24
Brophy, J., 102
Brophy, J. E., 52, 55
Brown, A., 46, 438, 439, 449–451
Brown, A. L., 382, 385, 392
Brown, J. S., 60
Brown, L., 130, 326, 327
Brown, M. W., 304
Bruck, M., 228
Bruner, J., 392, 425
Bruner, J. S., 196
Bryant, P. E., 226
Burkhauser, M. A., 427
Burr, V., 17
Bus, A. G., 179
Bush, G. H. W., 2, 3
Bush, G. W., 2, 3, 47, 137
Buttner, G., 444

C

Cabell, S., 63
Cabell, S. Q., 209, 252
Cain, K., 386, 400
Caldwell, J. S., 146
Calet, N., 310
Calkins, L., 67
Callahan, R. E., 135, 136
Campbell, D., 173
Canney, G., 476
Cao, Y., 155
Capin, P., 382, 447
Carberry, D., 499
Carlisle, J. F., 50, 70, 119, 413
Carlson, N., 499, 531
Carol, J. B., 277
Carr, E., 463
Carroll, J., 470
Carter, J., 3
Cartwright, K. B., 4, 14, 15, 21, 27, 378
Castek, J., 384
Castles, A., 67, 378, 386
Castrano, E., 13
Caulfield, M., 458
Cazden, C., 493
Ceci, S. J., 312
Cervetti, G. N., 4, 41, 43, 46, 345, 362, 425
Chall, J., 45, 184, 192, 196, 223, 271, 281, 309, 323
Chang, W. C., 477
Chappuis, J., 146
Cheung, A., 515
Chinn, C., 464
Chisholm, S., 83
Cho, B-Y., 22, 457, 460, 462
Chomsky, C., 327, 328
Christie, F., 392, 490
Christ, T. J., 371, 471
Cimino, C., 35
Cipriano, C., 96
Cisneros, S., 72
Clark, C., 73, 76, 312
Clark, K. F., 407
Clay, M., 130, 168, 301
Clemens, N. H., 226, 242
Clemente, R., 29, 524
Clinton, B., 2, 3
Cobb, L., 41
Cofer, J. O., 318
Cohen, E. G., 60, 90
Cohen, P.A., 530
Coiro, J., 384
Cole, D., 319
Coleman, A., 106, 206
Coleman, D., 48, 49, 413, 417, 517
Coleman, J., 2
Collinge, J., 26, 187, 374
Collinge, S., 393, 394, 481
Colon-Vila, L., 522, 523
Compton, D. L., 184
Compton-Lily, C., 515
Connor, C., 108, 109, 115, 116, 119, 122, 126, 129, 150, 242, 252, 272, 274, 281, 439
Connor, C. M., 32, 52, 67
Conradi, K., 101
Conway, A. R. A., 438
Cooke, C., 506

Cooper Borkenhagen, M., 281, 283, 286, 287, 301
Cooper, F., 191
Cope, B., 210, 213
Corio, J., 211, 212, 457, 459, 460, 463, 464
Costantino-Lane, T., 251
Coulter, D., 496
Coyne, M., 49
Coyne, M . D., 128, 226, 242
Craig, S., 233
Cremin, L., 41
Cremin, T., 314
Cress, J., 249
Crews, D., 289
Cross, D. R., 382
Crowe, E. C., 116
Crystal, D., 500
Csikszentmihalyi, M., 88
Cuban, L., 44, 503
Culham, R., 510
Cullinan, B. E., 78
Cummins, J., 86, 517, 540
Cunningham, J. W., 193, 194
Cunningham, P. M., 280, 291, 292
Curie, M., 494
Curtis, C. P., 379, 394, 396, 401
Cutchins, J., 442

D

Dale, E., 181, 184
Daniels, H., 61, 416, 417
Darling-Hammond, L., 4, 136
David, Y. M., 450
Davila, C., 318
Dawson, M. R., 200
Day, J. D., 385
de Bore, H., 383
Deci, E. L., 90
Degen, B., 29
de Glopper, K., 356
Delpit, L., 106, 476, 520
Demarest, A. J., 43
Dennison, R. S., 84
Deno, S. L., 143, 337
Derewianka, B., 490, 491, 497
DeStefano, D., 456
De Temple, J., 346
Dewey, J., 136, 138, 283
Dewitz, P., 17, 22, 23, 28, 34, 43, 47–49, 54, 62, 67, 69, 70, 78, 83, 108, 110, 122, 169, 170, 187, 199, 208, 209, 219, 220, 222, 234, 236, 252, 256, 275, 299, 317, 357, 374, 383, 385, 387, 391, 399, 401–403, 415, 424, 437, 439, 440, 442, 454, 455, 477, 484, 489, 491, 498, 523
Dickinson, D. K., 15
Dignath, C., 444
Doan, S., 67
Dobbs, A. P., 428
Dobler, E., 457, 459, 463, 464
Dolch, E. W., 277
Dole, J. A., 439
Dolezal, S. E., 51, 92, 102
Donaldson, A. I. M., 485
Donovan, C. A., 232, 233
Dorfman, L. R., 210
Dorn, L. J., 473
Dove, R., 391
Draper, N. R., 14
Dreher, M. J., 399
Drimmer, S. W., 479
Driscoll, C., 494
Duda, E., 428
Duffy, G. G., 59
Duin, A. H., 369, 370
Duke, N. K., 4, 14, 15, 21, 27, 34, 50, 190, 196, 230, 265, 357, 378, 381, 424, 440, 441, 457, 460, 462, 464, 540, 541
Durrell, D. D., 296
Dykstra, R., 41, 45, 281
Dymock, S., 381

E

Eakins, T., 391
Echevarria, J., 532
Edmonds, M. S., 129
Eeds, M., 447
Ehri, L. C., 119, 186, 221, 222, 228, 251, 270, 271, 281, 292, 295, 296, 298, 306
Eisenhower, D. D., 2
Elbow, P., 478
Elbro, C., 380, 402, 466
EL Education (Open Up Resources), 391
Elkerton, A., 29
Elleman, A. M., 27, 57, 118, 265, 378, 386, 400
Ellington, A. J., 503
Ellman, A. M., 168
Elrod, T., 79
Elson, W. H., 192
Emig, J., 487
Enayeh, A., 496
Engel, T., 428
Englert, C. S., 490
Engle, R. W., 438
Ericson, L., 244

F

Farr, R. C., 120
Fawson, P. C., 152
Fernald, A., 344
Fetterman, D. M., 164
Filderman, M. J., 383, 444
Finn, J. D., 174
Fisher, D., 24, 54, 58, 189, 237, 413
Fisher, P. J., 364, 367
Fishman, B., 116
Fitzgerald, F. S., 396
Fitzgerald, J., 412, 541
Flanagan, M., 12
Flesch, R., 45, 192
Fluhler, S. K., 154
Fong, P., 231
Foorman, B., 251, 252, 281, 303
Forbes, E., 34
Ford, M. P., 142
Fountas, I. C., 49, 67, 68, 113, 119, 185, 189, 272, 392, 412, 413
Fountoukidis, D., 184
Franklin, B., 515
Frankweiler, B. E., 380
Frayer, D., 351
Freeman, D., 356
Freeman, M. E., 121
Frey, N., 58, 189, 413
Frith, U., 270, 271
Frost, R., 24, 391
Fry, E. B., 181, 183, 184, 277
Frye, N., 24, 232
Fuchs, D., 126
Fuchs, L. S., 126, 143
Fukkink, R. G., 356

G

Gaesser, B., 188
Gallagher, M. C., 46, 57, 147, 405
Gambrell, L. B., 75
Gamse, B., 47, 138
Gardner, H., 16
Garzon, D., 35
Gaskins, I. W., 271, 293, 296, 298
Gates, A., 43
Gearin, B., 106, 107
Gehrig, L., 543
Gellert, K., 466
Gersten, R., 143, 454, 515, 524, 534, 539
Get Thee to a Punnery (Lederer), 368
Gilbert, J. B., 427
Gildea, P. M., 361
Gillespie-Rouse, A., 470
Goldenberg, C., 106, 107, 122, 222, 344, 375, 416, 417, 484, 515, 517, 519
Gomez, S., 457
Goodman, K., 45, 46, 49, 75
Goodman, Y. M., 168
Good, R. H., 146
Good, T. L., 52, 55
Goodwin, A. P., 200, 358
Gottlieb, I., 191
Goudvis, A., 434
Goudvis, S., 199
Gough, P. B., 14, 150, 230, 265, 270, 272
Goulet, V., 191
Graesser, A. C., 379, 438
Graham, S., 470–472, 476, 477, 483, 487, 490
Grant, U. S., 118
Gratz, A., 353, 395
Graves, B., 86, 98, 448, 485
Graves, D. H., 205, 487, 505, 506
Graves, M. F., 19, 22, 24, 28, 33, 34, 41, 56, 62, 122, 169, 234, 344, 349–352, 355–358, 360, 361, 363, 364, 367, 369, 370, 383, 385, 405, 407, 412, 439, 440, 477, 541, 547
Gray, W. S., 43, 192
Greenberg, M. T., 97, 102
Greenleaf, C. L., 201
Grey, W. S., 43
Griffin, C., 481
Griffith, A., 460
Grigorenko, E. L., 106
Grimes, A., 63
Grønli, K. S., 128, 300
Guinee, K., 233
Gushiken, M., 319
Guskey, T. R., 167
Guthrie, J. T., 73, 74, 90, 91, 124, 173, 174, 390, 440
Gutierrez, K., 418
Gutierrez, R., 29

H

Hacker, D. J., 450
Haidt, J., 320, 500
Haley, A., 99
Halliday, M. A. K., 490
Hall, K., 423
Hall, S. L., 127, 128
Hamm, D., 135
Hamm, D. N., 465
Handford, E., 281, 392
Hanford, E., 4, 39, 49, 67
Hanna, A., 34
Hanna, C., 366
Hanson, J., 380
Hare, V. C., 385
Harris, K., 470, 483
Harris, Z. S., 213
Hart, B., 106, 344, 345
Harter, D., 534
Hartig, J., 466
Harvey, S., 199, 434
Harwayne, S., 497
Hasbrouck, J., 50, 337, 338
Hathaway, N., 207
Hattan, C., 21, 33, 232, 379, 397, 429, 431
Hattie, J., 300
Hayden, T., 521
Heath, S. B., 75, 230, 521
Hebert, M., 381, 432, 435, 470, 476, 481, 493
Heckelman, R. G., 130, 326
Heibert, E. H., 36
Heimlich, J. E., 352
Heins-Israelson, M. H., 335, 337
Henderson, N., 63
Henry, L. A., 211, 384
Henry, M., 500
Heubach, K. M., 330, 331, 334
Hidi, S., 84
Hiebert, E. H., 4, 13, 54, 108, 115, 130, 148, 180, 186, 187, 193, 194, 201, 218, 223, 229, 252, 295, 309, 313, 329, 331, 344, 355, 374, 425
Hiebert, F., 115, 215
Higham, J., 515
Hill, L. A., 462
Hindley, J., 472, 473
Hirsch, E. D., 391, 424
Hjetland, H. N., 226, 228, 229
Hoffman, J. V., 46, 51, 76, 82, 120, 178, 186
Hoover, W. A., 14, 150, 169, 230, 265
Hopping, L. J., 240
Hornof, M. M., 173, 174
Howell, P., 503
Hudson, A. K., 391
Hudson, M., 196
Huey, E. B., 378
Hughes, E., 29
Hulme, C., 3
Hurley, K., 428
Hutchison, A.C., 456

Hwang, H., 196, 201, 231, 252, 345, 379, 396, 424

I

Ihnot, C., 131
Invernizzi, M., 105
Irwin, V., 35
Israelson, M. H., 336
Iversen, S., 130
Ivey, G., 54

J

Jabr, F., 12
Jackson, K. B., 496
Jang, B. G., 101
Jenkins, J. R., 143, 194
Jennings, L., 61
Jensen, M., 49
Johanston, S., 271
Johns, J. L., 146
Johnson, D., 45, 60
Johnson, D. D., 352, 441, 479
Johnson, D. W., 90, 213
Johnson, F., 194
Johnson, L. B., 2, 412
Johnson, M. K., 379
Johnson, N. S., 398
Johnson, R., 60
Johnson, R. T., 90
Johnston, P. H., 51, 87
Jones, J., 67, 122, 209, 455
Joseph, L., 57, 385, 406, 446
Juel, C., 13, 115, 126, 178, 227–229, 264, 265, 272, 295, 298
Juel, J., 82
Juliebo, M. F., 244
Jungeblut, A., 12
Jurkowski, S., 60, 90

K

Kabourck, M., 111
Kaefer, T., 397
Kalantzis, M., 210, 213
Kambach, A., 15, 128
Kamil, M., 524
Kaminski, R., 138
Karchmer, R., 500
Kaufman, G., 12
Kearns, D. M., 194, 266, 283, 287, 295, 298
Keenan, J. M., 146
Kenavey, K., 49
Kendeou, P., 119, 379, 380
Kennedy, K., 98
Kidd, C., 13
Kieffer, M. J., 360
Kim, J. S., 21, 33, 44, 49, 131, 155, 201, 225, 312, 321, 336, 344, 352, 379, 392, 424–427, 440, 455
King, G., 205
King, Jr., Martin Luther, 170, 171, 396, 397, 412, 494, 540
King, S., 504
Kinney, J., 30, 77, 179, 317, 319
Kintsch, E., 386
Kintsch, W., 14, 19, 20, 378, 379, 386, 414, 429, 471
Kinzer, C. K., 211, 384
Kirby, J. R., 14, 360
Kirsch, I. S., 12
Klassen, C., 418
Klingbell, D. A., 142
Klingner, J. K., 439, 450, 453
Kohnen, A., 211
Kois, D., 312
Konopka, E., 54
Koretz, D., 136, 139, 171–173
Kosmyna, N., 35
Kote, G., 319
Kraft, M. A., 111
Krashen, S., 91
Kubiny, L., 30
Kuhn, D., 380
Kuhn, M., 18, 33
Kuhn, M. R., 129, 309, 310, 329, 330, 332, 334, 337
Kusin, Pritchard, C., 191
Ku, Y.M., 477
Kwon, J., 99

L

Labaree, D. F., 136
Labbo, L. D., 346
LaBerge, D., 18, 310, 323
Lane, B., 504
Langer, J. A., 414
Lawrence, C., 101
Lazer, D., 423
Leatherdale, M. B., 63
Lederer, R., 367
Lee, H., 147
Lee, H. V., 428
LeFevre, J.-A., 456
Leibfreund, M. B., 425
Lenski, S., 526
Lepore, J., 2
Lesaux, N. K., 360, 526
Leu, D. J., 12, 22, 211, 381, 383, 384, 456, 460
Levesque, K. C., 358
Lewin, T., 190, 412
Liben, D., 348
Lincoln, A., 118
Link, P. D., 167
Lipnevich, A., 55
Logan, J. A. R., 224
Lonigan, C. J., 224
Lorenz, T. N., 428
Lovett, M. W., 127
Loweke, K., 84
Lundblom, E., 151
Lupo, S., 33, 379
Lupo, S. M., 201, 207–209

M

MacArthur, C., 35
MacDonald, M., 64, 65
MacGinitie, W. H., 370, 546
Madden, M., 456
Maehr, M. L., 91
Malenfant, I., 98
Mandinach, E. B., 145
Mandler, J. M., 398
Mangen, A., 456
Mann, H., 42
Manyak, P., 345, 359, 402, 403
Manyuk, P., 300
Marieswari, R., 530
Marsh, G., 271
Martin, L. A., 193, 194
Martin, R., 196
Marulis, E., 345
Marzano, R. J., 166
Massaro, D.W., 346
Masters, N., 93, 94
Mather, N., 306
Mathes, P. G., 128, 129, 275, 302
Matisse, H., 494
May, C., 206
Mazzoni, S. A., 75
McAdams, D. P., 13
McAuliffe, C., 134
McCarthy, K. S., 379
McClay, J. K., 506
McClintock, B., 494
McClure, A., 81
McEachin, A., 311
McGill-Franzen, A., 48, 311
McGuffey, W. H., 43
McKenna, M. C., 100, 101, 133
McKeown, M. G., 62, 344, 346, 348, 369, 398, 399, 410, 446, 447
McMaster, K. L., 409
McNair, J. C., 317
McNamara, D. S., 120, 208, 383
McNeil, L. M., 171
McQuillian, J., 345, 355
Medina, A. V., 535
Meister, C., 392, 439, 450, 477
Menand, L., 414
Mendoza, M., 63
Menon, S., 194
Merke, A., 311
Mesmer, H. A., 15
Mesmer, H. E. A., 128, 180, 244, 283, 287, 288, 290
Messick, S., 139
Meyer, B. J. F., 432
Meyer, J. P., 101
Meyers, J., 191
Midgley, C., 91
Miguéns, M. A., 63
Miller, G. A., 361
Milliot, J., 11
Mills, H., 61
Minden-Cupp, C., 82, 115, 151, 272, 295, 298
Minter, D., 496
Mitchell, J., 543
Mitchell, M., 319, 470
Moat, L. C., 278
Moats, L., 37
Mohan, L., 92, 102
Mohr, K. A. J., 327
Moll, L. C., 85, 381
Mol, S. E., 179, 311
Monaghan, E. J., 2
Monroe, M., 192
Moore, D. W., 424
Mora, A., 534
Morais, J., 242
Mora, P., 318
Morgan, P. L., 413
Morris, I., 366
Morrison, F. J., 115, 116, 126, 151
Morrison, T., 396
Morrow, L., 380
Morrow, L. M., 260, 286
Mullis, I. V. S., 7
Muñoz Ryan, P., 353
Murphy, P. K., 410, 415, 416
Murray, B. A., 269
Murray, L., 418, 419

N

Nagy, W., 425
Nagy, W. E., 56, 65, 295, 344, 358, 364
Najarro, I., 515
Nation, K., 65, 264
National Commission on Excellence in Education, 2, 46
Neugebauer, S. R., 363
Neuman, S. B., 15, 31, 345, 374
Newton, I., 544
Nicholson, T., 265, 272
Nietzel, A., 70
Nitko, A. J., 166, 172
Novack, R., 382, 383
Novicoff, J., 111

O

Oakhill, J., 386, 388, 400
Obama, B., 2, 3, 137, 166, 428
O'Brien, E., 380
Ochoa, E., 86, 524
O'Connor, B., 393
O'Connor, C., 49
O'Connor, R. E., 120, 127
O'Donnell, A., 355
Ogle, D., 431, 463
Ogle, D. M., 256
Ong, W. J., 200
Ophir, E., 18
Orme, H., 428
Oslund, E. L., 168, 265, 378
Otaiba, S., 116
Otto, W., 45

P

Paige, D. D., 333
Palian, V., 21
Palincsar, A., 46, 382, 392, 438, 439, 449–451
Panadero, E., 55
Papadakis, S., 131
Paré, A., 439
Paris, A., 399
Paris, S. G., 14, 27, 132, 136, 160, 229, 382, 399, 433
Park, C., 99
Parks, R., 171, 208
Pearson, P. D., 21, 41, 43, 45, 46, 50, 57, 62, 70, 94, 102, 108, 135, 147, 188, 332, 352, 371, 379, 381, 405, 424, 465, 466, 471
Peng, P., 383, 384, 438, 439
Perfetti, C. A., 18, 265
Perkins, D., 62, 63, 392
Petruccio, S. J., 534
Piasta, S. B., 35, 67, 70, 108, 128, 219, 229, 246, 247, 301

Picton, I., 312
Pilgrim, J., 210–212
Pimentel, S., 48, 49, 413
Pinnell, G. S., 49, 67, 68, 113, 119, 185, 189, 272, 392, 412, 413
Pintrich, P. R., 84
Pippins, A., 98
Pittelman, S. D., 352
Player, M., 534
Poindexter, C.A., 479
Polk, J. K., 184
Popham, J., 139, 147, 171
Portalupi, J., 473, 504
Prema, K., 530
Pressley, M., 49, 51, 67, 92, 93, 102, 272, 315, 378, 381, 438, 444
Priddy, R., 497
Probst, R., 477
Proctor, C. P., 460
Prose, F., 504
Pugh, K., 54
Pugh, K. C., 120, 194
Purcell-Gates, V., 232, 264, 441
Puzio, K., 52

Q

Quinn, D. M., 321, 336
Quiocho, A., 380

R

Rabi, I., 447
Rampe, D., 517
Rand, M. K., 218, 242, 250
Ransom, J. C., 24
Raphael, L., 92, 102
Raphael, T., 385
Rapinoe, M., 120
Rasinski, T. V., 18, 325, 338, 355, 363
Rauch, D., 466
Ravitch, D., 173
Read, C., 221
Reagan, R., 2, 136
Reinking, D., 4, 14, 67
Relyea, J. E., 427
Renkl, A., 429
Renninger, K. A., 84
Reutzel, D. R., 322, 418, 455
Reynold, R. E., 446
Reynolds, F., 200
Richards, I. A., 413
Richardson, J., 392
Rich, P., 427
Rinsky, L. A., 267, 268
Risley, T. R., 344, 345
Robbins, C., 298
Roberts, D., 319
Roberts, K., 381
Robertson, C., 305
Robinson, H. A., 26, 393
Robinson, J., 494
Rodriguez, K., 229
Roehrig, A., 92, 102
Rohmann, E., 496
Romeo, R., 11
Roper-Schneider, D., 178, 295
Rosenblatt, L., 24, 25
Rosenshine, B., 392, 439, 446, 450, 477
Roth, F. P., 233
Röthlisberger, S., 366
Routman, R., 470, 481, 486
Ruddell, M. R., 14
Rumelhart, D., 20
Rupp, A. A., 173, 174
Russo, M., 535
Ruth, B., 543
Ryan, P. M., 318, 414
Ryan, R. M., 90
Rylant, C., 161, 405, 406

S

Saenz, L., 530
Salmeron, L., 457
Salter, W., 305
Samuels, S. J., 18, 295, 309, 310, 323–326, 437
Santoro, L. E., 197
Saunders, W., 416, 484
Savage, R., 14
Scammacca, N. K., 129
Scanlon, D. M., 272
Scarborough, H. S., 14, 15, 27, 150, 230
Schaffner, E., 73, 84, 90, 100, 101
Scharping, N., 391
Schatschneider, C., 116
Scherer, E., 427
Schiefele, U., 73, 84, 90, 100, 101
Schildkamp, K., 145
Scholes, J., 314
Schraw, G., 84
Schunk, 22
Schwanenflugel, P. J., 18, 33, 332
Seidenberg, M. S., 19, 49, 56, 64, 65, 264, 269, 273, 275, 295, 303, 312
Selwyn, N., 423
Shahaeian, A., 196
Shanahan, C., 424
Shanahan, T., 32, 115, 129, 130, 137, 148, 186, 264, 274, 303, 309, 323, 346, 375, 412, 424, 471, 515, 535, 541
Shannon, D., 63
Shany, M. T., 328
Share, D. L., 12, 19, 64, 119, 224, 265, 270, 295, 301, 303
Shaw, G. B., 125
Sheinkin, S., 30
Shepard, L. A., 140, 141, 173
Short, K., 418
Siegel, L. S., 107, 298, 526
Silverman, S., 490
Simpson, D., 515
Singer, H., 258, 259, 399
Singer, L. M., 385
Skeers, L., 63
Skinner, B. F., 16
Slater, W. H., 350, 351
Slavin, R., 60, 515
Slavin, R. E., 31, 90
Smart, G., 439
Smith, F., 45, 49
Smith, L., 207
Smith, L. E., 127
Smith, N. B., 41
Smolkin, L. B., 233, 234
Snicket, L., 179
Snow, C. E., 3, 11, 14, 47, 49, 106, 108, 109, 178, 225, 228, 281, 344, 346, 414, 465
Snow, J., 63
Snowling, M. J., 3, 106
Socrates, 55
Soffos, C., 473
Solari, E., 49
Solari, E. J., 128
Song, M., 190
Sowell, J., 268, 360
Spache, G. D., 181
Spandel, V., 472
Sparks, S. D., 516
Spengler, B., 190
Spichtig, R., 10, 309
Squire, J., 45
Stahl, S. A., 309, 330, 331, 334, 344
Stanovich, K. E., 17, 25, 107, 108, 264, 272, 312
Starkey, D., 88
Starr, A., 191
Steacy, L. M., 298, 301
Steiss, J., 503
Stiggins, M., 146
Stilwell, S., 427
Stipek, D., 91
Stowe, H. B., 118
Strickland, D. S., 120
Sudyka, D., 63
Suggate, S. P., 223
Sulzby, E., 218
Sung, Y.-T., 336
Swift, T., 494
Swire-Thompson, B., 423

T

Tanner, D., 390
Tanner, L., 390
Taylor, B., 51, 70, 88, 313, 385, 445
Taylor, B. M., 108, 115, 118, 274, 301
Teague, M., 29
Teale, W. H., 218
Tegmark, M., 313, 314
Tenent, A., 450
Thayer, M., 531
Thomas, P.L., 515
Thompson, G. B., 271, 272
Thompson, M., 160
Thorndyke, P. W., 398
Tierney, R. J., 41, 50, 407, 471
Tiffany, L. C., 494
Timperley, H., 300
Tindal, G. A., 154, 337, 338
Tollefson, J. W., 515
Tolman, C. A., 278
Topping, K., 311
Torppa, M., 5, 311, 323
Tortelli, L. V., 186, 194
Toste, J. R., 73, 140, 152, 154, 168
Townsend, D., 425
Toyama, Y., 145, 146, 148
Tranin, G., 189
Treiman, R., 221, 228, 229
Troia, G., 473
Truckenmiller, A. J., 142, 148, 371
Trueman, M., 63
Trump, D., 4
Tuma, R., 391
Tunmer, W. E., 130, 265, 272
Turner, J. E., 126
Tvedt, J. N., 427
Twenge, J. M., 312
Tyner, A., 111

U

Ulanoff, S., 380
Unrau, N., 14
Usher, M., 503

V

Valdovinos, Jovita, 63
Valencia, S. W., 201
Valli, L., 140, 467
Van Bergen, E., 311
van den Broek, P., 189, 409, 439
Vandervelden, M. C., 298
van Hippel, P., 11
van Moort, M., 460, 462
Van Sickle, J. H., 43
Vasinda, S., 210
Vaughn, S., 301, 453
Veenendaal, N. J., 310
Vellutino, F., 107
Venezky, R. L., 286
Verhoeven, L., 131
Vinovskis, M., 3
von Gillern, S., 211
Vygotsky, L., 25, 61, 114, 415

W

Wagner, R. K., 219, 229, 246, 247
Walpole, S., 133, 413
Walsh-Moorman, E., 211
Wan, E., 240
Wang, D., 385
Wanzek, J., 127
Warren, R. P., 24
Washington, G., 205
Watts-Taffe, S., 344, 363, 364
Weaver, C., 49, 67
Webb, N., 57
Webster, J., 490
Webster, N., 42, 515
Wei, W. T. S., 320
Wells, D., 447
Welsch, J. G., 49, 414
Werderich, D. E., 483
Wertsch, J. V., 25
Westby, C., 445
Wexler, N., 252, 391
Wharton-McDonald, R., 51
Whitehead, A. N., 62
Whitehurst, G. J., 232, 346

White, T., 312, 321
White, T. G., 267, 268, 296, 344, 360, 373
Wigfield, A., 73, 74, 90, 91
Wijekumar, K., 434
Wilcox, B. R., 327
Wiliam, D., 56, 139, 147, 160
Wilkerson, T., 3
Williams, C., 489
Williams, G., 30, 490, 491
Williams, G. J., 240
Williams, J. P., 404, 434, 435, 437
Williams, K. J., 503
Williams, W. C., 391, 500, 501
Willingham, D. T., 62
Wineberg, S., 458
Winograd, P. N., 87
Wiske, M. S., 62
Wittrock, M. C., 87
Wood, D., 59, 407, 460
Woodruff, E., 481
Worcester, S., 43
Wright, T. S., 235, 345, 362, 374
Wylie, R. E., 296

Y

Yaden, D. B., 14
Yanagihara, A., 268, 360
Yokota, J., 107, 178
Yopp, H. K., 196, 220, 242, 258, 259
Yopp, R. H., 196, 220, 242

Z

Zang, S., 457, 460, 462
Zevenbergen, A. A., 346
Zhang, S., 211, 213, 460
Zheng, B., 35
Zickuhr, K., 456
Zimmerman, B. J., 22
Zusho, A., 84
Zwaan, R., 400

Subject Index

A

Ability grouping, 45
Academically relevant task, 54
Academic values, 86
Accelerated Reader, 72
Accuracy stage of reading development, 323
Active learning, 55
Active teaching, 54
Adaptability, of reading comprehension strategies, 382
Affixes, 267. *See also* Prefixes; Suffixes
AimsWebPlus, 138
Alliteration, 226
Alphabetic principle, 221–222
Alphabet recognition, 229
American College Testing Service (ACT), 179
Analogizing, 271
Analogy, decoding by, 272
Anchor charts, 78
Anticipation guides, 89
Application and outreach, 411
Art, 113
Articulation, 226
Artificial Intelligence (AI), 34, 35, 63, 209
Assessment, 134–176
  benchmark tests, 137
  commercial assessments, 141
  for English language learners, 544–547
  formative, 138, 140–141, 146
  high-stakes testing, 117, 137
  informal reading inventories (IRI), 141, 142, 168
  progress monitoring, 137–138, 143
  summative, 140–141
  universal screening tests, 126, 141–143
Attitudes, assessing student, 100
Attribution theory, 87
Audio-assisted repeated reading, 327–329
Authentic assessment, 61
Autobiographies, writing, 494
Automaticity, 18

B

Background knowledge, 16, 20, 274, 431
  activating, 129
  building, 380, 431–432
  cultural or experiential, 381
  domain and conceptual, 380–381
Basal readers, 43. *See also* Core reading programs
Basic skills, 54
Basic vocabulary, 347
Be a Mind Reader (game), 280
Benchmark tests, 137
Big books, 237
Bilingual books, 531
Biographies, writing, 494–495
Blending, 290
Book clubs, 53
Book leveling, 185–186
Book reviews, 77
Books
  making, 250
  predictable texts, 193
  selecting, 192–194, 199
Brainstorming, 478–479
Building knowledge, 3, 4, 33, 62, 425–437

C

Caring, creating sense of, 522–523
Challenges, appropriate, 88
Children's Choices list, 76
Choice, 23, 80
Choral reading, 332–333
Chunking words, 18
Clarifying, 22
Classroom assessment. *See* Assessment
Classroom climate, 80–81
Close reading, 24, 49, 391
Clustering. *See* Semantic mapping
Coaching, 300–302
Coarticulation, 226
Cognitive-constructivist view, 16–17
Cognitive modeling, 58–59
Cognitive psychology, 16
Coherence, 187–188
Collect-Interpret-Apply (C.I.A.), 393
Colonial period, 41
Common Core State Standards (CCSS), 3, 27, 28, 31, 40, 48, 179
Comprehension. *See* Reading comprehension
Comprehension curriculums, 390–394
Comprehension lesson, 594–607
Comprehension strategies, 21–23, 34, 381–386
Computers, 91, 107. *See also* Artificial Intelligence (AI); Digital text; Internet
Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI), 74
Conceptual knowledge, 380–381
Conferences, 53, 322
Considerate text, 201
Consolidated alphabetic phase of reading, 271
Consonants
  consonant blends, 282
  consonant digraphs, 282
  consonant-vowel-consonant-silent e (CVCe) words, 287
  consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) words, 266, 286
Consonant-vowel-vowel-consonant (CVVC) words, 293
Construction-integration process, 19–23
Constructivism, 17, 24, 57
Context, 272
Context clues, 355–358
Contextual guessing, 271
Contextualized meaning, 264
Cooperative group work, 85
Cooperative learning, 60, 61, 90
Core reading programs, 47–48, 67, 109, 208–209, 252, 334
Crisis in reading instruction, 2, 49
Criterion-referenced tests, 166
Critical thinking, 12, 34, 90, 521
Cultural knowledge, 381
Curriculum
  comprehension, 390–394
  cycle, 491
  literacy, 31–37
  thematic, 392–394
Curriculum-based measures (CBM), 126, 141, 143

D

Daily schedule, 237
Dale-Chall formula, 181, 184
Dale-Chall Readability Formula, 181, 183, 184
Decoding, 14, 18, 33, 45, 52, 107, 120, 271, 287, 290, 301, 537
  by analogy, 272
  multisyllabic words, 298–300
Department of Education, 4
Derivational suffixes, 267
Developmental sequence, 270–271
Dialogue journal, 482–483
DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills), 138, 141, 143, 167
Diction, 230, 364–365
Dictionary, 361–362
Differentiating instruction, 4, 52, 105, 114–125, 275, 375
  in core reading programs, 122
  for English language learners, 122
Digital text, 9, 11, 12, 34, 76, 100, 209–213, 335–336
Digraphs
  consonant, 282
  vowel, 282
Diphthongs, 282
Direct explanation, 58
Direct instruction, 4, 16, 32, 52, 57, 64–66, 119, 128
Directionality in print, 220
Discussion, 13, 17, 19, 31, 51, 60, 75, 86, 93, 101, 129, 140, 146, 160, 161, 230, 238, 302, 380, 392, 412, 415–419
  in Questioning the Author (QtA), 410, 606
Diversity, 85, 106
Domain knowledge, 380–381, 425
Double-entry journals, 485–486
Drafting, 488
Drama, 411
During-reading activities, 408–410
Dyad reading. *See* Partner reading
Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS). *See* DIBELS
Dyslexia, 107, 127

E

E-books. *See* Digital text
Economically disadvantaged students, 11, 13, 106, 520–524

Editing, 35, 488, 490
Efferent reading, 24
Efficacy, 23, 74, 87
Elkonin boxes, 244
Emergent literacy, 33, 217–260
  assessment of, 257–260
  and curriculum expectations, 222–224
Engagement, 73, 93, 102
English language learners (ELLs), 19, 35, 60, 80, 85, 106, 122, 194, 222, 514–547
  assessment for, 544–547
  booklists for, 79
  comprehension development, 539–544
  differentiating instruction for, 122, 375
  general instructional techniques for, 524–535
  reading proficiency of, 516
  word recognition for, 535–544
Established words, 344
Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), 3, 106, 137
Evidence, 127
Explicit instruction, 4, 31, 32, 40, 52, 57, 58, 64–66, 119, 128, 521
  in phonics, 49
  in word recognition, 265
Expressive instruction, 369–370
Extrinsic motivation, 73, 90
Extrinsic rewards, 91

F

Family, creating sense of, 522–523
Feedback, 40, 55–56, 128, 140, 147, 300–302, 336, 476
Fiction, 3, 13, 43, 186, 201, 378, 494
Figurative language, 188, 539
First 4,000 Words list, 349
Fluency, 4, 11, 14, 18, 32, 33, 49, 50, 64, 107, 120, 143, 148, 152, 154, 157, 194, 308–341
  assessment of, 337–340
  in core reading programs, 334
  individual approaches to, 323–329
  technology and, 334–337
  whole-class approaches to, 330–332
Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction (FORI), 331–332, 334
Formative assessment, 36, 56, 138, 140–141, 146–147
Fourth grade, 1, 5, 7, 9, 39, 43, 48, 49, 52, 53, 58, 83, 118, 124, 156–167, 182, 185, 255, 310, 357, 417, 440, 482, 516, 571
Free reading, 248
Fry Readability Formula, 183
Full alphabetic phase of reading, 271
Functional linguistics approach, 493

G

Genre, 14, 15, 33, 73, 76, 83, 201, 232, 233, 490–502
Genre approach to writing, 490–493
Genre knowledge, 15, 232, 381, 464
Goals, 3, 13, 21, 23, 36, 40, 51, 61, 74, 86, 88, 91, 122, 149, 163, 178, 199, 201, 213, 231, 273, 302, 322, 384–385, 416, 464
  of instruction, 186
  motivation and, 86
Grade-level equivalent (GLE), 172, 182
Gradual release of responsibility model, 46, 57–62, 147
Grammar, 15, 19, 46, 65, 113
Graphic organizers, 51, 59, 125, 436, 492, 495
Grouping, 45, 51, 82–83, 112, 150–151, 157, 160
  heterogeneous, 83
Guided practice, 58, 62, 129
Guided reading, 4, 49, 67, 112, 113, 392, 412–413

H

Heterogeneous grouping, 83
Higher-order thinking, 13, 34, 90
High-frequency words, 277–280
High-stakes testing, 4, 31, 40, 117, 137, 171–175
Home culture, honoring and respecting, 524
Home languages, 519–520

I

Implicit learning and instruction, 40, 56, 64–66
Independent reading, 24, 33, 68, 112–113, 314–323
Independent work, 54, 112–113
Individual differences, 106–109
Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), 138
Inert knowledge, 425, 429
Inferences, making, 16, 22, 57, 118, 159, 161, 169, 386–389, 400–403, 594–601
Inflectional suffixes, 267
Informal reading inventories (IRI), 141, 142, 146, 168
Informational text, 3, 7, 13, 24, 43, 63, 186, 201, 422–467
Instructional conversations, 416
Instructional principles, 40, 50–64, 518
Instructional routines, 59, 220, 284, 287
Integration, 19, 27, 458
Intellectual climate, 472
Intensive instruction, 369–370
Interactive oral reading, 346
Interactive read-alouds, 33, 197, 232–234
Interactive writing, 233
Interest, 4, 23, 73, 76, 84–85
Internet, 12, 34, 76, 209–214
Intrinsic motivation, 73
Invented spelling, 194, 221, 222, 227

J

Journals, 249, 481–486
  dialogue, 482–483
  double-entry, 485–486
  learning logs, 484–485
  reading logs, 483–484
Judicious review, 128

K

Key words, 12
Keywords, 296–298
Kindergarten, 13, 33, 47, 51, 61, 83, 107, 110, 127, 149, 192, 196, 218, 223, 227, 248, 251, 253–257, 489
Knowledge, 4, 12, 16, 18, 20–21, 23, 27, 32, 33, 40, 46, 49, 52, 62, 85, 106, 109, 149, 169, 186–187, 196, 232, 379–381, 425–437, 459–460, 471
K-W-L, 256, 431–432

L

Language development, 33, 230–231
Language-experience approach, 241
Leveled texts, 67, 105, 120, 185, 194
Lexile Framework for Reading, 182
Listening, 18, 65, 219, 263, 345
Literacy curriculum, 31–37
Literate environment, 75–82, 235–236
Literature-based approaches, 45–46
Literature circles, 61, 416–418

M

Main idea, 22, 43, 60, 114, 118, 440–445, 618
Making books, 250
Matthew Effect, 108
Metacognition, 15, 21, 34, 382–383
Metacognitive strategies. *See* Metacognition
Modeling, 33, 51, 54, 57–61, 75, 128, 238, 406, 472, 475, 492, 618
Models of reading, 14–17, 27, 139, 168
Morphemes, 27, 267
Motivation, 11, 13, 23, 27, 32–33, 50, 54, 61, 72–102, 129, 180, 199, 209, 316, 384
Multisyllabic words, 106, 269, 295–302

N

Narrative texts, 186, 377–420
National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 5–7, 10, 49, 192, 516
National Reading Panel (NRP), 3, 4, 31, 47, 296, 309, 311
Neurological impress, 130, 326–327
New Criticism, 24
New Literacies, 12
No Child Left Behind (NCLB), 3, 31, 106, 137
Non-English roots, 359
Nonfiction texts, 3, 7, 48, 51, 63, 113, 174, 186, 201–208, 234, 238
Note-taking, 477–478

O

Onsets, 222, 266
Oral language, 14, 18, 33, 196, 226, 230–231, 263
Oral reading, 53, 152–155, 331, 338
Orthographic mapping, 221, 271, 291
Orthography, 33, 64, 221, 265

P

Parents, 2, 91, 167, 320, 321, 528
Partner reading, 18, 326–327
Percentile scores, 172
Persuasive writing, 491
Phonemes, 21, 221, 225, 266
Phonemic awareness, 3, 4, 21, 32, 33, 47, 49, 50, 52, 64, 106, 112, 116, 119, 126, 128, 141, 143, 151, 194, 218, 221, 225–229, 236, 239, 242–244, 258, 274, 471
Phonics, 2–4, 7, 18, 31–33, 40, 45, 47, 49–50, 52, 64, 107, 110, 116, 119, 126, 128, 141, 143, 151, 192, 193, 229, 237, 281–295, 471, 521, 537
Phonogram, 267
Phonological awareness, 4, 15, 107, 225, 242–244
Physical education, 376, 423
Picture books, 17, 83, 197, 207, 211, 230–231, 429, 494
Play centers, 250
Poetry, 24, 51, 63, 82, 199, 201, 500–502
Post-reading activities, 410–412
Poverty, impact of, 4, 11, 35, 51, 106, 344
Practice, 40, 56, 128
Praise, 91
Predictable texts, 193
Predicting, 21, 382
Prefixes, 267, 358–361
Prereading activities, 380, 408

Prewriting, 488
Prior knowledge, 16, 21, 49, 129, 169, 186–187, 380, 397, 425, 429, 459–460
Process writing, 52, 487–490
Proficient readers, 6–7
Progress monitoring, 119, 126, 137–138, 143, 151–157, 160–162
Prosody, 18, 33, 310, 332–334
Publisher's Criteria, 48–49
Publishing, 35, 489, 506
Puns, 368
Purpose for reading, 15, 21, 23, 27, 33, 186, 199, 211, 324, 383–385, 396, 439, 440

Q

Qualitative factors, text, 186–190
Question Answer Relationships (QAR), 447–449
Questioning, 22, 161, 373, 382, 385, 446–449, 451
Questioning the Author (QtA), 410, 521, 601–607
Quickwriting, 478–479

R

Race to the Top (RTT), 3, 31
RAND Reading Study Group, 18, 26, 178, 465
Readability formulas, 181–185
Read-alouds, 19, 33, 63, 75, 110, 197, 237–240, 316
Reader-response theory, 24
Readers theater, 333–334
Reading aloud. *See* Read-alouds
Reading behavior, 10–11
Reading comprehension, 2, 7, 13–28, 33, 43, 46, 50, 62, 128, 146, 152, 155, 169–171, 180, 196, 230, 234, 272, 309, 310, 377–420, 465–467, 539
Reading instruction, 2–4, 31, 39–70
Reading logs, 483–484
Reading process, 13–28, 35, 471
Reading proficiency, 5–10, 516
Reading programs, 14, 42, 43, 47–48, 67, 113, 122, 192–194, 208–209, 251–252, 313, 391–394
Reading volume, 5, 11, 311–314
Reciprocal teaching, 46, 449–453
Reform in reading instruction, 2–4, 44
Reliability of assessments, 139, 147
Report of the National Reading Panel (NICHD), 3
Reports, writing, 495–498
Response to Intervention (RTI), 108, 126–127, 138
Rimes, 222, 266, 271, 295–298
Root words, 267

S

Scaffolding, 59–60, 128, 325, 407
Schema theory, 20
Science center, 111, 113, 236
Science of Reading (SOR), 3–4, 7, 11, 31–32, 39, 49–50, 109, 120, 193, 251, 265, 281
Self-correction, 153
Self-questioning, 22, 405–407
Self-regulated learning, 21, 462
Self-regulated reading, 464–465
Semantic mapping, 352–355, 479
Sentence structure, 188–189
Series books, 317–318
Shared background knowledge, 263–264
Shared reading, 68, 241, 521–522
Sight words, 15, 151, 194, 277–280, 305
Simple View of Reading, 14, 17, 149, 167
Simultaneous repeated reading, 326
Situational interest, 84
Small-group instruction, 4, 51, 52, 59, 60, 68, 82, 108, 112, 115, 123, 140, 151, 241–251, 274, 329–330, 332
Social and emotional learning (SEL), 72, 94–99
Social studies, 49, 63, 113, 187, 230, 238, 256, 313, 424, 427
Sociocultural theory, 17, 25, 57, 515
Spanish language, 340
Spelling, 33, 107, 194, 221–222, 225, 249, 273, 277, 278, 471, 488
Stages of reading development, 259, 270–271, 309–310
Standardized tests, 171–174, 257–258, 370–371
Standards for the English Language Arts, 20
Story grammar, 398
Story maps, 118, 398–400
Strategy instruction, 50, 52, 58, 128, 381–386, 392, 438–440
Struggling readers, 1, 36, 50, 106, 126–132, 312
Student portfolios, 133
Suffixes, 267, 358–359
Summarizing, 22, 58, 160, 382, 385, 445–446, 481
Summative assessment, 137, 140–141
Summer reading, 311–312, 321
Sustained silent reading, 311, 314

T

Teacher-made tests, 371–373
Teacher's Choice lists, 76
Teaching for transfer, 62
Teaching for understanding, 62–63
Technology, 34–35, 91, 131–132, 334–337, 503
Text
  complexity, 3, 180–191
  features, 433–434
  as a goal, 199–200
  sets, 207–208
  structure, 15, 26, 46, 118, 201, 232–233, 381, 398–400, 432–437
  as a tool, 199
Thematic curriculum, 392–394
Theme, 118, 124, 381, 400, 404
Theories of reading, 24–25
Tile Test, 123, 557–561
Time, for reading, 36, 40, 51, 68, 80, 108, 111–114, 129, 131, 194, 315, 526–527
Title I, 2
Topic knowledge, 380, 425
Transfer, 62
Triggered situational interest, 84
Trustworthiness, of websites, 12, 34, 212–213
Tutoring, 107, 127, 530
20 percent rule, 524–525

U

Unity, of text, 188
Universal screening assessments, 126, 141–143

V

Validity, of assessments, 139, 147
Venn diagrams, 479–480
Vocabulary, 4, 11, 14, 19, 31, 33, 43, 49, 50, 63, 65, 85, 106, 113, 122, 141, 143, 150, 151, 156, 187, 196, 200, 231, 238, 251, 265, 343–376, 471, 524, 539
Voice, of text, 188, 205
Vowels, 266, 286–289

W

Whole-class instruction, 53, 68, 111
Whole-language instruction, 45–46
Word banks, 277–278
Word Building Routine, 292
Word consciousness, 19, 345, 363–370
Word families, 267
Word-learning strategies, 19, 355–363
Word recognition, 11, 14, 18, 32, 33, 46, 50, 52, 64, 106, 107, 113, 116, 127, 141, 143, 146, 151, 152, 154, 168, 193, 194, 222, 230, 262–307, 535–544
Word sorts, 117, 293
Word walls, 65, 78, 247–248, 279, 280, 485
Writing, 345, 469–513
  assessing, 507–510
  to learn, 476–487
  process approach, 52, 487–490
  reading-writing connection, 470–471
Writing workshop, 67, 473–476

Z

Zone of proximal development, 61, 114

CHAPTER 14

READING INSTRUCTION FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS

Classroom Vignette

Cynthia studied her incoming class of third-graders and once more thought of the increasingly daunting task she faced. She had chosen to teach in a large urban district because she wanted to help the children who most needed her help, and she had never regretted that decision. But each year, there seemed to be more challenges, including preparing students for the ever-increasing and ever-more-critical annual state testing and working with more and more students who did not speak English as their first language.

The latter challenge, working with English learners, was for her the most daunting one. She had completed her teacher education program 20 years ago in the Midwest, and no attention had been given to working with children who did not speak English as their first language. This year, almost 30 percent of her students were English learners. A few of them spoke no English. Two of them did not have any sort of formal schooling. Others had received excellent instruction in their homeland schools and could read and write very well in their native languages.

What could she do? Her task, she knew, was to lead all of her English learners as well as her students who spoke English as their native language toward a level of literacy that would enable them to succeed in school and beyond. She knew a lot about effective teaching, and she was convinced that it is effective with all students. But she was constantly on the lookout for approaches that would prove particularly effective for English learners.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

LO 14.1 Describe the number of English learners in the United States, the percentage of U.S. classrooms that include English learners, and the reading proficiency of English learners compared to that of English-only students.

LO 14.2 Identify principles for teaching culturally diverse students and assess how those principles are applied to teaching English learners.

LO 14.3 Pick three of the general instructional techniques developed by Kamil and Bernhardt that you are likely to use in your classroom and explain why you are likely to use them.

LO 14.4 Discuss and implement some specific instructional techniques for developing word recognition and comprehension with English learners.

LEARNING TO READ ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN THE UNITED STATES

As Cynthia realizes, addressing the needs of English learners (ELs) is a significant challenge. As we will note repeatedly in this chapter, good teaching is effective with all students. All students, including ELs, will benefit from more traditional instructional practices as well as practices motivated by constructivist and sociocultural theories that we have described in earlier chapters. In fact, that is the reason why this is the last chapter in the book. This chapter builds on what we have said in the previous chapters. While there are some who would disagree (e.g., Compton-Lily et al., 2023; Thomas, 2022), there is a robust body of research and writing testifying to the fact that the vast majority of reading instructional practices effective with native English speakers are also effective with English learners—but, and this is a very important *but*—in many cases these practices need to be modified to be maximally effective for ELs (August, 2018; Gersten & Baker, 2000; Goldenberg 2020, 2023; Shanahan, 2025a,b). We discussed these effective practices at some length in Chapter 2 and briefly describe those that are particularly important for ELs later in this chapter. Applying generally effective instructional practices is not all that we can do for English learners. There are many techniques that are particularly effective with ELs, and we will describe some of these techniques.

Before we describe those techniques, we want to present some current information about English learners in U.S. schools. In the remainder of this introductory section, we consider linguistic diversity in U.S. schools, note the numbers of English learners in U.S. schools, present data on their reading proficiency, and explain why mastering English is particularly important at the present time.

Linguistic Diversity in U.S. Schools

U.S. schools have always been populated with children from diverse linguistic backgrounds, and teachers have had to confront the challenges and opportunities of linguistic diversity for many years. The apparently opposing forces of the home language and English have been at issue since the birth of the United States. Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Noah Webster, for example, all argued that a common language was a key element in promoting social unity (Simpson, 1986). Indeed, during the development of the U.S. public school system during the 19th and early 20th centuries, the concept of one people/one language was central (Higham, 1988). The world wars, particularly the two decades before World War I and its aftermath, marked by extensive southern and eastern European immigration, solidified this belief in many Americans' minds, a belief that some still hold. Moreover, the current U.S. administration's proclamation that English is the official language of the United States and related efforts are in keeping with the "one people/one language position" (Najarro, 2025).

Yet other Americans have always viewed ethnic pride as a hallmark of American freedom and the suppression of language and culture as contradicting the American spirit. They argue that the strength of America lies in the diversity of culture, beliefs, and perspectives of persons who flock to the United States seeking a better life (Tollefson, 1995). This tolerance for diversity is certainly reflected in major studies of reading instruction for English learners, including Slavin and Cheung's *A Synthesis of Research on Language of Reading Instruction for English Language Learners* (2005), August and Shanahan's *Developing Literacy in Second Language Learners* (2009), Goldenberg and Rhoda's *Promoting Academic Achievement Among English Learners* (2010), and Goldenberg's "Reading Wars, Reading Science, and English Learners" (2020).

We agree with this latter group, and our position is simple: It is crucial that all students become proficient in English. This does not, however, mean that students should abandon their native language.

English Learners in Today's Schools

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics' *Conditions of Education 2024*, in 2021 there were 5.3 million English learners, 10.6 percent of all students enrolled in public elementary schools. This figure has increased substantially over the past 10 years and will continue to increase for the foreseeable future. As shown in **Figure 14.1**, the vast majority of English learners, 76 percent of them, speak Spanish as their home language. Only one other home language, Arabic, accounts for more than about 2 percent of English learners. Although all states have some English learners, the percentages of them vary hugely by state, with California, the state with the highest percentage enrolling 22 percent English learners and West Virginia, the state with the fewest English learners, enrolling just 1 percent (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2025). Yet "nearly 3 in 4 American classrooms now include at least one English learner" (Sparks, 2016).

English Learners' Reading Proficiency

According to the most recent elementary level National Assessment of Educational Progress (2024) report, the average score for fourth-grade English learners on the reading assessment was 190, while that for English-only students was 222. This is a substantial difference. It means that the average English learner scored at the Basic Level, which NAEP defines as "partial mastery of prerequisite skills," while the average English-only student scored at the Proficient Level, which NAEP Defines as "competency of challenging subject matter." The results for eighth-grade students were similar: ELs scored markedly lower than English-only students.

The Critical Importance of Mastering English in Today's World

We know that in the past most immigrant families became English dominant in less than two generations, so why is there anything to be concerned about? We know that the children in our classrooms will more than likely become speakers of English. Isn't it a simple case of waiting until this happens? The answer is no! Research indicates

FIGURE 14.1
Most Common Home Languages of English Learners

Home Language	Number of English Learners	Percentage of All English Learners in the U.S.
Spanish	4,023,289	76.4
Arabic	130,917	2.5
Chinese	95,584	1.8
Vietnamese	75,070	1.4
Portuguese	50,205	01.0
Russian	39,400	0.7
Haitian	31,122	0.6
Hmong	30,188	0.6
Urdu	26,576	0.5
Korean	24,270	0.5

Source: National Center for Educational Statistics (2025). Conditions of education. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/

that it takes English learners at least five years to reach the oral skill level of their English-only peers (Cummins, 2001). Waiting five years to begin reading instruction would mean delaying literacy learning for many children until they are adolescents. This would be educationally and morally absurd. We know that all children need to begin literacy learning as early as possible in order to become effective readers and writers.

But there is more to be said about the current situation. Several other considerations make the mastering of English for English learners even more crucial. The level of literacy needed to succeed in the United States has increased dramatically over the past decades and continues to do so (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2023). While a person can get a low paying service job with rudimentary English skills, getting a good job that pays enough to lead a comfortable life requires advanced levels of literacy and in most cases advanced schooling, which itself requires advanced levels of literacy. Also, with the advent of the Common Core State Standards and its provision that all students, regardless of their English language skills, read challenging material, undertake sophisticated tasks, and demonstrate sophisticated understanding of that material, it has become even more critical that ELs become proficient in English. Although the Common Core requires that students attain these high levels of competence and understanding, it provides very little information on how schools and teachers are to accomplish this task (Coleman & Goldenberg, 2012).

Finally, there is the issue of the importance of more Americans mastering more than one language. As Goldenberg (2015, July 10) put it in an open letter to the U.S. Congress, "Congress: Bilingualism is Not a Handicap." Supporting this position, recent reports from the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (Commission on Language Learning, 2017) and the National Academy of Sciences (2017) emphasize "the benefits of second language learning for all, the need to encourage language study, and the contributions of dual language and heritage language learners and their communities to U.S. multilingualism" (Arias, 2018). As Rampe (2023) more recently put it, "Americans' foreign language education programs are failing."

Reflect and Apply

1. Examine some discussions of English learners on television, in podcasts, or on social media. What kinds of attitudes toward nonnative speakers of English do you find in these media?
2. Imagine a 10-year-old student who has just arrived in the United States after growing up in Iraq. Brainstorm a list of just a few of the myriad topics familiar to virtually all 10-year-olds who grew up in the United States but probably unfamiliar to this student from Iraq. Now brainstorm a list of a few topics you expect are familiar to 10-year-olds who grew up in Iraq but are probably unfamiliar to U.S. students.

WHAT THE RESEARCH SAYS ABOUT TEACHING ENGLISH LEARNERS

Prompted by the huge increase in English learners in U.S. schools, a good deal of research has focused on how to best help ELs develop their English literacy skills. A number of sources published over the past two decades provide excellent summaries of this research. The research focuses on instructional issues (August, 2018; Gersten & Baker, 2000), the effects of languages used for instruction (Slavin & Cheung, 2005), and other issues (August & Shanahan, 2009; Goldenberg, 2000). Goldenberg and Coleman (2010) present a detailed but very readable review in their book, *Promoting Academic Achievement Among English Learners*. If you are looking for a

concise summary of the book, we recommend Goldenberg's "Unlocking the Research on English Learners" (2013), which can be easily Googled.

We now turn to the practical application of what we have learned from the research of others, from what we have learned in our own research, and from what we have learned from our own teaching and learning over the years. Your own situation will, of course, be unique. You may have a class in which only one language other than English is spoken, or you may have a class in which several different languages are spoken. You may have only one or two English learners in your classroom, or you may have many. Whatever your specific situation, the following guidelines and principles, will lead you to ask appropriate questions and work toward effective classroom instruction.

Compelling Instructional Practices Are Likely to Be Effective for English Learners

Nearly a century of research on teaching provides evidence on what sorts of instruction is likely to result in improved student learning. Some of the most important instructional principles are shown in *In the Classroom 14.1*. You will also have seen many of them in recommendations that we outlined at the beginning of the book and that have come up repeatedly throughout the book. This is important. There is a lot of agreement here! Additionally, most of them make good common sense. It is a big plus when research, theory, and common sense coincide.

In the Classroom 14.1

Traditional and Constructivist Instructional Principles

- Focus on academically relevant tasks. Concentrate on important topics, skills, and strategies that students really need to master.
- Employ active teaching. Give students opportunities to manipulate and grapple with the material they are learning.
- Use direct explanation. In teaching strategies, (1) give students a description of the strategy and when, how, and why it should be used; (2) model it; (3) work along with students as they use the strategy; (4) gradually give students increased responsibility for using the strategy; and (5) have students use the strategy independently.
- Provide instruction in students' zone of proximal development. Instruct students at a level that challenges them but allows them to achieve with effort and your assistance. While doing so, scaffold students' efforts. Provide students with the temporary support they need to complete tasks they could not complete independently. This will move them to higher levels of achievement.
- Distinguish between instruction and practice. Instruction consists of teaching students knowledge, skills, and strategies. Practice consists of asking students to use the knowledge, skills, and strategies that they have already been taught. Using practice when instruction is called for will seldom work. Conversely, we don't need to teach students things they already know.
- Provide sufficient and timely feedback. Whenever possible, respond to students' work with immediate and specific feedback. Ensure that students contextualize, review, and practice what is learned. Real learning takes time, effort, and a lot of practice. Feedback and scaffolding are what moves the students from depending partly on you to independent work.
- Teach for transfer. Transfer seldom occurs automatically. If we want students to take what they have learned in one context and use it in a new context, we need to show them how to do so.

English Learners Require Additional Instructional Support

Of course, English learners require additional support. They are faced with the dual tasks of learning the language and learning the content being taught. Additionally, some of them are faced with a new and challenging situation, learning to get along in the United States and in our schools. Goldenberg's (2013) recommendations for this additional support are shown in *In the Classroom 14.2*.

In the Classroom 14.2

Supporting English Learners

- Build on students' experiences and familiar content, then add on material that will broaden and deepen their knowledge.
- Provide students with necessary background knowledge.
- Designate language *and* content objectives for each lesson. Decide what students will learn about the content and about the English language.
- Use graphic organizers (tables, web diagrams, and Venn diagrams) to organize information and clarify concepts.
- Make instruction and learning tasks extremely clear.
- Use pictures, demonstrations, and real-life objects.
- Provide hands-on, interactive learning activities.
- Provide redundant information (gestures, visual cues).
- Give additional practice and time for discussion of key concepts.
- Use sentence frames and models to help students talk about academic content.
- Provide instruction differentiated by students' English language proficiency.

A lesson plan with a number of sheltered instruction components is shown in *Appendix B, Scaffolded Reading Experiences for English Learners*.

The Home Language Can Be Used to Promote Academic Development

We fully agree with Goldenberg (2013) when he says that the home language can be used to promote academic development. In fact, we would say "can and should be used." However, as Goldenberg notes and as you have almost certainly learned from the news media, this is a hotly debated issue. There are really two issues here: (1) whether to provide students with some sort of dual language education, and (2) whether to use the home language to support students in an otherwise all-English classroom by means of activities like giving students directions in their home language. **Figure 14.2** lists some of the many types of dual language programs available in the United States. Goldenberg asserts that "reading instruction in the home language can be beneficial," and we absolutely agree. However, we do not discuss dual language education or debate its merits in this chapter because whether or not you use dual language education is unlikely to be your decision; it will be up to your school, district, state and funding rules imposed by the federal government. We will, however, suggest opportunities for providing home language support that is useful regardless of what sort of classroom you teach in.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.1

In this video, a teacher with 20 years of experience gives tips for teaching English learners when your school does not have a bilingual program. Which of these tips do you think is useful even if your school does have a bilingual program?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=lZWsiQcCYw0&t=12s

FIGURE 14.2
Some Types of Programs for English Learners

- **Two-Way Immersion/Dual Language.** Native English speakers and English learners are taught academic content in both languages for an extended period of time with the goal that both groups develop academic proficiency in both languages.
- **Transitional Bilingual Education.** English learners receive academic instruction in their first language for part of the day. For the remainder of the day, they receive some ESL instruction and spend some time in regular classes.
- **ESL Pullout.** English learners attend mainstream classes for much of the day and also meet separately in small groups with an ESL instructor who focuses on language development.
- **Content-Based ESL.** English learners receive ESL instruction taught by an ESL teacher in preparation for grade-level content instruction in English. The emphasis is on language development, but attention is also given to academic vocabulary and content area concepts.
- **Sheltered English Instruction.** English learners are taught academic content in English by a regular teacher. However, the English language used by the teacher and the activities students engage in are adapted to the proficiency level of the students. While the instruction focuses on content, sheltered English instruction also promotes English language development.
- **Structured English Immersion.** English learners are taught subject matter in English by a licensed teacher who is also licensed in ESL or bilingual education. The teacher is proficient in the first language of the student. Students may use their native language for clarification, but the teacher uses only English. No ESL instruction is provided in this model.
- **Heritage Language.** English learners are taught literacy in the language students and their parents regard as their native, home, or ancestral language.

TEACHING ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS

Not all English learners live difficult economic lives, but many do, especially in our cities and rural areas. Delpit (2018) is a Black educator who has worked extensively with urban children, many of whom come from homes that struggle with difficult economic conditions. These are the children who receive additional instructional support under Title 1 in both urban and rural schools. Through her work, she has identified many of the factors that help raise their motivation and achievement. Her principles expand the scope of our previous discussion regarding English learners. Here we discuss those of Delpit's principles that we see as most important for working with ELs. As you consider the principles, you'll notice a good deal of overlap with our discussion of motivation in Chapter 3, particularly the section on Social and Emotional Learning.

Demand Critical Thinking

Often, we fall into the trap of thinking that students who speak a different language are not as bright as other students. Consequently, we often reason that they cannot handle critical thinking. No judgment could be more debilitating to students' growth. The goals of high level of literacy and the literacy curriculum that we discussed throughout this book are just as appropriate for English learners as they are for any

other students. For example, teaching for deep understanding—using techniques like Questioning the Author (Beck et al., 1996) as discussed in Chapter 11 and in *Appendix B*—is crucial to ELs.

Teaching Foundational Skills

In the past, we sometimes began teaching nonnative speakers with less emphasis on foundational skills than English-only students typically received. This will not work and the science of reading movement has ensured that all children receive explicit instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics. We are not suggesting that you teach only basic skills. But do remember that although not all children come to school with the same skills, all students need to master the building blocks that lead to literacy. Students from more advantaged homes are more likely to have had reading instruction at home, or at least they have been read to (Heath, 1983). These students are also more likely to have attended preschool and received instruction in basic skills.

As a teacher, you want to be certain that your students acquire whatever skills they need to be successful in school and in later life, something Timothy Hayden, a third-grade teacher, makes a very conscious effort to do:

> One thing I really try to work on with my Puerto Rican students is mastery of basic skills, such as standard usage and spelling, while still giving them plenty of chances to engage in critical thinking. This is a tough decision to make because I know that in many cases my kids know more than their English skills show, and so in some sense I'm slowing them down to work on the basics. Yet I also know that if they can't read when they leave school or use poor grammar or spelling when they're looking for a job, they won't get very far. That's why I feel that I have to balance attention to basics with attention to higher-level stuff. (Timothy Hayden, third-grade teacher)

Empower Students to Challenge Racist Views of Their Competence and Worthiness

Racism and classism often extend to children who are nonnative speakers of English. You must support your English learners' egos and help them build the sort of self-worth that will lead them to persevere when they encounter challenges. All students need the support and skills that will enable them to meet challenges, be successful, and realize that success is something under their control. Creating an "I can do it!" attitude in your ELs and conveying to them that you as their teacher hold an "I can help you do it!" attitude are crucial. *In the Classroom 14.3* shows how sixth-grade teacher Ann Beecher provides reading experiences that promote positive attitudes.

In the Classroom 14.3

Using the Shared Reading Experience in a Multilingual Fourth-Grade Classroom

Ann Beecher teaches fourth grade in a public school in a Los Angeles suburb. Most of the students in her class speak Spanish as their primary language, with a few of students speaking a variety of other languages. Ms. Beecher has found that the shared reading experience—students and teacher reading aloud and discussing the text together—is a highly effective technique for developing confidence and building on students' skills in reading and speaking English "My English learners are often reticent to risk being wrong or making mistakes when it comes to speaking or reading in English," Ms. Beecher says. "So I need to think of ways to create a safe environment that will support their learning. One of those ways is the shared reading

experience. It's a risk-free way for them to use oral English." Here are the steps Ms. Beecher usually follows in preparing a shared reading experience:

- Choose a selection. Ms. Beecher always chooses a short selection, something like one of the 15 selections in Wondery's *How to Survive Against the Odds: Tales and Tips for Animal Attacks and Natural Disasters* (2025) or a poem from core program's anthology. One of the class favorites is "The Shark" by John Ciardi. Students enjoy reciting the colorful words Ciardi uses to describe the shark, such as *gulper, ripper, snatcher,* and *grabber*. "The key is choosing something that will engage students, something that they will really enjoy and can relate to, and something that builds what we study in science, social studies, or language arts." Ms. Beecher says. "One of the values of using the shared reading experience is that the students are reading 'at grade' materials. This is a big boost to their confidence. It gives them a real sense of accomplishment."
- Set up the document camera, and make copies of the selection for each student.
- Prepare and motivate students for the selection. "This usually takes very little effort," Ms. Beecher says. "When the kids see the document camera, they know it means we're going to read something together. It's one of their favorite things we do. Like singing or reciting jazz chants, they enjoy the rhythm of the language and the community experience of speaking the same words together."
- With expression and enthusiasm, read through the selection and then invite students to read along in unison.
- Focus on a particular reading skill or strategy. "If we are reading rhyming poetry, usually I will circle the rhyming words on the document camera and have students do the same on their copies. I then talk about certain words and check for students' understanding. Also, sometimes when I first read the piece through, I will stop occasionally and have students predict what will happen next."
- Follow up the reading with a variety of activities. Use art (illustrating the shark gulping, ripping, snatching, and grabbing, for example), writing, or evaluating. Ask questions such as, "How did we do? Did you like the piece? Why? What did you like about it? Is there anything we should do differently next time? What's your favorite new word you learned?"

Build on Students' Prior Knowledge

Using metaphors and experiences from the children's world is another technique good teachers use instinctively. We know the importance of background knowledge. As Delpit suggests, instead of assuming that all children have the same background knowledge at the beginning, deal with the knowledge and background students have and use that as the basis of teaching. This means you will need to learn something about your students' cultures. For example, if you are teaching about the destructive power of tornadoes and have Vietnamese children in your class, you can use their knowledge of the awesome power of typhoons as a bridge to understanding the power of tornadoes.

Create a Sense of Family and Caring

For some students, school can seem a daunting place, unwelcoming and perhaps even frightening. ESL teacher Lillian Colon-Vila knows how crucial it is that all students feel that they are a valuable part of the class and will be supported in their efforts by both the teacher and the other students in the class:

> To welcome my English learners, I always begin the semester by telling a story. It's usually a simple one to welcome them to the United States and my classroom.

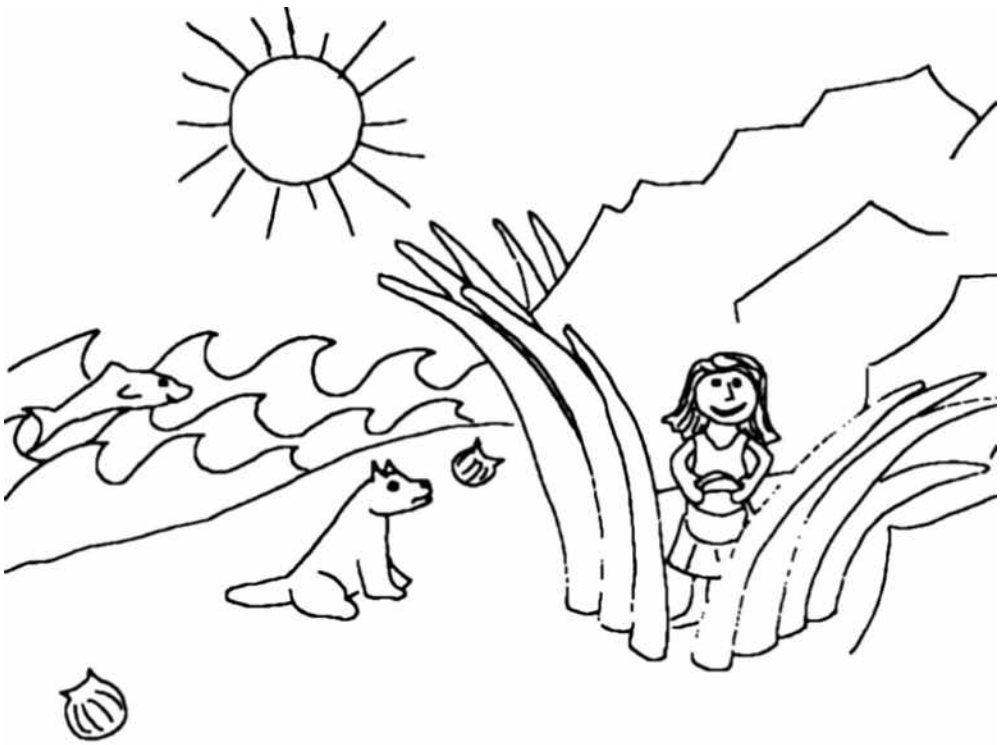
I make sure to include the students' names and their native countries in the stories. And I use puppets, pictures, and flash cards or the whiteboard to draw pictures as I go along.

I make it a point to share my own first day of school, too—how I stuttered, mispronounced the teacher's name, and wished for the floor to swallow me. The students laugh and relate to my experience. The iceberg between us breaks, and I can begin to teach. (Lillian Colon-Vila, ESL teacher)

Monitor and Assess Students' Needs

Effective teaching cannot be done without careful assessment and evaluation of what students know and learn. Teachers need to be vigilant and prepared to discontinue teaching techniques that prove inappropriate for some students. Students can often benefit from a different teaching strategy when the one initially attempted was not effective. Such choices require careful reasoning based on data gathered in assessing the students. As we emphasized in Chapter 5, assessment does not simply mean formal assessment. You will need to use a wide range of techniques to gauge students' strengths and weaknesses and then create ways to build on their strengths. These techniques are likely to include benchmark and interim texts, but they will also include talking to students, carefully observing them as they work at school tasks, and evaluating their daily written work. **Figure 14.3** illustrates how a drawing can show a student's understanding of a story. The drawing could be interpreted to show that the student understands the story is about a girl, by herself, on an island, in a hut made of whale bones, and with a dog for a companion.

FIGURE 14.3
Maria's Drawing of *Island of the Blue Dolphins* by Scott O'Dell (1960) Reveals Her Understanding of the Story



Source: Used with permission from Peter Dewitz

Honor and Respect Children's Home Cultures

It would be difficult to imagine anything seemingly easier than honoring and respecting children's home cultures, but unfortunately honor and respect is sometimes lacking in classrooms. Knowledge that has been gained in children's home cultures constitutes a strength that can be brought into the classroom and used as the basis for learning to read about all manner of topics. Besides, changing children's cultural orientations and allegiances is not really an option. Children come to school having spent a huge amount of time within their cultures and their families, and once they begin school, they will continue to spend far more time at home than in the classroom. Your goal must be to support students' attempts to maintain their cultural identities and to support them in becoming successful in the mainstream culture represented by the school. One small step toward doing this might be taken during birthday celebrations. Inviting English learners to share their birthday traditions with the class gives status to those traditions and adds to other students' store of knowledge about different cultures.

Another and more significant step toward demonstrating and fostering respect for children's home cultures is to provide students with literature that accurately and fairly represents a variety of cultures, including literature involving Hispanic figures such as Nathalie Alonso's *Call Me Roberto! Roberto Clemente Goes to Bat for Latinos,* Doreen Rappaport's *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*, and fictional Hispanic characters such as those in Julio Anta's graphic novel *Speak Up, Santiago!* The last book is perhaps particularly useful as it deals with the combined issues of immigration, economic displacement, and second language learning.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.2

This video highlights four ways to make classrooms more inclusive for multilingual learners. Which of these ways do you think you will be more likely to use, and just how would you implement it?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=hYqTM0caS3o

Reflect and Apply

3. Think about attitudes toward English learners that you have observed. Have you encountered attitudes that might negatively influence the ways in which teachers interact with students? How might you guard against allowing those attitudes to negatively affect your interactions with students?
4. Consider your own family traditions. Can you think of any holiday celebrations you and your family enjoy that are not widely observed? Do you think they are any less valuable because they are not more widely observed? How might you use these holiday celebrations when you are teaching culturally diverse students?

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES FOR WORKING WITH ENGLISH LEARNERS

There are a number of instructional techniques that assist English learners as they learn to read, write, listen, and speak. Bernhardt and Kamil (1995) wrote the chapter on instruction for English learners in the first edition of this book and many of their ideas have stood well the test of time. We have updated their ideas with recommendations from more recent research (Gersten et al., 2007). We have placed these techniques in an order reflecting their utility. Thus, you should probably attempt to implement these principles in the order given. Also, you are likely to have more success if you employ a number of the suggestions rather than just one or two of them.

Take Advantage of the 20 Percent Rule

Recognize that although languages are different there is considerable overlap between them. In fact, the overlap between English and Spanish vocabulary can be as much as

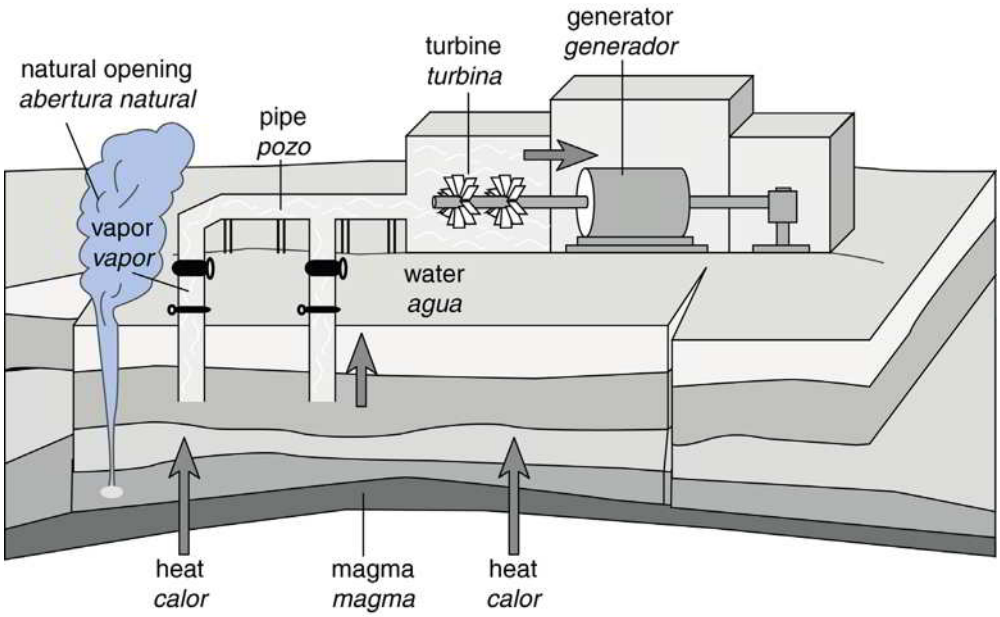
20 percent. Thus, your task in teaching literacy in a second language is easier than if there were little or no overlap. You do not have to start at the beginning with English learners; rather, you can consider yourself as being one-fifth of the way to success.

Figure 14.4 shows the 20 percent rule in action. In this graphic display of the generation of electricity, there are 17 Spanish words used. Three of the words—*natural, vapor,* and *magma*—are identical to the equivalent terms in English. Another seven words—*turbina, generador, uso, energía, geotérmica, producir,* and *electricidad*—are almost identical and certainly recognizable. Words that have a very close spelling in both languages are called cognates. This simple example illustrates the overlap between English and Spanish and reminds us that children do possess substantial information that they can draw on for reading second-language texts.

Of course, as we all know, there is never a guarantee, even as this rule holds true for the 20 percent dividend. The percentage will be different for each language. In some languages, the overlap may be greater than 20 percent, but in others, considerably less.

When students in your classroom have some English language literacy and are able to work with content, have them conduct Internet searches on topics you are covering in current events. For example, major new geologic discoveries, such as finding the bones of an ancient mammal, are often reported in magazines like *Scholastic News* or *Time for Kids* (which are available in both print and digital form) or in books that children naturally gravitate to. Such findings are almost always discussed on the Internet. Have your students read something about these findings in their native-language press and report on any differences between reports in English and what they have read. Such an activity reinforces using their first language to support their learning of the second. It also enhances their critical thinking skills by asking them to compare and contrast information presented in an array of sources, and it boosts their self-esteem by demonstrating to their peers that bilingualism actually provides greater access to information than monolingualism does.

FIGURE 14.4
Graphic Display of Overlap Between Spanish and English Vocabulary



The use of geothermal energy to produce electricity
El uso de la energía geotérmica para producir electricidad

Source: Ciencias *by Mallision, Mallision, Smallwood, & Valentino. Copyright © 1985 by Silver Burdett Ginn, Simon & Schuster Elementary.*

Provide Intensive Small-Group Instruction

Throughout the book, we have stressed the importance of small-group instruction, and this is true for English learners. Your small groups should consist of four to six students, with a mix of English learners, English-only speakers, and students who speak English and a second language. These students can partner with English learners and provide translations and support. Plan to meet with these small groups 30 minutes a day, five days a week.

First, provide explicit instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency. You can also provide explicit instruction to build prior knowledge, teach about text structure, and comprehension strategies. Provide multiple opportunities for students to respond. As students learn to read words, you can link decoding and vocabulary to ensure they understand the meanings of the words they are pronouncing. As students read and spell individual words, you can provide clear feedback, correct errors, and encourage partial attempts. When you are leading comprehension discussions, you can clarify new concepts and direct students' attention to ideas in the text.

Throughout this book, we have provided guidelines for conducting small-group instruction. In Chapter 4, we have provided lesson plans for teaching foundational skills. In Chapter 8, we have provided lessons for explicit phonics instruction, and in Chapter 11, you will find lessons for comprehension instruction.

Screen for Reading Problems and Monitor Students' Progress

In Chapter 5, we presented a list of screening tools that assess foundational skills, such as phonemic awareness, alphabet knowledge, phonics, and fluency. These tools are equally useful for English learners and help determine their strengths and weaknesses (Lesaux & Siegel, 2003). Beyond screening at the beginning of the year, it is useful to use one or more of these tools to monitor students' progress at least twice more during the school year. It is not necessary to monitor all components of foundational skills, and a periodic oral reading fluency assessment is very useful in monitoring students' progress.

Assessing students' vocabulary and reading comprehension is difficult, and few easy screening or monitoring tools are available (Lenski et al., 2006). To learn about your students' reading comprehension abilities, listen and take notes during small group instruction. First, ask students to retell what they have read and note how much they can recall. Do they include ideas from the beginning, middle, or end of the selection? Later in the year, you might ask the students to summarize what they have read and note whether they include the important ideas in the text. Ask literal and inferential questions to determine if they can locate information within a text and interpret what they have learned. Additional recommendations for assessing reading comprehension are included at the end of Chapter 12.

Give English Learners and Yourself Plenty of Time

It is important to remember that children who do not speak English as a native language will, in all likelihood, not be as fast as native speakers at completing any English-language task, including, of course, reading. **Figure 14.5** provides an example of the very different amounts of time it would take students reading at three different rates to complete a typical intermediate-grade book, in this case Gary Soto's *The Skirt*. If children are reading a longer book, something like Erin Entrada Kelly's Newbery award-winning *The First State of Being*, the amounts of time needed vary even more: To complete this book, Maria would need about 5 hours, Carlos would need about 8 hours, and Chen would need over 20 hours. The instructional implication of these illustrations is straight-forward: Provide English learners with extra time to complete the linguistic tasks you ask them to do.

FIGURE 14.5
Times Required for Three Students, with Varying Reading Rates, to Read Gary Soto's *The Skirt*

Student	Reading Rate (Words per Minute)	Chapter One (1,000 Words)	Whole Book (8,000 Words)
Maria	250	4 minutes	32 minutes
Carlos	150	7 minutes	53 minutes
Chen	50	20 minutes	2 hours, 40 minutes

Following this simple suggestion can minimize what is perhaps the greatest difficulty teachers face in multilingual classrooms. The question, of course, is how you can provide this extra time, and we have several suggestions. Students who need the time can be given opportunities to complete their work as part of free-choice activities. Or they might be allowed to take home work that isn't completed during class. Or you might give students the questions you will ask ahead of time during reading lessons, being sure to give *all* students sufficient time to do the reading and thinking necessary to answer them. Still another option is to shorten some of the selections students are asked to read by summarizing parts of them. *In the Classroom 14.4*, for example, includes a summary of the first half of Pegi Deitz Shea's *The Whispering Cloth: A Refugee's Story*. It is worth a reminder here that AIs such as ChatGPT can summarize many texts and save you a good deal of time when you need a summary. Of course, it is also necessary to remember that AI summaries need to be checked for accuracy.

To be an effective teacher of English learners, you also need to give yourself extra time, particularly when making day-to-day informal assessments of their progress. You will have to train yourself to perceive EL's progress in different ways, as that progress will not look or sound the same as progress for native speakers. The extra moments to think through whether you have made the right instructional decision for an EL will pay off in the end, both for the children and for your self-confidence as a teacher.

In the Classroom 14.4

Summarizing Part of a Selection

The Whispering Cloth: A Refugee's Story is a touching story about a young Hmong girl, Mai, who learns to create embroidered tapestries—*pándau* in the Hmong language—while in a refugee camp in Thailand. The book is beautifully illustrated with both watercolors and reproductions of the pándau Mai creates. Although the book is not a long read for students who read fluently, it is a formidable task for students beginning to read English. Summarizing the first half of the book would simplify that task considerably, particularly for Hmong students, who come from a culture that does not have a written language.

Introduce the book in a fashion that you and your students will be comfortable with. You might tell children that it is the story of a young Hmong girl in a refugee camp in Thailand. Using a map, show children the location of the refugee camp and the Hmongs' homeland in northern Laos, and discuss the situation that forced the Hmongs to become refugees. Then, explain to children what embroidery or pándau is, show a sample of embroidery (actual Hmong pándau, if possible), and explain that pándau plays an important part in the story. You might also tell children that the main characters in the story are Mai and her grandmother, who is simply called Grandma.

Finally, tell children that you are going to summarize the first half of the book for those who would like it summarized and that they can either listen to your summary or begin reading on their own. After children have made their choices, perhaps

with some guidance from you, students who want to hear your summary can gather around you as you summarize it, perhaps saying something like this:

> As *The Whispering Cloth* opens, we learn that Mai lives in a refugee camp with her grandmother and that Mai can remember little of her life outside of the camp. She knows, though, that many people leave the refugee camp and that some of them go to America, and it seems that she would like to go there, too. Partly to give her something to do and partly to provide the family with some income, Grandma teaches Mai to make pándau. Mai learns very quickly and is soon very good at making this beautiful "flowery cloth." One day, Mai begins to work on a pándau in which she tells a story that is filling her head with thoughts.

After reading the summary, introduce the reading itself, saying something like:

> As you read the rest of the book, you will see pictures of the pándau that Mai stitched. Now read the rest of the book to see the pándau and what it meant to Mai and her Grandma and what they decided to do with it.

Use the Rosetta Stone Technique

We have all heard about the wonder of the Rosetta Stone. This tremendous discovery, shown in **Figure 14.6**, contains the same text in Egyptian hieroglyphics, Egyptian demotic script, and several ancient Greek languages. The discovery of the Rosetta Stone allowed linguists to decipher Egyptian hieroglyphics, which they could not read, by using their knowledge of ancient Greek, which they could read.

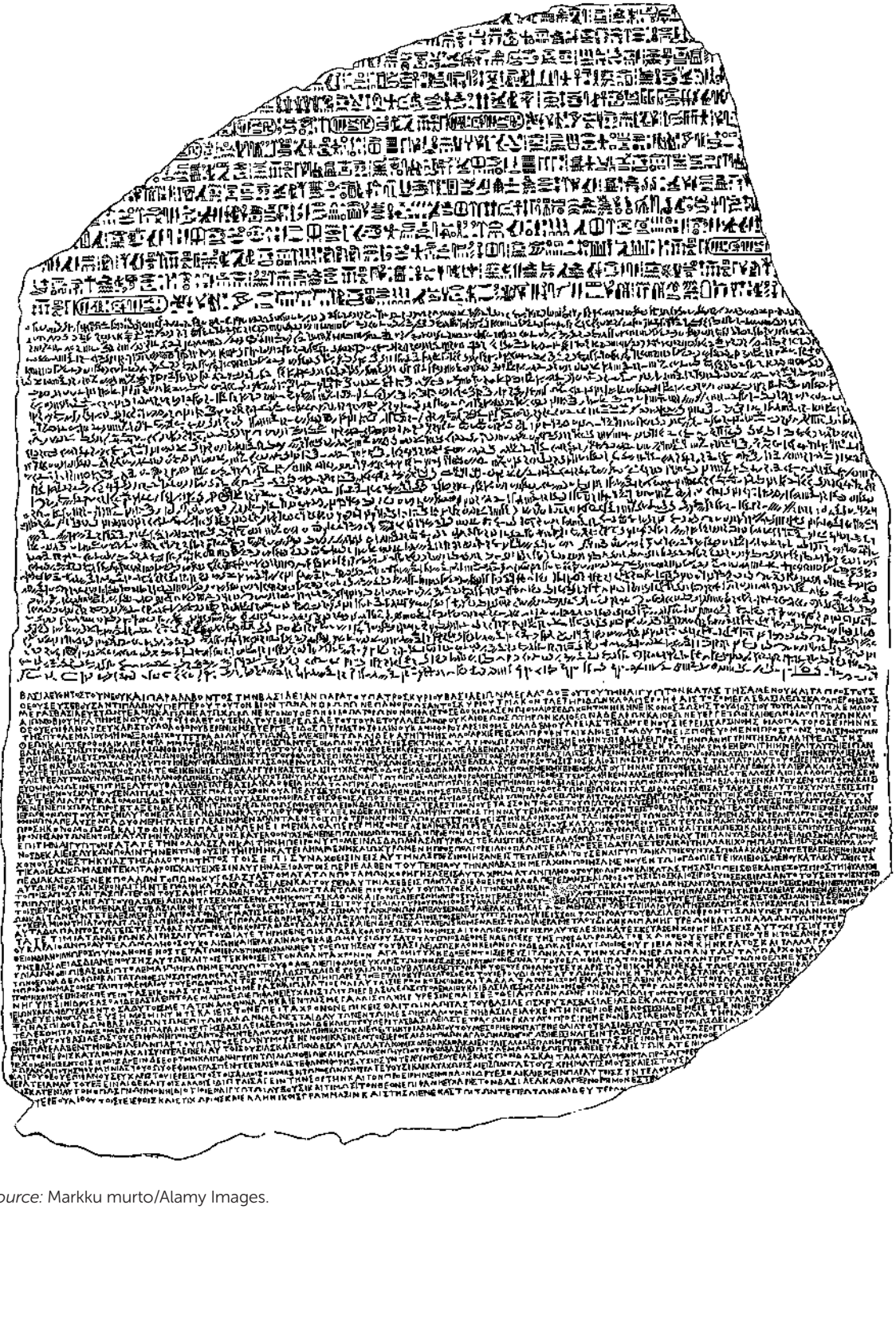
One useful vocabulary technique for working with a class that includes English learners is based on this approach. If you make a chart of everyday English words in one column, your students who speak other languages can contribute the equivalent words from each of their languages in other columns. Alternatively, your ELs might periodically add words from their native languages to the chart and solicit the equivalent English words and words in other languages represented in your class. Or, as you encounter words in a content lesson, you could use them as entries on a Rosetta Stone chart and have students add the equivalent words from their languages, creating a multilingual word wall.

The Rosetta Stone word wall can be used to build vocabulary and as a source of words for writing. It supports both word choice and pronunciation. Whatever the specific source of words you put on the chart, be certain to practice pronouncing both non-English and English words with ELs as well as with the entire class. In this way, all students will be able to do well at some parts of the task. Also, not only will your English-only students begin to learn some vocabulary in another language, they will also begin to appreciate the challenges some of their classmates face. And they will be able to see that ELs know a great deal that native English speakers do not know.

Involve Parents, Siblings, and Other Speakers of the Children's Languages

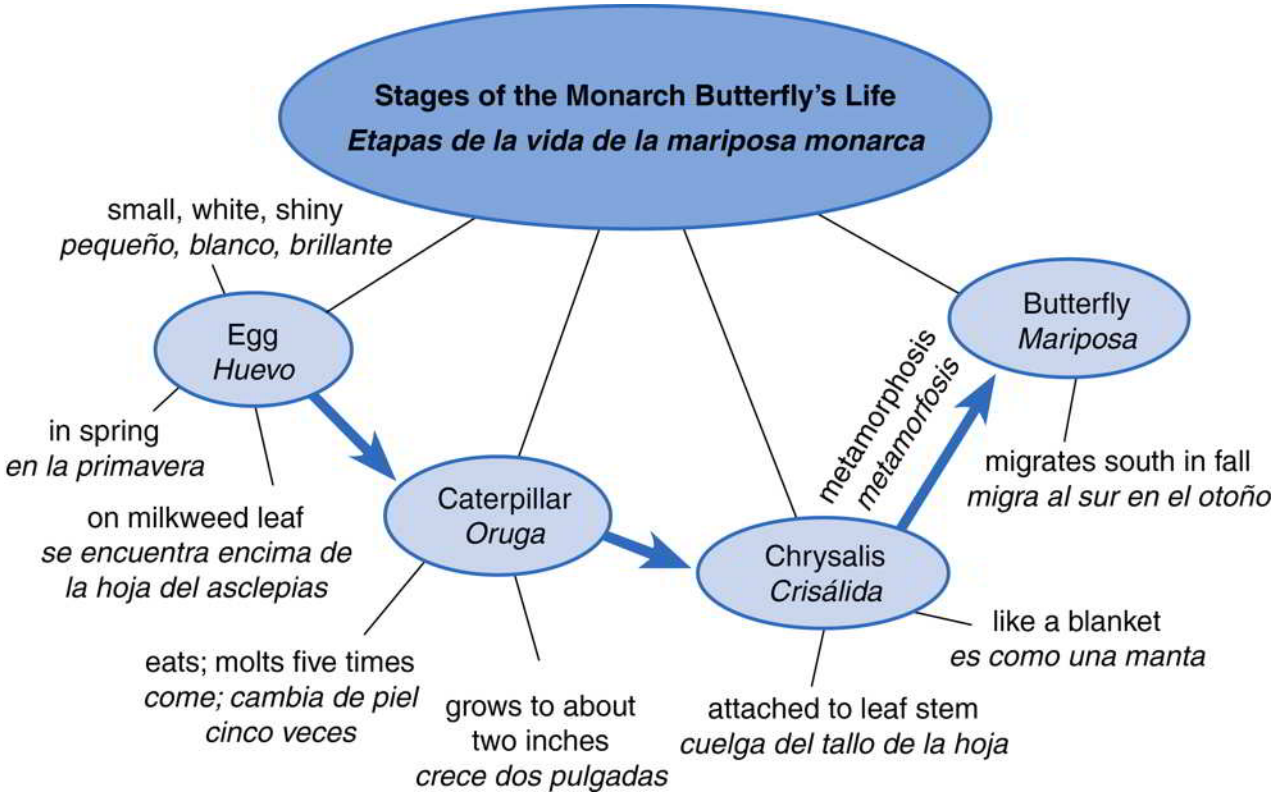
Often, parents, siblings, other relatives, and caregivers can help translate between the native language and English, or vice versa. Sometimes all it takes is a bridge between languages to get children started. Translating the first page or so of a text they are going to read, or creating a graphic organizer of what they are going to read, such as the example shown in **Figure 14.7**, can be extremely helpful. Moreover, such a bridge can work both ways. As students become more proficient in English, they can assume the role of translator for parents who are not quite as proficient. This will give students a reason to learn more English and may encourage the parents to learn more English as well. In addition, as students become increasingly competent in English, they will be motivated to become still more competent.

FIGURE 14.6
The Rosetta Stone—Showing Greek, Demotic, and Hieroglyphic Scripts



Source: Markku murto/Alamy Images.

FIGURE 14.7
Graphic Organizer in English and Spanish for a Section of Lynn Rosenblatt's Monarch Magic!



Siblings can sometimes be particularly helpful in the classroom. Older brothers or sisters who may be reluctant to participate in their own class because they are not as proficient as their English-only classmates may work extremely well with their younger brothers or sisters. An added bonus here is that, when tutoring these younger students, the older siblings may very well realize that they know more English than they thought and consequently feel encouraged to attempt to read when they would have otherwise been reluctant to do so.

Use Peer-Assisted Learning

Older students who speak the same languages as your students and are somewhat more proficient in reading English than your students can be a great benefit (Saenz et al., 2008). Again, sometimes the older students may realize that they know more English than they thought and be encouraged to attempt more challenging reading tasks themselves. They may also be motivated to learn more because they begin to realize how much they do not know yet or because they wish to do a better job in helping the younger students.

Of course, students who are the same age as the tutees but have somewhat more advanced English reading skills can also serve as classroom tutors. As is the case with cross-age tutors, peer tutors are likely to benefit from the teaching they do. The research strongly demonstrates that students tutoring other students is a true win-win situation in which both tutor and tutee benefit markedly (Cohen et al., 1982), and recent research indicates that this can be particularly true with English learners (Marieswari & Prema, 2016). Finally, students are not the only people who may be of help in your classroom. Aides, volunteers, college students preparing to be teachers, and sometimes even administrators and maintenance personnel, can perform a variety of helpful tasks with English learners.

Bilingual teacher Margaret Thayer suggests one powerful way to motivate students and foster interactions between English learners and English-only students—establishing a buddy system:

> One of the most successful things we have done in our classroom is to set up a buddy system in which we deliberately pair our native English speakers with our English learners. We do this at the beginning of the year or whenever an English learner enters the class, and from that time on the two students do many things together. They work as a pair doing in-class assignments, talk about what they have read, and work together on homework. Of course, in many cases, the native speaker serves more often as the tutor and the English learner as the learner. But whenever possible, we try to get the English learner in the teacher's role. Often, for example, the English learner teaches his English-speaking buddy some things about his language or culture. And, in many cases, the pairing doesn't end at the school. Buddies often visit each other's homes, share holidays, and chill out together. As I said, the buddy system has been a real success. Also, it does not take up a lot of the teacher's time, always an important consideration when you are trying a new approach in the classroom. (Margaret Thayer, fifth-grade teacher)

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.3

This video celebrates the use of peer tutors working with high school English learners. What do you see as the challenges and opportunities of elementary grade peer tutors working with their classmates who are learning English?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=9ec_m5LwhJk

Give Students the Freedom to Choose the Language in Which to Respond

Research tells us that students often demonstrate greater abilities when they are given the option of responding in the language in which they feel most comfortable. This is particularly true, of course, when the text is in English and the students are not fluent in English.

Allowing students to respond in their native language is a very easy change you can make, and it can pay off big dividends. In addition to demonstrating better understanding when using the language of their choice, students may also be able to remember more of what they have learned in their native language, because they don't have to translate from on language to another. Also, students' language preference may vary for different reading materials. For example, a reading passage about a student's native country might be best responded to in the student's native language. In reading a passage about American history, however, a student might choose to use English. The key is to allow the student to choose the appropriate language in which to respond.

One concern some teachers have about this technique is that they may not be able to understand and assess what the students wrote or said. However, even if you cannot understand the language the student chooses, all is not lost. The easiest way to handle the situation is to have the student respond in his native language and then have him do the translation into English. Note that going back and forth from one language to another is terrific practice for students.

In addition to giving students the opportunity to respond in the language they choose, you can sometimes give them the opportunity to read in the language of their choice. Bilingual books, a growing set of children's books in which the same book contains both English and another language, make providing this option very convenient. A small sample of the books in this growing genre is shown in The Reading Corner.

If you, aides, parent volunteers, or other volunteers speak the home languages of your students, you have still other opportunities to tap their native-language skills. Directions for classroom work and homework can be given in both English and the students' native languages. This can be a huge help to students in doing their class work, and it can be a tremendous help to parents in assisting their children with homework.

We will conclude our general section about teaching English learners with a brief discussion of the SIOP model, which we mentioned earlier. Echevarria and her colleagues' Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model was developed over the course of a 7-year research project and is the most widely used approach for teaching English learners. The SIOP model is specifically designed to promote English learners' English language skills and their academic literacy in content areas. Echevarria and her colleagues' *Making Content Comprehensible for Multilingual Learners: The SIOP Model* (2024) provides a detailed description of the approach and is certainly worth reading for those who will be working with English learners in content areas. Here are the major tenets of the model:

- Identify the language demands of the content course.
- Plan language objectives for all lessons, along with reading and content objectives.
- Emphasize academic vocabulary development.
- Activate and strengthen background knowledge.
- Promote oral interaction and extended academic talk.
- Review vocabulary and content concepts.
- Give students feedback on language use in class.

In *The Instructional Routine 14.1* we present a lesson for teaching students to infer character traits following the SIOP model. This model has eight characteristics and we have labeled each on in parentheses.

Instructional Routine 14.1

Teaching Students to Infer Character Traits with the SIOP Model

Purpose

English language learners face two challenges. They must learn the concepts and strategies necessary for strong reading comprehension, and they must learn the language necessary to understand these strategies and express their understanding (Echevarria et al., 2024).

Procedures

- *Objectives*

  1. Students will learn to infer character traits from actions, dialogue, and thoughts, and to cite evidence to support their conclusions (content objective).
  2. Students will use academic vocabulary such as *infer, evidence, traits*, and *support* in their classroom discussions (language objective).

- *The Text*

  A Year Down Yonder by Richard Peck (2001). A novel set during the Great Depression with a poor family in Chicago finding a way to cope with difficult financial times.

- *Vocabulary Instruction (academic vocabulary)*

  For each vocabulary word, read the sentence below. Explain what the word means. Ask the students for examples of each word and non-examples.

  To **infer** means figuring something out when we read, watch a movie, or see something in a real-life event. If you see a dark shadow over your window at night, you might infer that someone is trying to look into your house. To infer means to make an educated guess and you know more than you first think you do.

Evidence can be clues in the text, ideas left by the author that tell us about the character.

A **trait** is a quality or characteristic of a person. Some people are generally happy, others are sad. Some are honest, others lie.

When you have an opinion or idea about a story, and you can point to a sentence or words that prove you are correct, you have provided **support**.

- *Vocabulary Instruction (content vocabulary)*

  The **depression** was a time when many people in the country had no jobs, people had little money, and life was difficult.

  You are **welcoming** when you are friendly to people, shake their hands, give them a hug. You are friendly and not distant.

- *Developing background knowledge* (background knowledge)

  The novel we are about to read takes place during the Great Depression. The Depression started almost 100 years ago. It was called the Depression because many people lost their jobs, and there was little money for food, clothing, or shelter. The Depression lasted for almost 10 years. Many people had to leave their homes to live with other family members or to look for a job. It was a time of great suffering.

- *The Strategy – Inferring Character Traits*

  You will be using the same strategy we presented in Chapter 11. The students will search the text for clues, use what they know, and then make inferences. Draw the following chart on the board or on chart paper.

What are the Clues in the Text?	What do You Already Know? (Prior Knowledge)	What is Your Inference?

- Text discussion, inferring character traits (promoting oral interaction/ academic talk)

  Mary Alice, a 15-year-old girl, gets off the train in southern Illinois and meets her grandmother, who will be taking care of her for the next year. Mary Alice is carrying her suitcase, a picnic hamper with a cat inside, and her portable radio. We are going to read a few paragraphs to infer one of grandmother's traits.

  Remember, we can infer a person's traits from their actions, their thoughts, and the dialogue, and how they talk to others in the story.

  Here is a short summary of when Mary Alice first gets off the train and meets her grandma.

  > "What's in there?"
  >
  > "Bootsie," I said. "My cat."
  >
  > "Hoo-boy," Grandma said. "Another mouth to feed." Her lips pursed. "And what's that thing?"
  >
  > "My radio." But it was more than a radio to me. It was my last touch with the world.
  >
  > "That's all we need, more noise."

  Questions

  1. What does Grandma say when she sees Mary Alice's cat and radio?
  2. How do you think Grandma feels about the cat and the noise?
  3. Is Grandma's world about to change?
  4. How do you feel when your life is about to change in a big way?
  5. What does this tell us about Grandma? What kind of person is she? What character trait does that reveal?

- Extend the discussion and focus on language use (feedback on language use)

  Pair students so that a stronger English speaker is paired with an English learner. Have the students discuss what kind of person Grandma is, then share their ideas with each other. Students' comments affirm what they say and expand upon it.

  As students offer their thoughts, expand on their language and model more expanded use of language.

  Student: Grandma not nice.

  Teacher: Yes, Grandma does not seem very nice; maybe she is uncomfortable with change.

In addition to the general instructional techniques for assisting English learners discussed here, two Institute for Educational Science Practice Guides—*Effective Literacy and English Language Instruction for English Learners in the Elementary Grades* (Gersten et al., 2007) and *Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School* (Baker et al., 2014)—provide a host of instructional techniques and are easily available as PDFs by Googling "IES practice guides on teaching English learners."

The Reading Corner

Books Available in Bilingual Formats

Books with text in two languages, usually on facing pages, provide an outstanding opportunity for English learners to practice reading in both their own language and English. Moreover, the text in the reader's stronger language acts as a scaffold for reading the text in their weaker language. The books listed below are a small sample of the many books available. Searching sites such as Amazon with the terms "bilingual books" and "dual-language books" will yield hundreds more.

Rebecca T. Anonuevo. *The Shy Rooster/Ang Mahiyaing Manok*. (Filipino-English). Pan Asia Publications, 2000. In this picture book, a shy young rooster who cannot crow as well or as loud as the other roosters proves his worth. 32 pages.

Enebor Attard. *Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves*. (Hindi-English). Language Lizards, 2011. Colorfully illustrated version of this classic tale. This is available in English and over 20 other languages. 32 pages.

Stella Blackstone. Illustrated by Debbie Harter. *Bear in a Square/Tus Dais Hauv Lub Plaub Fab*. (Hmong-English). Barefoot Books, 2022. Readers discover a lot of different shapes with rhyme, repetition, and counting. This book is also available in Russian, Vietnamese, Amharic, and Spanish. 24 pages.

Eric Carle. *From Head to Toe/De la cabeza a los pies*. (Spanish-English). HarperCollins, Bilingual edition, 2020. The animals of Head to Toe invite young readers to copy their antics as they play. 28 pages.

Daniel Chacón. Illustrated by Steven James Petruccio. *Gecko Girl/La gartijita*. (Spanish-English). Arte Publico/Piñata, 2025. A bilingual story about a little girl who wakes up having been magically transformed into a gecko. 32 pages.

Hans de Beer. *Little Polar Bear/jag-eun buggeuggom*. (Korean-English). NorthSouth Books, Inc., 2020. This picture book, beloved for more than 30 years, tells of little bear's adventure drifting on an iceberg in the Arctic. Also available in these bilingual editions--Ukrainian, Vietnamese, Russian, Chinese, Arabic, Italian, French, German. 32 pages.

Angéle Delaunois. Illustrated by Augusto Mora. *Carlito's Butterfly/La mariposa de Carlito*. (Spanish-English). Orca, 2025. A lyrical text in which Carlito makes discoveries about the monarch butterfly and its migration from one country to another, something people also sometimes do. 36 pages.

Lucky Diaz. Illustrated by Micah Player. *The Rock Star/La guitarrista*. (Spanish-English). HarperCollins, Bilingual edition, 2024. Tenacious Canta achieves her wildest dreams with a broken guitar and a little help from her community. 40 pages.

Anneke Forzani. Illustrated by Maria Russo. *Who Are We? Peb Yog Leej Twg? (Hmong-English).* Language Lizard, 2021. This multicultural book helps readers understand and appreciate diverse communities. 26 pages.

Chris Huang. *Mama's Home in Taiwan: A Bilingual Children's Book*. (Traditional Chinese-Zhuyin-Pinyin-English). Cloud Learning, 2021. Actually written in four scripts, this is a story of modern Taiwanese immigrants nurturing the next generation to identify with their motherland and to be proud of being Taiwanese-Americans. 37 pages.

Xaviar Garza. *Racing at Devil's Bridge and Other Stories/Carreras en le Puente del Diablo y otros cuentos*. Translation by Alaide Venura Medina. (Spanish-English). Arte Publico Press, 2024. A collection of stories for 8-12-year-old readers featuring creepy creatures from Latin American lore. 185 pages.

Pang Hlub Xiong. *Kashia's Family. Kaj Siab Tsev Neeg*. (Hmong-English). English & White Hmong Publisher: Project Hmong Children's Books, 2025. A simple, repetitive story about Kashia and her love for her intergenerational family. 24 pages.

DEVELOPING WORD RECOGNITION AND COMPREHENSION

Thus far in the chapter, we have presented a number of general recommendations for teaching English learners. Now we will focus on some specifics for teaching word recognition, vocabulary, and comprehension. It is important to keep in mind that the more support you provide, the better the students will grasp the new skills and concepts. The set of ideas and strategies we present here was developed by the American Educational Research Association (AERA, 2004), the major educational research association in the United States, and parallels the more recent recommendations made by August (2018), Goldenberg (2023), and Shanahan (2025a,b). *Teaching Tool 14.1* lists these ideas and strategies.

Teaching Tool 14.1

AERA's Recommendations

Word Recognition

- Emphasize decoding skills early. Like other children, English learners can learn to decode words relatively quickly—in two years or so.
- Provide systematic training in phonemic awareness.
- Give students lots of practice reading.
- Provide explicit instruction in phonics.
- Use frequent in-class assessment to find out where students need assistance, and then provide that assistance.

Comprehension

- Allot a substantial period of time to building sophisticated language skills. Engage students in substantive reading, writing, and discussion on academic topics.
- Provide in-depth instruction in both oral and reading vocabulary, and be sure to teach a significant number of words using powerful approaches.
- Provide instruction in learning from text.
- Provide comprehension strategy instruction.

Pearson eTextbook Video Example 14.4

Here, English as a second language expert Diane August discusses the special needs of English language newcomers, emphasizing the importance of peer tutoring. What sort of training do you think is necessary for elementary grade peer tutors?

www.youtube.com/watch?v=FTrjo3H89bY

Beginning Reading Instruction with English Learners

Many of the instructional recommendations we have discussed thus far in this chapter apply primarily to students who have mastered the rudiments of reading in English. Here, we look at beginning reading instruction for English learners.

An English learner must learn to decode written English and acquire the alphabetic principle. In several ways, teaching young English learners to read is similar to teaching monolingual students, but with some added complications. When a child is learning to read in their first language, word recognition problems are simpler. Once the child has decoded a new word, sounded it out, the word is likely to be in their oral vocabulary and they can see that the task was successful. In many cases, the student only has to produce an approximation of the word before the mind completes the task of pulling a known word from the child's oral vocabulary. When an EL decodes a new word, that rich vocabulary is not available. So when the student gets close to the correct pronunciation there is no moment of recognition, there is no "aha" experience. The EL often does not know that they have correctly identified the word. Having only a small oral English vocabulary, the student is hampered in both word recognition and comprehension. So word recognition for ELs must proceed carefully and be supported by concurrent vocabulary instruction where word meanings are discussed after students decode new words.

Another set of problems confronts English learners just learning to read English because there is often a mismatch between the phonemes in the student's first language and the sounds of English. While the teacher is diligently trying to get the students to pronounce one sound, the students are hearing another. A few common language interference problems are presented in **Figure 14.8**. Being aware of these potential problems, you can minimize language confusions by careful pronunciation and by guiding students through the proper mouth movements.

FIGURE 14.8
Sources of Sound Confusion Between English and Spanish

English		**Spanish**
Sounds	*Words*	*Problems of Recognition*
"u" schwa	fun	Spanish has no schwa. The closest would be the "aw" in *fawn*.
"a" There are eight basic ways to pronounce *a*.	cat, about, play	Spanish has one sound for "a." The nearest sound to short *a* in Spanish would be the "e" in *hen*.
"i" There are four basic ways to pronounce *i*.	pig, till, bike	It is difficult for the Spanish ear to hear the short sound of *i*. The Spanish speaker will hear "ill" as "eel" or "ell."
"ch" The digraph is pronounced with a high volume of air.	chair, church,	"sh" and "ch" are very similar in Spanish because Spanish is spoken with a low volume of air, making the sounds similar.
"wh"	why, what, where	The "wh" does not occur in Spanish and it will be perceived as "gwai," "gwhat," and "gwear" in Spanish.
"sc," "sp," or "st"	scan, speak, stick	In Spanish the "s" at the beginning of a word is followed only by vowels. So these words will be perceived as "escan," "espeek," or "esteek."

Given the problems associated with teaching phonics to English learners, the teacher must craft phonics lessons that ameliorate potential difficulties. *In the Classroom 14.5* presents a phonics lesson you might use with a mixed group of ELs and English-only students. The integration of phonics and vocabulary development is essential for the development of decoding skills and vocabulary. Students will fail to benefit from the phonics unless their English vocabulary builds at the same time. For the English-only students in the class, the extra emphasis on vocabulary helps to ground the decoding work in a meaningful context, making the work much less abstract. The lesson in *In the Classroom 14.5* is based on Beck and Beck (2024) and reflects the same structure for phonics lessons we presented in Chapter 8.

In the Classroom 14.5

Phonics Instruction for English Learners and the Rest of the Class

Phonics instruction for English learners follows the same general lesson plan as for English-only students. In teaching the lesson, it is best to work with small groups of four to six students composed of both English-only students and English learners. Begin the lesson by developing phonemic awareness and then move to letter-sound associations and finally decoding practice. The lesson should weave in words from Spanish, if that is the English learners' home language, and English words. As noted, there should be a heavy focus on vocabulary, so that words are not just decoded but the meanings explained and discussed.

Phonemic Awareness

Develop phonemic awareness by focusing attention first on the initial sounds in words. The major differences between the sounds in English and Spanish are the vowels. While Spanish has five vowel sounds, English has twelve. Additionally, there are sounds in English like the digraphs *sh* and *ch* that are difficult for Spanish speakers to distinguish.

English learners will be more successful if teachers keep it simple and begin with initial consonant sounds. Students might conduct a picture sort and then isolate the initial sound in the word. Use words like *dog* /d/, *perro* /p/, *cat* /c/, and *gato* /g/. After each picture is sorted, the students name the picture and identify the initial consonant sound. The activity can be repeated to identify the final sound in each word using both English and the child's first language.

Connect Letters to Sounds

Show students a large letter card and explain that this is the letter *m* and it makes the /m/ sound as in Maria, Michael, Miguel, madre, manana, mother, and milk. Say something like, "Each time I point to the letter, you say the letter sound." Using the students' names grounds the lesson in the familiar. Next, show the students several words that contain an *m* and have them point to and say /m/ as in *man*, *ham*, or *jamón*. Always use a visual so that ELs can make the transition between their first and second languages.

Discriminate Sounds

Students can next discriminate among words that contain the /m/ sound and words that do not. "If the word I say begins with the /m/ sound, hold up your *m* card and say /m/. If it doesn't begin with the /m/ sound, shake your head no." Then say words like *milk, leche, money, dinero, mother, madre,* and so forth. After the students respond, discuss and define the words, or share pictures that represent them. Note that vocabulary is being developed alongside phonics.

Blending/Decoding

The last step in the lesson is to build words with the letter-sound associations that have been introduced. The students will be decoding words, but the lesson must also emphasize their meanings. After each word is decoded, define the word or share a picture. Again, English learners are building both decoding ability and vocabulary.

Place the letters *h a m* in a pocket chart and give each student the same set of letters. Point to the letters one at a time and say the sounds of each letter. Then, have the students repeat the process. Slide the letter *a* over to the letter *h* and say /ha/. Slide your finger under the *ha*, pronounce it, and hold it until you point at the letter *m* and say /m/. Have the student repeat what you say with their letters. Move the *m* over to the *ha*. Slide your finger under *ham* and say /ham/. Have the students repeat the process. Discuss what ham is and when you might eat it. Say it in Spanish: *jamón*. The process continues as students sound out additional words—*ham, him, hit, hid, had,* and *dad*. With each word make sure the students understand what it means and have them try it out orally in a sentence. You can have the students work together to develop a sentence for each word with English-only students assisting ELs.

As with any learners, the process does not stop with students' initial work on phonemic awareness, learning letter sounds and blending. The students have to apply and practice their new skills in context. Two concerns stand out—text selection and guided practice. When selecting texts, we believe the guidelines we discussed in Chapter 6 apply equally well to English learners. Select texts, in which students can practice the phonics patterns they have been taught in isolation. This helps to ensure transfer. Second, select texts in which the phonics patterns and the individual words are repeated often so that the students have a sufficient amount of practice. This means that reading level should not be the only criteria used to select text. Examine the texts closely and determine if the phonics patterns you have taught receive a generous amount of practice.

Much of students' reading practice will come during small-group work, and it is during that time that the teacher can provide support and guidance in the use of word recognition strategies. Avalos and her colleagues (2008) recommend that the ideal time to assist English learners with word recognition problems is after they have read the passage. The instructional routine might look something like this:

- After a student finishing reading, ask if they encountered any difficult words.
- If the student identifies a difficult word, discuss the process of decoding the word. Ask how they identified or figured out the word. If not, model a strategy for the group.
- It is best to help the students to identify chunks within the word that they already know. Especially for English learners, we recommend the decoding-by-analogy strategy we presented in Chapter 8. By using this strategy, ELs do not have to deal with the complexity of the English vowel structure and can decode the word as syllables. For example, the word *advertise* is best decoded as *ad*, as in *had*, *ver*, as in *her*, and *tise* as in *size*.
- After the student has decoded words from the text, have them try a few similar words. For example, after the word *advertise* have them try *advertisement*, *likewise*, and *downsize*.
- A bit of practice with each student each day will help to improve their decoding skills. But remember to do as much of the work in context as you can.

Like all students, ELs need to build their reading fluency. In Chapter 9 we stressed the importance of both wide reading and specific practices like repeated readings or neurological impress or dyad reading. For ELs who are not ready to read widely for long periods of time, we strongly recommend repeated readings. This will give ELs the fluency practice they need to build their reading rate and their prosody. These

activities can begin in a small group and then continue with partner work. Pair an English learner with a stronger English speaker and reader so they can provide assistance. Follow the same instructional routines we presented in Chapter 9, but with one modification. Review some of the vocabulary words before the students begin their repeated reading practice.

Developing Comprehension

Since much of what we have written about the development of reading comprehension applies to English learners, here we will focus on some of the differences. As with all students, comprehension is a product of knowledge, inferential reasoning, strategies, and motivation. ELs come from different cultures with different funds of knowledge. Much of what they know may not be useful in comprehending texts in our country. So comprehension requires ways to bridge cultural divides. We will focus on four issues: developing vocabulary, building background knowledge, reading fiction, and reading informational text.

Vocabulary Instruction

In Chapter 10, we introduced a procedure called SWIT, and we elaborate on it in *Appendix B, Selecting Words from Instructional Text*. That process will help you choose words particularly important for English learners. In the process new words in a text are classified as either *essential, valuable,* or *accessible*. Like all students, ELs must learn the words that are essential for comprehending the text, but you should also focus on the accessible words. These are words that most of the class might know, but that ELs might not.

For English learners, academic vocabulary or the language of the classroom is of particular concern (Gersten et al., 2007). The words that abound in reading/language arts are terms like *genre, passage, sentence, paragraph, analyze,* and *summarize*. Other content areas have their own terms, some reflecting the topics being taught and others common across disciplines. Words such as *compare, contrast, explain, evidence, conclude,* and *structure* are likely to be used across several content areas. It is worthwhile setting aside designated time for teaching academic vocabulary.

The process we described for teaching individual words in Chapter 10 works well for English learners with two additions. Use as many visual images as possible. ELs can use the pictures to connect the concept to the word. Also, it is important to use many examples. Using examples, non-examples, and rich discussions is more effective than simply presenting the definitions of words. Definitions are often abstract statements where examples are much more concrete and easier to grasp.

Building Background Knowledge

Building knowledge before students read is a vital part of comprehension activities, and we discussed how to build background knowledge in Chapters 11 and 12. It is equally important to help students use what they know while they are reading. With English learners, knowledge development is particularly vital since the stores of knowledge they bring to the text are different from what English-only students bring. ELs are likely to have difficulty with cultural differences, the idioms of English, and figurative language, especially metaphors and similes. Imagine reading; *The dude hoofed it over to the hoosegow*. This means that fiction, especially realistic fiction or historical fiction with long passages of dialogue, is often more difficult for ELs than nonfiction, in which many science concepts and some social studies concepts are universal.

Reading Fiction

When reading and studying fiction we recommend the C.I.A. (Collect-Interpret-Apply) process that we described at the end of Chapter 11. With C.I.A. students' knowledge

and understanding are carefully built during a read-aloud of a chapter book where the teacher models the process of reading a book. The class develops character lists, draws the setting, outlines the plot, considers the conflict, and develops themes. Each section of a book is specifically supported by a graphic organizer unique to the task. Students work with a partner for additional support. What is learned is transferred and applied during a book club in which students replicate the same process. Each student has a book club partner, and for ELs this is essential. The structure and support in the C.I.A. process suits the need of ELs.

When reading, English learners often encounter difficult grammar or syntax, and these problems deserve some attention. Because English grammar differs from that of other languages, it is important to stop during a lesson to unravel a complex sentence. Consider this short sample from an essay about Martin Luther King, Jr. written for sixth-graders.

> And even though prejudice and poverty still exist, the important lesson that King taught, Branch told TIME, was that "first, we have to believe we can do something about this."

This sentence is complex for a number of reasons. First, the subject of the sentence follows an introductory clause. "And even though prejudice and poverty still exist . . . " and the predicate of the sentence follows the embedded idea that the someone else, Branch, is reporting this information. Also, there are several ideas embedded in this one sentence and it helps to unpack them and other complex sentences. Sometimes, when guiding students' reading, your attention and support should be at the sentence level helping the unravel the meaning of just one sentence.

Reading Informational Text

In the past, informational texts were seldom used for reading instruction (Duke, 2004), but this is changing with the Common Core State Standards, which require that 50 percent of instruction be conducted with informational text (Cummins, 2013). We strongly recommend that you use informational texts with English learners for several reasons.

First, students can read informational texts to find out things that they can use in their lives outside of the classroom. This may be a greater motivation to learn to read in English than anything else you can do. It will give students a reason to work as hard as they can to understand texts in English. The task can be as simple as reading a recipe for making chocolate chip cookies or as complex as reading a science article on hibernation. Being able to read informational texts may also contribute to the stature of a child, as the new knowledge can be taken home and used to help others in his family.

Second, informational text benefits English learners in that it avoids slang and literary devices. Narrative fiction is full of slang, idioms, similes, and metaphors, language that brings stories to life but makes comprehension more difficult for English learners. The language of informational text is concrete.

Third, in any language, a volcano, a vertebrate, and the moon is the same concept. Moreover, many concepts that are discussed in informational texts can be illustrated with pictures, so ELs have easier access to meaning.

Fourth, it is possible to find informational texts dealing with topics that English learners have a lot of background knowledge about and that do not demand background knowledge specific to U.S. culture or to English, such as Anna Desnitskaya's simple picture book *A Star Shines Through* or Leslie Barnard Booth's *One Day This Tree Will Fall*. Knowledge of basic facts about common animals, for example, is independent of the language and culture in which those facts were learned. Conversely, in stories written for U.S. children, there is often a good deal of cultural knowledge that some ELs may not have assumed.

Additionally, informational text can expand opportunities for home–school connections (Duke & Purcell-Gates, 2003). Some parents, older siblings, and relatives of ELs may seldom have the time or interest to read fiction. These same people,

however, may welcome opportunities to work with their children in reading and understanding newspapers, Internet articles and other nonfiction texts, either print or digital, that deal with real-world topics. Involving parents, siblings, and other speakers of students' native languages can be a huge benefit for all parties.

A note of clarification is needed here. We are not advocating the elimination of narrative texts from the reading curriculum. We are, however, recommending that nonfiction be used as a major component in reading instruction. A study by Duke (2000) showed very little expository text used in the elementary grades while the Common Core State Standards (2009) recommend 50 percent expository text through grade 5 gradually raising to 70 percent in high school. This seems like a reasonable balance of these two different and important text types. Of course, some books—for example, Bonnie Graves's *The Whooping Crane*—both tell a story and provide a good deal of information on a topic.

One important concept to keep in mind when giving English learners informational texts is not to require them to learn large bodies of new knowledge in English. ELs need plenty of scaffolding, using such techniques as teacher-guided questions, working with a peer, and well-structured graphic organizers. Expecting ELs to learn large amounts of new information by reading English texts without sufficient scaffolding is simply an invitation to failure.

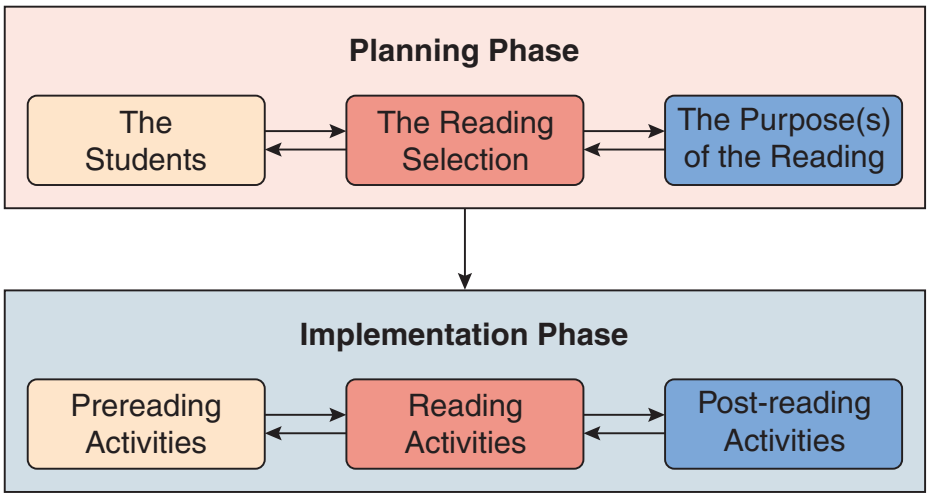
In addition to the teaching suggestions and the descriptions of informational books provided throughout this book, Duke and Bennett-Armistead's *Reading and Writing Informational Text in the Primary Grades* (2003), Cummins', *Close Reading of Informational Texts: Assessment-driven Instruction in Grades 3–8* (2013), and, for a different perspective, Shanahan's *Leveled Texts, Leveled Lives* (2025) can be very helpful.

Finally, we suggest using the Scaffolded Reading Experience (SRE), which we discussed in Chapter 11, with English learners. In fact, one of us coauthored a book on just that topic, *Scaffolding Reading Experiences for English Language Learners* (Fitzgerald & Graves, 2004). Here, we briefly review what we said about SREs in Chapter 11, say a bit more about them and their use with ELs, and give some examples of SREs with ELs. Importantly, although we discussed SREs in a section dealing with narratives and are discussing it here using a biography as an example, SREs are useful with all types of texts, fiction and nonfiction. They are particularly useful with ELs because they suggest many different ways of supporting students' reading. But at the same time they emphasize that just those supports needed to enable students to successfully read the selection they are dealing with should be used.

A Scaffolded Reading Experience is a coordinated set of prereading, during-reading, and postreading activities designed to assist a particular class or group of students to successfully read, understand, learn from, and enjoy a particular text. As shown in **Figure 14.9**, creating an SRE is a two-phase process. In the first phase, the Planning Phase, you consider the Students, the Reading Selection, and the Purpose(s) of the reading. As the two-way arrows suggest, these considerations are interdependent. For example, the students with whom you are working determine the reading selections that are appropriate and the purpose or purposes that can be achieved. For another example, the purpose(s) of doing the reading determine the reading selections that are appropriate and the students who can read the selection. As is also shown in Figure 14.9, in the second phase, the Implementation Phase, you select the Prereading, During-Reading, and Post-reading activities that can best help the students you are working with achieve the purposes you, and your students, wish to accomplish. Again, these three sets of activities are interdependent. What you do for Prereading effects what you do During reading and for Post-reading and vice versa.

A list of *possible* prereading, during-reading, and post-reading activities that *might* be included in an SRE is shown in **Figure 14.10**. Note that this is a list of *possible* activities that *might* be included. No actual SRE would include all of these activities or anything like this number of activities. Instead, in planning an SRE you choose just those activities that will best assist your students in successfully reading the narrative or informational selection they are dealing with.

FIGURE 14.9
The SRE Framework



Source: The SRE figure is taken with permission from Scaffolding Reading Experiences: Designs for Student Success *(1994), Christopher-Gordon.*

FIGURE 14.10
Possible Components of a Scaffolded Reading Experience for English Language Learners

- Prereading Activities
  - Motivating
  - Activating or Building Background Knowledge
  - Providing Text-Specific Knowledge
  - Relating the Reading to Students' Lives
  - Preteaching Vocabulary
  - Preteaching Concepts
  - Prequestioning, Predicting, and Direction Setting
  - Using Students' Native Language
  - Engaging Students and Community People as Resources
  - Suggesting Strategies
- Reading Activities
  - Silent Reading
  - Reading to Students
  - Supported Reading
  - Oral Reading by Students
  - Reading Short Segments of the Text
  - Modifying the Text
- Post-reading Activities
  - Questioning
  - Discussion
  - Building Connections
  - Writing
  - Drama
  - Artistic, Graphic, and Nonverbal Activities
  - Application and Outreach Activities

An example will illustrate what actual SREs look like, how different they can be, and how they are adjusted for different situations. Consider two SREs you might use with *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth,* a biography by Joan Patrick. It's about Jackie Mitchell, a 17-year-old pitcher and the first female member of a minor league team called the Lookouts. In 1931, Jackie struck out New York Yankee legends Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig. While many English learners might be familiar with the game of baseball, others might not. Thus with some, but not all ELs, a fairly healthy scaffold would be appropriate. Here is one for a small group of second-graders.

SRE FOR *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth*

Students	**Selection**	**Purpose**
Second-graders (3 English language learners and 1 academically challenged student)	*The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth* by Joan L. S. Patrick	To understand and enjoy an inspiring biography
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Post-reading**
• Motivating • Preteaching Vocabulary • Building Background Knowledge • Suggesting Strategies	• Guided Reading • Oral Reading by Teacher • Silent Reading	• Discussion • Drama • Artistic Activity • Reteaching (This became part of the SRE when it became apparent that students were having problems using the strategy suggested during prereading.)

Now here is another SRE for the same selection but with a different group of students. These are above average and gifted third-grade, native-English speakers and ELs who have been in dual-language classes since kindergarten, and they are unlikely to need as much scaffolding as the second-grade group.

An Alternative SRE FOR *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth*

Students	**Selection**	**Purpose**
Third-graders (above average and gifted), native-English speakers and English-language learners who have been in dual-language immersion classes since kindergarten	*The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth* by Joan L. S. Patrick	To understand and enjoy an inspiring biography
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Post-reading**
• Building Background Knowledge (which combines motivation and purpose setting)	• Guided Reading • Silent Reading	• Discussion • Artistic Activity

By comparing these two SREs, you can see the effects that students, the texts being read, and the purposes of the reading have on the types and numbers of activities you create. In the first SRE the teacher provides more support, scaffolding, by preteaching the vocabulary, reading a portion of the text aloud to the students, and reteaching the strategy at the conclusion of the lesson. At this point, we want to again note that the purpose of an SRE is not to fill up precious reading time with a lot of activities, no matter how engaging or purposeful in their own right they might be, but rather to provide a scaffold for students to successfully comprehend, learn from, and enjoy what they read.

Some activities in the SRE may be quite brief, taking a only a few minutes, while others will take much longer. For example, a motivational activity might include no more than your saying, "I learned more about the United States Civil War by reading

this article than from anything I've read before." Whereas, a concept-building activity that includes demonstrations of Newton's Laws of Gravity may take 20 minutes or more. What you need to consider is the cost-effectiveness of each activity: How much scaffolding do students need to successfully comprehend and respond to this selection? How much help will they need to understand and enjoy a folktale? To write a mathematical sentence for a story problem? To recall and respond to the significant events that led up to the Civil War?

Another point to keep in mind is that what is important is the function or functions an activity serves, not what it's labeled. For instance, if you know from experience that you really have to motivate your fourth-graders before they read any expository material, then, when planning an SRE for an informational trade book on Japan, you know you must include motivation. As you create the motivational activity, you discover that it serves several purposes simultaneously. It serves to relate the reading to the students' lives, activate their prior knowledge, and introduce vocabulary. You sought motivation and ended up with additional aids in the scaffold. This overlapping of functions will cause no problems. You know what your activity is accomplishing, and that should be enough—unless you also want to tell your students the purpose of the activity—something we recommend you do frequently.

Reflect and Apply

5. Think about reading activities that are not specific to a particular language. For example, the process of using a table of contents in a book is much the same, regardless of the language used. What other reading tasks are similar across different languages?
6. Create your own Rosetta Stone chart, with words or phrases that you know in English and in one or two other languages. For example, you might already know that *mesa* is the Spanish word for "table." If you cannot construct much of a chart by yourself, get together with your classmates who speak other languages and create a chart together.

ASSESSMENTS FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS

Two of the major themes of this chapter are that (1) English learners may require additional support, and (2) students' home languages can and should be used where appropriate. These themes are at the center of our recommendations for assessing ELs. Here, we consider some types of modifications and supports that can be useful in assessing ELs, make some recommendations for using modifications and other supports, and provide some examples of what modifications and supports might look like and how appropriate they might be in assessing students' motivation and in assessing their vocabulary knowledge.

Types of Modifications Useful in Assessment

Probably the easiest type of modification you can provide for English learners during assessments is to give them more time to complete the assessment. The additional time can range from giving students a few minutes to letting them work until you think they have done as much as they can or are willing to do. Another relatively easy type of modification is having students complete the assessment in a place where they are particularly comfortable and likely to produce their best work. This might be the front of the classroom near you, in a quiet corner of the classroom, or in a separate room where there will be as few distractions as possible. A third, and probably more challenging logistically, type of modification is to give the

assessment at a time of day when students are likely to be at their best. The optimal time of day will vary from student to student and from situation to situation, but in many cases this might mean mid-morning. It probably does not mean first thing in the morning, just before or just after lunch, or late in the school day. A fourth, and definitely more demanding in terms of resources, modification is to pair students with an adult, probably an aide, who can keep them on track, encourage them, and perhaps answer questions.

The next type of modification to consider are supports to provide before the actual assessments take place, systematically preparing students to take assessments. See Appendix C for test-taking strategies. The first step here might be to explain upcoming assessments and their purpose. Another step might be to give students test-taking tips such as completing items they understand and can readily respond to in their first pass through the test and then circling back to work on more problematic items, being sure to complete all items on the test, and keeping the time allotted in mind and proceeding at an appropriate pace. Next, you might have students take a practice test that mirrors the format and content of the upcoming assessment. Finally, it would be useful to debrief students after they have taken the practice test, helping them to understand what they did well, what they did not do as well, and how they can improve their test taking skills.

Another type of modification, a very different one and one you will want to use with care, is reading some or all of the test to the student. Obviously, the more of the test you read to the student, the more the assessment becomes a listening test rather than a reading test.

Still another type of modification, and one that may not be easy to accomplish, is using the student's home language. There are a number of options here: You could give the directions in the student's home language. You could allow the student to answer questions in his home language. You could read the possible responses in the student's home language. You could read the entire test in the student's home language. Or you could present the written test in the student's home language.

Some Recommendations for Using Modifications and Supports

Remember that the major purpose of reading assessments from a teacher's perspective is to find out what students can and cannot do so that you can assist them in becoming better readers. ELs in U.S. schools need to become more proficient in reading English, so the more your assessments reflect their skills in reading English, the more they will help you help your students. Our first recommendation is to fully realize how you are changing the assessment and how its results are affected by these modifications and supports. We are talking about thoroughly considering how your supports or modifications affect the assessment outcome. Our second recommendation is closely related to the first. Make a written record of your support or modifications so that both you and others who look at the results of the assessment will understand just what was and was not being measured. This is particularly important when using standardized assessments because the norms for standardized assessments will be affected by any changes you make to the standard procedures. However, it is important for all assessments, because all assessment results need to be interpreted in light of just what modifications and supports you included. Finally, use only as many and as powerful modifications and supports necessary to get the information you need.

Examples of Modifications and Supports

Let's consider some appropriate modifications for assessing motivation and vocabulary. We hope these examples will give you an idea of what to consider as you look at possible modifications and supports for both these and other types of assessments.

Motivation is probably the area in which modifications and supports are most appropriate and do the least to change the intended purpose of the assessment. Consider, for example, the set of questions on reading attitudes we presented in Chapter 3:

- Do you like to read? Why or why not?
- Are you reading anything for fun at this time? What is it? Why do you like it?
- Do you have any favorite authors or titles? Why are these your favorites?
- Is there a certain kind of text that you prefer—books, magazines, fiction, nonfiction, or some other format?
- How do you choose what to read when you go online or to a library or bookstore?
- What do you do if what you are reading is too hard or too easy for you?
- What makes a good reader?

The first thing to consider when using this assessment with English learners is to note whether you are asking about reading in English, reading in the students' home language, or both. Once you have clarified this point, you could include such modifications as reading the questions to students, letting them respond in their home language, or presenting the questions in the students' home language. With any of these modifications, you would still be assessing students' reading attitudes and interests, just what the original assessment was intended to assess.

The situation with vocabulary and a standardized test is quite different. Consider the vocabulary section of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test (MacGinitie et al., 2000), a test we discussed in Chapter 10. Here is a sample test item with four answer choices.

It was an interesting **era**:

a. kind of food
b. type of sport
c. period of time
d. way of talking

The Gates-MacGinitie is norm referenced, and any modifications you make will affect the norms, meaning the results for students receiving a modification are likely to be stronger than they would achieve without your assistance. Consider one of the easiest modifications we have suggested, having students complete the assessment in a place where they are particularly comfortable, perhaps in a room with just a few students and an aide. You would make the modification because you believe the students might score better without the distractions of the typical classroom, and they might. They might score higher, and this higher score might be a truer indication of their vocabulary knowledge. But you could not compare their scores to the scores of students in the norm group, who took the test in a classroom setting. The same applies to giving students more time to complete the test. The results might be a better representation of what the students are capable of if given enough time, but you could not compare these students' scores to the scores of students in the norm group.

Now consider a very different modification, reading the test items to the student. Now you are no longer using the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, you have created a "Gates-MacGinitie Listening Test." You are not testing reading at all, you are testing listening. And while your test will provide you with some information about the students' listening skills, it tells neither you nor any other teachers who see the results of your assessment anything about the students' reading skills. You might think that the students' scores on a listening test would be higher than their scores on a reading test. However, some ELs have stronger written English skills than oral English skills, so it is very difficult to make a conclusion about students' proficiency with reading vocabulary based on a listening test.

Our general message about providing extra support or modifications when assessing English learners can be summed up this way: Supports and modifications

can certainly be useful, but before you use them you need to carefully consider what you are assessing and what effects the supports and modifications are likely to have on students' scores. Additionally, you need to keep a written description of your supports and modifications so that you and others who might look at students' scores in the future can interpret them correctly.

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, we began by considering linguistic diversity in the United States, the number of English learners in today's schools, and the reading performance of ELs. Then, in the major portion of the chapter, we described instructional approaches that can be used with ELs and some modifications to consider when assessing ELs. In concluding the chapter, we want to emphasize seven points.

First, realize that English learners are both learning to read and learning a new language. This is a hugely more difficult task than that of learning to read in their first language, one the students already know quite well. Keep this in mind in all your work with ELs.

Second, practices that are generally effective are likely to be effective with English learners. Good teaching is good teaching in a variety of contexts and with a variety of students.

Third, English learners will profit from, and in many cases require, additional instructional supports. Good teaching by itself is not sufficient.

Fourth, using students' home languages will help promote English learners' success.

Fifth, with English learners, as with all children, it is not merely low-level literacy or the rudiments of literacy that we must assist ELs in reaching. The goal is full literacy in English—the ability to use the English language as a vehicle for thinking, for problem solving, and for communicating—in other words, the ability to use English in a way that makes possible full and productive participation in our society.

Sixth, vocabulary instruction was the focus of many suggestions in this chapter. Vocabulary is absolutely crucial to English learners. Besides the instructional suggestions discussed in this chapter, consider the many techniques for vocabulary instruction we described in Chapter 10. Additionally, you may want to consider the fuller discussion of vocabulary instruction one of us presents in *The Vocabulary Book* (Graves, 2016) or in a summary and updating of that book (Graves, 2022) that is readily available online.

Finally, the task of assisting English learners in reaching the level of English literacy sufficient for success in the 21st century is clearly a challenging one. Yet it is a task we can and must accomplish.

Extending Learning

1. Visit a school with English learners, and volunteer to work with some students whose first language is not English. If you cannot find such a school, many social service agencies, religious organizations, and other nonprofit groups have programs that target reading for English learners. Volunteering to work in these settings, or even simply observing, will allow you to see how many of the principles in this chapter play out in real life.
2. Study the instructional recommendations made throughout this chapter. There are over 40 of them, many more than you can implement at one time. Identify half a dozen or so that you see as particularly useful and as steps that you definitely could take in your present or future classroom. Explain in writing why you selected each of these recommendations and in what order you are likely to implement them.

Children's Literature

Alonso, Nathalie. (2024). *Call Me Roberto! Roberto Clemente Goes to Bat for Latinos*. Astra/Calkins Creek. Inspirational story about Major League Baseball great Roberto Clemente and how he endured racism and discrimination and became one of the greatest players of all times. 40 pages.

Anta, Julio. (2025). *Santiago! A Hillside Valley Graphic Novel*. Random House Graphic. When 12-year-old Santiago's family sends him to Hillside Valley, a Latinx enclave in the Hudson Valley, to visit his Spanish-speaking grandmother in order to learn Spanish, he encounters many challenges with his

new bilingual friends. First book in the Hillside Valley series. 224 pages.

Booth, Leslie Barnard. (2024). *One Day This Tree Will Fall*. Margaret K McElderry Books. Lyrical picture book about how a tree's wounds and decay bring new life to the forest ecosystem. 40 pages.

Ciardi, J. (1975). "The Shark." In *Fast and Slow: Poems by John Ciardi*. Houghton Mifflin. This poem provides a colorful and engaging description of a shark. 1 page.

Desnitskaya, Anna. (2024). *A Star Shines Through*. Eerdmans Books for Young Readers. Poignant story of a displaced family making a home in the aftermath of war. 40 pages.

Entrada, Erin. (2024). *The First State of Being*. Greenwillow Books. This 2025 Newbery Award Winning Book is a science fiction tale of twelve-year-old Michael Rosario who meets a mysterious boy from the future and his life is changed forever. 272 pages.

Graves, B. (1997). *The Whooping Crane*. Perfection Learning. While on an airplane ride from Texas to Maryland, a young girl sits next to a biologist transporting a whooping crane chick to the Patuxent *Wildlife Research Center* and learns about this endangered species. 64 pages.

O'Dell, S. (2010). *Island of the Blue Dolphins*. Clarion. By using her wits and the resources at hand, a young Indian girl survives alone on an island for several years. Newbery Medal winner. Audio and videotapes available. Spanish text also available. 154 pages.

Patrick, J. L. S. (2000). *The Girl Who Struck Out Babe Ruth*. (2000). Fifth Avenue Editions. The story of Jackie Mitchel, a 17-year-old girl and member of a minor league team, who struck out the Yankees' Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig in the same game. 48 pages.

Rappaport, Doreen (2023). *Ellen Takes Flight: The Life of Astronaut Ellen Ochoa*. Little, Brown Books for Young Readers. An engaging picture book biography about the first Latina in space and director of the Johnson Space Center, astronaut Ellen Ochoa. 48 pages.

Rosenblatt, L. (1998). *Monarch Magic!* Williamson Publishing Co. Simple text and colorful photographs depict the life cycle of a monarch butterfly, from egg to caterpillar to chrysalis to butterfly. Includes 40 butterfly activities. 96 pages.

Shea, P. D. (1995). *The Whispering Cloth: A Refugee's Story*. Boyds Mills Press. A young Hmong girl in a Thai refugee camp creates a pándau (embroidered tapestry) that tells her own story. Includes glossary. Illustrated by A. Riggio, with reproductions of pándau by Y. Yang. 32 pages.

Wondery. (2025). *How to Survive Against the Odds: Tales and Tips for Animal Attacks and Natural Disasters*. William Morrow. Fifteen real life-or-death scenarios and how to survive them. 304 pages.

Soto, G. (1997). *The Skirt*. Yearling. When Miata leaves the skirt she is to wear for the folklorico dance performance on the school bus, she must use all her wits to get it back before her parents find out. Illustrated by Eric Velasquez. Audio CD available. 74 pages.

Appendix

Table of Contents

Appendix A: Assessment Tools

- Emergent Reading Inventory
- Answer Key for the Emergent Reading Inventory
- Tile Test
- Tile Test: Word Files
- Tile Test Recording Sheet
- Motivation for Reading Questionnaire
- Scoring for the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)
- Reading Interest Survey
- Reading Progress Report

Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials

- Selecting Words for Instructional Text: The SWIT Procedure
- Semantic Mapping
- Vocabulary Lesson: Using Context Clues to Infer the Meaning of Unknown Words
- Vocabulary Lesson: Using Prefixes to Unlock the Meaning of Unknown Words
- Comprehension Materials
- Role Sheets for Literature Circles
  - Vocabulary Monitor
  - Visualizer
  - Discussion Director
  - Critic
  - Predictor
  - Summarizer
  - Character Cartographer
- Comprehension Lesson: Teaching Students the Strategy of Making Inferences
- Comprehension Lesson: Inferring Character's Feeling, Traits, and Motives
- Comprehension Lesson: A Description of Questioning the Author (QtA)
- Scaffolded Reading Experiences for English Learners

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix C: Test Taking Strategies

- Reading Comprehension and Test-Taking
- Integrating Test-Taking into Classroom Instruction
- Lesson 1: What Do Students Know About Taking a Standardized Test
- Lesson 2: How to Read the Passages: Noticing and Noting
- Lesson 3: Thinking Through Mulitple-Choice Questions
- Lesson 4: Thinking About Constructed-Response Test Items
- Lesson 5: Developing Stamina, Persistence, and Thoroughness
- Concluding Thoughts

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix A: Assessment Tools

Emergent Reading Inventory

Name_____
Date_____

Alphabet Knowledge	**Letter Sound Association**
____/26 Upper-case letter recognition ____/26 Lower-case letter recognition ____/26 Written production of letters **Score ____ /78**	____/21 Consonant sounds **Score ____ /21**
Phonemic Awareness	**Concept of Word**
____/10 Rhyme Detection ____/12 Blending ____/12 Segmenting **Score ____ /34**	____/8 One-to-One correspondence ____/5 Counting words on a page **Score ____ /13**
Spelling Inventory	**Word Recognition**
____/5 Initial consonants ____/5 Final consonants ____/5 Vowel inclusion ____/5 Correct short vowel **Score ____ /20**	____/10 Decodable words ____/10 Sight words _____ **Score** ____/ **20**
Total Weighted Benchmark Score _____ /186	

Alphabet Knowledge

Have the children name the upper- and lower-case letters in random order using the alphabet cards. Mark all errors below and record substitutions.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

____/26

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

____/26

Have the student reproduce the alphabet as you dictate each letter in random order. The student can write either the upper- or lower-case form of the letter. Call the letters of the alphabet out in this order:

E H F C S Q J P W A I N B Z G K R V T L X D M O U Y

____/26

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Concept of Word

Using *Animal Homes* or *Animal Babies* or other short emergent literacy book.

1. Have the student look at the pictures and tell you about them.
2. Read the book to the student, pointing to each word as you read it.
3. Read the book chorally with the student, pointing to each word as you read it.
4. Have the student read the book independently, pointing to each word as it is read.

Score one point for each page that the student accurately demonstrates one to one correspondence.

____/8

Ask the student how many words are on the first page. If the student answers the correct number, they score five points. If incorrect, they score 0 points.

____/5

Spelling Inventory

Administer the first ten words of Neva Viise's "form B" word list. Ask students to number a lined piece of paper to 9 and then write each word as you say it out loud.

1. lap
2. fit
3. cop
4. bag
5. hen

Score one point for each word with the correct initial consonant.

____/5

5. rap
6. fun
7. mad
8. wig
9. hot

Score one point for each word with the correct final consonant.

____/5

Count the number of words in both lists which include any vowel (Write in student response.)

____/5

Count the number of words in both lists which include a correct short vowel in the correct vowel position (Write in student response.)

____/5

Word Recognition

Make two sets of word cards, for decodable words and sight as listed. Ask students to read each word to you. Mark each of the following words read correctly with a check mark. Score one point for each correct response.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

DECODABLE	SIGHT
____sad	____look
____ran	____little
____set	____have
____red	____the
____cut	____do
____sun	____you
____pig	____see
____fit	____and
____hot	____come
____top	____my
____/10	____/10

Phonemic Awareness

Rhyme Detection

"Rhymes are words that sound the same at the end. *Bat* rhymes with *cat*; *man* rhymes with *can*. Does *ball* rhyme with *tall*? Yes, *ball* rhymes with *tall*. Not all words rhyme. Does *book* rhyme with *cup*? No, *book* and *cup* do not rhyme because *book* ends with *ook* and *cup* ends with *up*. Does *like* rhyme with *lost*? No, *like* and *lost* do not rhyme because *like* ends with *ike* and *lost* ends with *ost*. Does *all* rhyme with *tall*? Yes! Now I am going to say some words, and I want you to tell me if they rhyme."

One point is awarded for pair judged correctly. Make a ✓ mark if the response is correct. Leave it blank if the answer is incorrect.

day - play	
me - he	
moon - jump	
go - no	
bag - bat	

page - paint	
cold - sold	
not - got	
went - when	
make - rake	

Total correct ____ / 10

Blending

"I'm going to say some words in a secret code, spreading out the word until the sounds come out one at a time. I will be stretching the word. Guess what word I'm saying. For example, if I say *h-a-m*. You say *ham*. Let's try one more. If I say *p-i-g* what would you say? That's right *pig*."

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

One point is awarded for each word pronounced correctly. Make a ✓ mark if the given response is correct. Leave it blank if answer is incorrect.

h - e	
g - o	
t - e - n	
b - a - g	
d - ay	
d -i - d	

sh - i - p	
ch - i - n	
wh - e - n	
s- t - o - p	
t - e - n - t	
f - a - s -t	

Total Correct _____ / 12

Phoneme Segmentation

Directions: Today we're going to play a word game. I'm going to say a word and I want you to break the word apart. You are going to tell me each sound of the word in order. For example, if I say **cat,** you should say /c/ /a/ /t/. Let's try a few together.

Practice items: (assist in segmenting, if necessary) **ride (3) go (2) man (3)**

Test items: (Make a √ mark if the word is fully and correctly segmented. Incorrect responses are recorded on the blank line following the item.) Please note if the child is able to just segment the initial letter. This is important information but does not count in the scoring (Yopp-Singer, 2003).

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Answer Key for the Emergent Reading Inventory

Practice Items: ride (3) go (2) man (3)

1. **dog** (3) _____
2. **keep** (3) _____
3. **fine** (3) _____
4. **no** (2) _____
5. **she** (2) _____
6. **wave** (3) _____
7. **lay** (2) _____
8. **race** (3) _____
9. **zoo** (2) _____
10. **top** (3) _____
11. **job** (3) _____
12. **in** (2) _____

____ / 12

Letter-Sound Associations

Using consonants from the lower-case letter deck, ask the student to say the sound that the letter says (one point for each correct response).

b c d f g h j k l m n p q r s t v w x y z (a e i o u)
(no points for short vowels)

____/21

Written Production of Letters

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____

Word Feature Spelling Inventory

Copy the student's spelling of the nine words in the spelling inventory. Review the following information at

https://www.pearsonhighered.com/assets/samplechapter/0/1/3/2/013223968X.pdfŁ to determine the student's developmental spelling level.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Tile Test

Directions

Grade Level: Kindergarten–Second Grade

The Tile Test is designed to quickly assess students' understanding of letters, sounds, words, and sentences. Metalinguistic questions encourage students to talk about the strategies they use when decoding and spelling words.

General Procedures

1. Start with a collection of letter tiles, not just one card. (Print off and make the tiles from p. 559.)
2. Allow sufficient time for each response.
3. Provide general positive feedback to encourage students; do not correct mistakes.
4. Write the students' responses to each item:
   a. Correct response is marked + or ✓.
   b. Incorrect responses will be recorded in full.
   c. No response will be recorded as DK (doesn't know).
   d. Self-correction is marked SC and counted as correct.
   e. Segmented words read without blending sounds will be marked with slashes between sounds (e.g., /t/a/p/).
6. Administer all components.
7. Stop rule: If a student is unable to respond to any word of the first four items, use teacher judgment to discontinue this segment of the test and move to the next. If a student is unsuccessful in reading the word tiles at all, do not proceed to sentence reading.

Letters and Sounds

Begin with a collection of letter tiles [m, a, p, i, f, s, t, d, n].

1. Have students point to the letter you name.
2. Ask students to tell you the *name* and *sound* of each letter.

Words

Add the following letters to the collection of letter tiles [h, e, w, c, k, v, u, l, s, o, d, d, b, r, p, g].

1. Manipulate individual letters to build the words in the directions on the recording sheet. The teacher builds, and the student reads. Follow up with the Metalinguistic (ML) and articulation questions.
2. Ask the student to use the letter tiles to build the words you read. Follow up with Metalinguistic (ML) and Articulation questions. Record student responses. Observe and record strategy use (e.g., orally articulating sounds) and behaviors.
3. Use the word tiles provided to assess word reading. Leave word tiles on the table for use in the next section.
4. In the Word section of the test it is useful to make up the following flash cards: *I, is, cat, sat, run, me, at, big, fat, the, look, map, sit, a, dog, can, on.*

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Metalinguistic (ML) and Articulation Questions

Following the reading of "pat" and "sat" and the building of "tan" and "tad," ask how the student knew to make the change(s) they made. After the successful reading or building of the most difficult word, ask the student what their mouth did to say the first sound of the word. Then ask how they knew to read/build the word that way. Record student responses. Provide and document probing questions as necessary (e.g., "What were you looking at?" "I noticed your mouth moving; how did that help you?"). Score the ML questions using the Tile Test Metalinguistic Rubric.

Sentences

Use the collection of tiles to create sentences. Record student responses.

1. Using the word tiles, build each sentence and have the student read.
2. Ask the student to use the word tiles to build sentences you read. Then ask the student to read the sentence they built. Record student responses.
3. Hand the student the sentence on a separate sheet and have the student read it. Record student responses.

Metalinguistic Rubric

0	No response; "I don't know."
1	"I know it;" "My mom taught me;" "I'm smart."
2	Recognition of letters: "I looked at the letters."
3	Recognition of sounds: "I sound it out;" "I listen to the sounds."
4	Partial linking of sounds to letters: "It starts with a *P* /p/, then *a* /a/." Partial analogy: "Pat is like cat."
5	Explains spelling of each sound. Full analogy: "Pat is like cat, but it starts with a /p/."
6	Explains how sounds are articulated: "It starts with /p/. My lips are together and the air pops out; my tongue is resting in the middle of my mouth. … "

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Tile Test: Word Tiles

Print off the page called Tile Test: Word Tiles. Cut out and laminate each tile to make flash cards.

Copy this page. Cut out and laminate each tile for use in word and sentence reading segments.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Tile Test: Recording Sheet

Student _____ Teacher _____ School _____ Date _____

Letter Identification

Lay out letter tiles [m, a, p, i, f, s, t, d, n].

"Here are some letters. I'll say the name of a letter and ask you to point to the letter. Point to the card that has the letter *m*." *(Record, continue procedure.)*

"Now, I'll point to a card and you'll tell me two things about the letter. First, the *name* of the letter, and second, the *sound* that it makes." *(Record.)*

	Identification	Name	Sound		Identification	Name	Sound
m				s			
a				t			
p				d			
i				n			
f							

Words

Add these letter tiles to the previous tiles: [b, c, d, d, e, h, k, l, o, r, r, s, u, v, w].

"Now let's put some letters together to make words. Some of the words are real words and some are pretend words. I'll go first and make a word, and then I'll ask you to read it for me." (*Manipulate only necessary letters, stop after sat and ask the first ML and articulation questions.*)

↓pat	_____	vute	_____
*sat	_____	flass	_____
sam	_____	lodded	_____
hin	_____	wembick	_____

***ML:** "I noticed that you said 'sat' *(or repeat what the student said if different)*. How did you know to change it that way from 'pat' *(or repeat what the student said)*?"_____

_____

_____

Articulation: "Tell me what your mouth did to say the first sound in _____ *(repeat the most difficult word the student read correctly)*." *(Record verbal responses and behaviors.)*

ML: "How did you know to say _____ *(use the most difficult word decoded correctly)* that way?"

_____

_____

"Now, I'll say a word, and you make it for me." *(As you dictate, clearly articulate by "stretching" each sound. Example: tan = /t/ /ă/ /n/. Stop after tad and ask the first ML and articulation questions.)* You will be reading down the first list and then down the second list.

↓tan	_____	plat	_____
*tad	_____	mape	_____
tap	_____	pridder	_____
leb	_____	radmin	_____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

***ML:** "How did you know to change [the 'n' to a 'd']?" *(Use the letter changes the student has made.)*

Articulation: "Tell me what my mouth did to help you spell _____ *(repeat the most difficult word they spelled correctly)."* *(Record verbal responses and behaviors.)*

ML: "How did you know to spell _____ *(use the most difficult word spelled correctly)* that way?"

Words

Lay out the collection of flash cards you have made.

"I'll show you some words, and you read each one." *(Record, and if incorrect, say the right word.)*

I	_____	me	_____	the	_____	a	_____
is	_____	at	_____	look	_____	dog	_____
cat	_____	big	_____	map	_____	can	_____
sat	_____	fat	_____	sit	_____	on	_____
run	_____						

Sentences

"I'll make a sentence with some words, and you read the sentence for me."

I can run. _____

Look at me. _____

I sat on the cat. _____

The map is big. _____

Sit the dog on the fat cat.

"Now I'll say a sentence, and you can make it for me." *(Have the student read the sentence after building it. Record sentence made and the student's read of it.)*

I can sit. _____

The dog is fat. _____

Look at the map. _____

A dog can look at me. _____

The big cat sat on the dog. _____

"Now I want you to read one sentence for me." *(Give the student the sheet with the sentence printed on it. Record the student's reading.)*

General Observations:

_____

_____

_____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

	A lot like me	A little like me	A little different from me	A lot different from me
1. I read because books and stories are often fascinating.	4	3	2	1
2. I read in order to get better grades in school.	4	3	2	1
3. I read because I know that my friends also read a lot.	4	3	2	1
4. I read because it is important to me to understand things better than other students.	4	3	2	1
5. I read when I am angry and need to calm down.	4	3	2	1
6. I read in order to avoid being bored.	4	3	2	1
7. I read because sometimes I can forget everything around me.	4	3	2	1
8. I read in order to cheer me up when I am in a bad mood.	4	3	2	1
9. I read if there is nothing better to do.	4	3	2	1
10. I read because it's exciting to see what happens to the main characters in a story.	4	3	2	1
11. I read because it helps me when I am angry.	4	3	2	1
12. I read because that is how I can learn something new.	4	3	2	1
13. I read because it is important to me to be among the best students.	4	3	2	1
14. I read because I want to perform better than others in my class.	4	3	2	1
15. I read because that is how I can learn more about interesting things.	4	3	2	1
16. I read because it helps me do better in school.	4	3	2	1
17. I read when there is nothing interesting on television or my tablet.	4	3	2	1
18. I read because it is fun.	4	3	2	1
19. I read because it helps me do well in some subjects.	4	3	2	1
20. I read because I like it when other people think I am a good reader.	4	3	2	1
21. I read because my parents think that it is important that I read a lot.	4	3	2	1
22. If the teacher discusses something interesting I might read more about it.	4	3	2	1
23. I read because it is important to me to always be the best at reading.	4	3	2	1
24. I read because other people say it is good for me to read a lot.	4	3	2	1

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Survey of Reading Amount

	Almost every day	Once a week	Once a month	Never or almost never
How often do you read books all by yourself in your spare time?	4	3	2	1
How often do you read books all by yourself at bedtime?	4	3	2	1
How often do you read books by yourself during school vacations?	4	3	2	1

Survey of Reading Interest

My favorite book is _____

_____

My favorite author is _____

_____

My favorite genre is _____

_____

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Scoring the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ)

Score the MRQ by computing the mean or average score for each of the seven scales listed below. For example, determine the students average score for items that assess curiosity (1, 12, 15, 22). A high score is a 3 or 4 and low score is a 2 or 1. You can also compute the average scores for all of the items that assess intrinsic motivation and the those that assess extrinsic motivation. Compare the means for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and you will have some ideas of what motivates each student to read.*

Intrinsic Factors and Items

- Curiosity, 1, 12, 15, 22
- Involvement, 7, 10, 18
- Relief from boredom, 6, 9, 17
- Emotional regulation, 5, 8, 11

Extrinsic Factors and Items

- Grades, 2. 16. 19
- Competition, 4, 13, 14, 23
- Social recognition, 3, 20, 21, 24

***Scoring Key:**

$10 = 5, 8 - 9 = 4, 6 - 7 = 3, 4 - 5 = 2, 2 - 3 = 1, 0 - 1 = 0$

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Reading Interest Inventory

Name _____

Your Favorite Movies	Your Favorite TV Shows
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

List Three Things You Like to Do After School or on Weekends
1.
2.
3.

Circle a Number for Each Kind of Reading				
	Don't Like It	It is Ok	Like it	Love It
Adventure/Action	1	2	3	4
Fantasy	1	2	3	4
Mystery	1	2	3	4
Science Fiction	1	2	3	4
Historical Fiction	1	2	3	4
Realistic Fiction	1	2	3	4
Graphic Novels	1	2	3	4
How to Books	1	2	3	4
Science	1	2	3	4
History	1	2	3	4
Sports	1	2	3	4
Famous People	1	2	3	4

List Three Books You Have Read (or listened to) and Liked
1.
2.
3.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Reading Progress Record

Student _____ **Grade** _____ **Marking Period** _____

Reading Goals

Foundational Skills (Decoding / Fluency)

Vocabulary

Comprehension

Motivation

Assessments and Evaluations

	Test Score	Observations	Written Work	Conclusions
Decoding/Fluency				
Vocabulary				
Comprehension				
Motivation/Interests				

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Next Steps
Decoding/Fluency
Vocabulary
Comprehension
Motivation/Interests

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix B: Lesson Plans and Materials

In this appendix, we have included some lesson plans and guidance for preparing reading lessons. Each procedure or lesson plan is tied to a chapter, and you can learn more about the types of instruction illustrated in each lesson plan by consulting the appropriate chapter in the book.

The first procedure that follows provides guidance on selecting and teaching individual words. We introduced the SWIT concept in Chapter 10, and here we present a more elaborated version of it. SWIT helps you decide which words to teach and how to teach them. Chapter 10 then provides the procedures for teaching these words. The lesson that follows the SWIT procedures in this appendix describes how to use semantic mapping to introduce new words. Semantic mapping is an alternative to the lessons for teaching new words we included in Chapter 10.

The first lesson plan provides a detailed procedure for teaching students to infer the meanings of unfamiliar words they encounter while reading. Teaching students to use context clues is both very important and time-consuming, requiring a good deal of effort on your part and on the part of your students. More information on teaching context clues can be found in Chapter 10, Vocabulary Development.

The second lesson plan provides a detailed procedure for teaching students to unlock the meanings of unknown words using their knowledge of prefixes and it, too, requires in-depth instruction. A list of the most frequent prefixes, those most worthy of instruction, is included in Chapter 8, Word Recognition.

The third lesson plan is a Scaffolded Reading Experience (SRE) for teaching Kate DiCamillo's award-winning novel *Because of Winn-Dixie.* In addition to helping students learn strategies such as using context and prefixes, it is important to help students read, understand, learn from, and enjoy the books they read for your class. SREs are research-based, powerful, and flexible ways to do that. More information on SREs can be found in Chapter 11, in the section Four Frameworks for Scaffolding Students' Reading.

The fourth lesson plan outlines the first three days of instruction on making inferences, designed for third- through fifth-graders. Comprehension is, of course, the ultimate goal of reading, and one of the most vital things readers do is infer the knowledge and connections that authors imply. More information on comprehension strategies and how to teach them can be found in Chapter 11, Teaching Reading Comprehension: Focusing on Narrative Text.

The fifth lesson plan provides a detailed description of Questioning the Author (QtA), a comprehension instruction developed by Isabel Beck and Margaret McKeown. QtA is a whole-group questioning and discussion strategy designed to help students clarify misunderstandings and construct meaningful understanding of what they read. It is one of several procedures for helping students build rich and lasting understanding of important topics, which we discuss in Chapter 11, Teaching Reading Comprehension Focusing on Narrative Text. While we introduced QtA in the narrative chapter, it can be used equally successfully with informational text.

At the end of the appendix, we include several lessons that apply the principles of the Scaffolded Reading Experience to English learners. These lessons extend what we

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

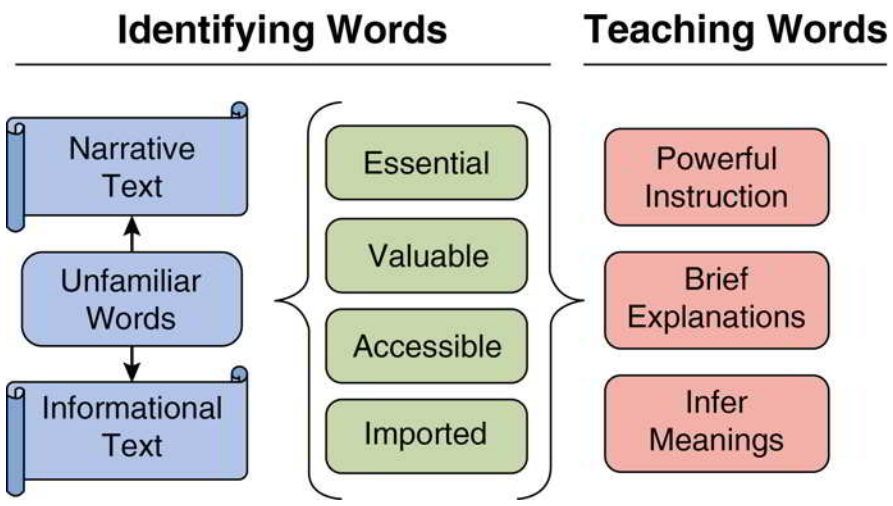
presented in Chapter 14. In one lesson, we share details of teaching an informational text about earthquakes, and the other lessons show how to scaffold the reading of a narrative story.

Selecting Words for Instructional Text: The SWIT Procedure

Although there are some situations in which you may teach words from a specific list, particularly with younger children or ELs, for the most part, you are likely to be selecting words to teach from the selections students are reading. Here, we discuss an approach called Selecting Words from Instructional Text or SWIT (Graves et al., 2014). Two beliefs underlie this approach. One is that the principal goal in teaching the vocabulary from a selection of students is to support their comprehension of the selection and, particularly with informational text, to support their understanding of a particular subject matter. The other underlying belief is that, while the differences between selecting vocabulary from narrative texts and informational text are relatively small, they are important to keep in mind, because, the use of informational texts has become more common in many classrooms.

In describing the SWIT approach, we will first discuss some types of words to teach, next consider how many words to teach at one time, then briefly describe four levels or intensities of instruction, and finally give examples of the SWIT procedure with upper elementary students reading a narrative text, primary grade students reading an informational text, and high school students reading an informational text. Key processes of the SWIT approach are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Key Processes of the SWIT Approach



SOURCES: Used with permission of Graves et al. (2014). Words, words, everywhere, but which ones do we teach? The Reading Teacher, 67 (5), 333–346.

Types of Words to Teach

There are four types of words to teach, each of which is described here.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

ESSENTIAL WORDS

Essential words are *crucial for understanding the text students read*. In narrative texts, these words often help readers understand the central story elements, characters, and their actions. Essential words in narratives often appear only once or a few times in a given text. In Andrew Clements' *Frindle*, for example, typically read in this upper-elementary-grades book, essential words might include *troublemaker, dictionary,* and *launch*. Essential words in informational texts are necessary for understanding the text's content and key concepts in the content area it represents. These words are likely to be conceptually complex and are often repeated several times in the text because the concepts they represent are discussed repeatedly. In Jay Winik's *April 1865,* for example, which might be read in a history class, essential words include *confederacy, abolition,* and *reunification*. Without understanding the meanings of essential words, students' comprehension and learning from text will be significantly impaired.

WIDELY USEFUL WORDS

These words have broad utility for students' reading and writing and thus matter beyond the selection students are currently reading. Some of the words listed as Essential, for example, *dictator* and *totalitarianism*, would be considered Widely Useful if they were not essential to understanding the selection students were reading. Widely Useful words are identified not only in relation to the text itself and their prevalence outside the text but also in relation to the students' vocabulary sophistication. For example, Widely Useful words from a text for tenth-grade students would be quite sophisticated, such as *inhospitable* and *perplexing*. Widely Useful words from a text for sixth-grade students would likely include some fairly complex words used by advanced language users, such as *discord* and *inevitable*. And Widely Useful words from a text for second-grade students would include words not likely to be known by many second-graders, but they would be of higher frequency than the Widely Useful words identified for sixth-graders, such as *accommodate* and *reconcile*.

MORE COMMON WORDS

These are higher-frequency words that are unlikely to be understood by students with limited vocabulary. More Common Words must be taught to students whose vocabularies lag significantly behind their age- or grade-level peers because of limited exposure to sophisticated language, fewer world experiences, limited prior knowledge, or because they are learning English as a second language. These students need to acquire More Common Words to accelerate their vocabulary growth. These words are not the most common in our language—for example, they are less common than the 220 Dolch Sight Words—but developing language learners need to learn them to understand most written texts. Examples for ELs or other students who have mastered basic words but still have limited vocabularies might include words like *consider* and *recent*.

IMPORTED WORDS

These are words that enhance a reader's understanding, appreciation, or learning from a text but are not included in the text itself. For narrative texts, imported words may capture key thematic elements (e.g., *prejudice*) or address important character traits (e.g., *gullible*); for informational texts, they may connect to or enhance key concepts presented in the text (e.g., *democracy, environmentalism*). Carefully selected Imported Words will help students analyze and extend what they learn from the text.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves.
Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

How Many Words to Teach

Deciding how many words to teach is often challenging because many selections contain more words than you have time to teach. Moreover, there is a limit to how many words you can teach, or how many students can learn. Generally, when teaching something the length of a short story or chapter, most teachers suggest teaching no more than ten words. Most formal instructional studies we are aware of taught about ten words per unit, which typically lasted about a week. Still, because students need to learn about 3,000 words per year, teach as many as is reasonable. You can increase the number of words students learn by teaching words across all content areas, not just in reading and language arts; by suggesting words or sets of words students can learn on their own; by teaching word-learning strategies thoroughly and repeatedly encouraging students to use them; by immersing students in rich and varied language experiences; and by fostering students' word consciousness.

Types or Intensities of Vocabulary Instruction

Because there are typically more words to teach than time to teach them, vocabulary instruction should be the least intensive, most efficient form necessary to provide students with the knowledge they need to understand word meanings and comprehend the texts containing those words. Here are four types of vocabulary instruction: (a) Providing Rich Instruction on specific words whose meanings are complex and essential to comprehending the text, (b) Providing Introductory Instruction for words that have clear-cut definitions or are not essential to comprehending the text, (c) Giving students glossaries for words that you do not directly teach, and (d) Suggesting words for students to learn independently, perhaps using context, word parts, or dictionary skills.

In summary, the process of selecting which words to teach and how many, as well as the nature of instruction, involves considerable judgment and decision making on the part of teachers. We illustrate this decision-making process and further describe the SWIT approach in the following section. Graves, et al. (2014) provides examples of SWIT applied to a primary-grade informational text and a secondary-school informational text.

Using SWIT with an Upper Elementary-Grade Narrative Text

Jacquelyn, a fourth-grade teacher, has her students read a selection each week from their literature anthology and participate in small discussion groups. This week, the common selection is an excerpt from the classic Newbery Medal-winning *Island of the Blue Dolphins* (O'Dell, 1960). This short novel tells the story of Karana, a young Indian girl who was left alone on a beautiful but isolated island off the coast of California for 18 years. Over that period, Karana survived, showed great courage and self-reliance, and found a measure of happiness in her solitary life. In the excerpt the class will read, Karana attempts to paddle to the mainland but must turn back when her canoe begins to leak. Jacquelyn uses the SWIT process to identify and teach words from this *Island* excerpt.

1. **Identify Unfamiliar Words:** Jacquelyn reads the selection carefully, underlining those words she believes are likely to be unfamiliar to many of her students. She identifies 15 words as potentially unfamiliar: *advice, ancestors, befall, calm, faint, fortune, headland, kelp, lessened, omen, pause, pursued, sandspit, serpent, skirted.* She then creates a chart like the one shown in Figure 2, listing these words in column 1.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 2 Categorizing Types of Words and Determining Types of Instruction

	Type of Word			Type of Instruction				
	Essential	**Widely Useful**	**More Common**	**Powerful**	**Introductory**	**Provide Glossary**	**Handout List**	**Ignore**
1. advice	✔			●				
2. ancestors	✔			●				
3. befall		✔			●			
4. calm			✔		●			
5. faint		✔			●			
6. fortune	✔				●			
7. headland							●	
8. kelp							●	
9. lessened							●	
10. omen	✔			●				
11. pause			✔		●			
12. pursued	✔				●			
13. sandspit							●	
14. serpent							●	
15. skirted							●	
Imported Word	determination							

2. **Identify the Four Types of Words to Teach:** Jacquelyn returns to the chapter and determines which of the 15 words are Essential, Widely Useful, or More Common, and decides whether to add any Imported words. In doing so, she tries to think like the fourth-graders in her classroom—who have varying levels of vocabulary, reading ability, linguistic facility, and prior knowledge—to identify the words that will best facilitate their comprehension of the reading selection and general vocabulary development.

ESSENTIAL WORDS

Jacquelyn first focuses on words whose meanings students need to understand the selection. She considers central narrative elements and O'Dell's portrayal of Karana. For example, she determines that the words *advice* and *ancestors,* which appear in the following passage, are necessary for students to understand Karana's cultural heritage and motivation to leave the island.

> I remembered how Kimki, before she had gone, had asked the *advice* of her *ancestors* who had lived many ages in the past, who had come to the island from that country, and likewise the *advice* of Zuma, the medicine man who held power over the wind and the seas [italics added]. (pp. 57–58)

In contrast, Jacquelyn decides that students' comprehension of the chapter would not be impaired if they did not know the word *serpent*, which O'Dell uses simply to name a constellation Karana saw. After reviewing the excerpt, Jacquelyn decides that the following five words are Essential: *advice*, *ancestors*, *fortune*, *omen*, *pursued.* Jacquelyn places checks (✓) in the Essential words column of her chart.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

WIDELY USEFUL WORDS

Jacquelyn reviews the chart, looking for unfamiliar words that, although not essential for comprehending the selection, are Widely Useful for students to know long-term reading and writing development. Jacquelyn decides that two words are widely useful (*befall* and *faint*) and places checks in the widely useful column of the chart.

MORE COMMON WORDS

Jacquelyn next determines which of the remaining words are More Common words that are unlikely to be understood by her students, who have limited vocabularies, particularly the English learners. She determines that two words fall into this category (*pause* and *calm*) and places checks in the More Common column of the chart.

IMPORTED WORDS

Jacquelyn recognizes that the theme of the *Island* excerpt centers on Karana's determination to overcome the obstacles she faced as she attempted to paddle from the island to the mainland. Therefore, she decides to teach *determination*, which she writes in the Imported row at the bottom of her SWIT chart.

3. **Determine the Optimal Type of Instruction:** Having chosen which words to teach, Jacqueline next determines which of the four forms of instruction is best suited for each word. She does this by considering (a) how abstract or concrete each word is; (b) which of the four types of words it is, making sure that Essential Words are taught in a way that ensures students learn them well; and (c) whether her students can determine the words' meanings independently.

   Applying these criteria, Jacquelyn determines that four words—the Essential Words *advice, ancestors,* and *omen* from the selection, and the Imported word *determination*—will require Powerful Instruction, and that six words—*befall, calm, faint, fortune, pause,* and *pursued*—can be taught using Introductory Instruction. She places a • in the appropriate Type of Instruction column in the table. In total, she will directly teach ten words. This leaves six words she identified as unfamiliar—*headland, kelp, lessened, sandspit, serpent,* and *skirted*. She decides that her fourth-graders can learn these words independently and places a • in the Handout List column on her chart. Her completed list is shown in Figure 2.

IMPLEMENT VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

At this point, Jacqueline provides Rich Instruction for the four words she has identified as needing it and Introductory Instruction for the six words she has decided can be taught using a less time-consuming approach. Several possibilities for each of these types of instruction are described in detail in Chapter 5. She also hands out the list of the remaining six unfamiliar words, telling students to use their context, word-part, and dictionary skills, or each other, to be sure they know the words' meanings.

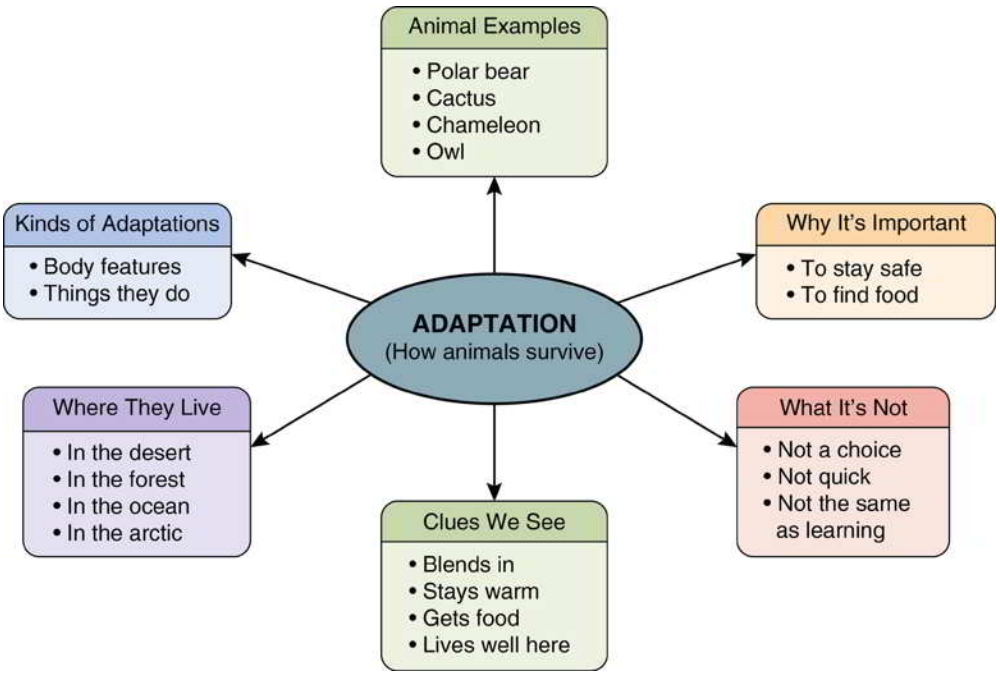
In addition to initially teaching these words, Jacqueline plans a variety of review activities. It is essential that students repeatedly see, use, and review all new words.

Semantic Mapping

Semantic mapping (Heimlich & Pittelman, 1986; Johnson & Pearson, 1984) is a widely used and effective method for teaching new concepts—if the concepts are not too difficult and students already have at least some information about them. It is also useful in pre-teaching unknown words to improve students' comprehension of a selection. It works particularly well because focus is not only on the word being taught but also on related words and on the part the word plays in the selection.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 3 Clue Web: An Example for the Word *Adaptation*



Semantic mapping uses a graphic organizer that resembles a spider web. Lines connect a central concept to a variety of related ideas and events. Figure 3 shows a semantic map of the word *"adaptation."* You and your students might create a map such as this before or after reading a science chapter on ecosystems. You might start with a simple semantic map before students read and then expand it after reading.

Purpose

- To enrich and clarify students' existing knowledge of a concept by having them identify categories of ideas and events related to that concept.

Procedure

- Put a word representing a central concept, such as *adaptation,* on the whiteboard.
- Have students form groups, brainstorming as many words as they can think of related to the central concept.
- Write students' words on the whiteboard, grouped in broad categories.
- Have students name the categories and perhaps suggest additional ones.
- Discuss with students the central concept, the other words, the categories, and their interrelationships.

Vocabulary Lesson: Using Context Clues to Infer the Meanings of Unknown Words

Using context clues to infer the meanings of unknown words is the first word-learning strategy to consider because it is the most important. Most words are learned

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 4 Overview of a Unit on Context Clues

DAY 1 Introduction and motivation to using context to infer meaning using a video	**DAY 2** Introduction to using context clues to infer word meanings and to the four-step strategy	**DAY 3** Detailed instruction in the first two steps of the strategy: Play and Question and Slow Advance	**DAY 4** Detailed instruction in the second two steps of the strategy: Stop and Rewind and Play and Question	**DAY 5** Game in which students earn points for using the four-step strategy to infer word meanings
DAY 6 Review using context clues and the four-step strategy.	**DAY 7** Guided practice—and further instruction if necessary—in using the four-step process with teacher provided narrative texts	**DAY 8** Guided practice—and further instruction if necessary—in using the four-step process with teacher provided expository texts	**DAY 9** Guided practice—and further instruction if necessary—in using the four-step process with authentic texts currently being used in the class	**DAY 10** Review of using context clues and the four-step strategy Student–teacher planning on strategically using and learning more about context clues

from context, and even a small increase in students' proficiency in learning from context can greatly increase the number of words they learn. Therefore, it is vital that we provide students with rich, and effective instruction on using context clues. Providing such instruction requires a good deal of time and effort on the part of both teachers and students. The instruction outlined here spans ten 30–45-minute sessions. A sample schedule is shown in Figure 4. In what follows, we describe the first two days of instruction in some detail and then, much more briefly, describe the rest of the unit. The instruction is presented as it would be to students in the upper elementary grades. With younger or older students, the language and examples would be adjusted accordingly. (Lesson adapted from Michael F. Graves, *The Vocabulary Book: Learning and Instruction*: Teachers College Press. Reprinted by permission of the publisher. All rights reserved.)

Day 1: Introduction and Motivation

Because learning to use context clues is a demanding task, the teacher introduces the unit with a motivational activity designed to both gain students' interest and help them relate the task of using context clues to infer word meanings to an activity they are familiar with—using the Internet.

She begins by telling students that over the next few weeks the class will be working on using context clues to figure out the meanings of unknown words they encounter while reading. She tells them that using clues to figure out what they don't know is something they do all the time, something they're good at, and something that is fun. Then, she tells them that they'll begin their study of context clues by viewing a brief video of a place they might know, and that their job is to look for clues to identify what the place is.

Just before showing the video, the teacher asks the students to write down a list of things they see in the video. She asks a few students to read their list.

> "Was everyone able to get all of the information they needed to answer the questions after watching the video once? Did you catch all that the tour guide said? What would help you figure out even more of the answers?"

Students will almost certainly say that they could learn more if they could watch the video again. If they don't, the teacher points this out and then replays the video.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

After this, she asks for a volunteer to identify the place described in the video, which is Hawaii.

Next, the teacher asks students what clues suggest it is Hawaii. Likely responses include "Hawaiian music," "palm trees," "the beach," and "tropical fruits." The teacher writes these clues on the Clue Web and compliments students on their efforts. Then, she challenges them to identify additional clues that this is Hawaii and replays the video as many times as students request.

The teacher concludes the introductory lesson by noting that finding all the clues and determining that the place shown in the video was Hawaii required hard work and persistence, that each time they viewed the video again they found more clues, and that this same sort of sleuthing is what they need to do when they are trying to figure out unknown words they encounter while reading. She goes on to say that beginning tomorrow they will learn a particular strategy for figuring out the meanings of unknown words they come across. She notes that they will find the strategy is a lot like the approach they used to figure out that the place shown in the video was Hawaii.

Day 2: Introduction to Using Context Clues and the Four-Step Strategy

The teacher begins Day 2 with a brief review of what the class did on Day 1, then quickly moves to the day's topic, learning a strategy for determining the meanings of unknown words encountered while reading.

> "Today, we're going to learn a strategy for using clues to figure something out. But this strategy will not be used to figure out which place is shown in a video. Instead, it will be for figuring out the meanings of unknown words that we meet when we're reading."
>
> "Actually, we won't exactly be 'figuring out' meanings. Instead, we'll be 'inferring meanings.' The strategy is called 'inferring word meanings from context.' When we infer something, we make an educated guess about it. When we infer word meanings from context, we make educated guesses about the meanings of the words. The context in which we find a word doesn't usually tell us the exact meaning of a word, but it often gives us a good idea of the word's meaning, and that is often enough to understand what we are reading."

At this point, the teacher displays a large, colorful poster showing the name of the strategy and the four steps, then begins discussing the strategy. A sample poster is shown in Figure 5.

"Do you recognize this strategy?"

Several students note that they recognize it as the video strategy they worked on the day before.

> "Right. This is the same strategy we used yesterday, but now we are applying it to figuring out unknown words we encounter in reading rather than to figuring out an unknown place we see in a video. Here's how it works."
>
> "As you can see, the first step in the strategy is Play and Question. That means you read carefully, always asking yourself whether you understand what you are reading. Also ask yourself, 'What is this paragraph about?'"
>
> "Then, when you come across a word you don't know, you move to the second step—Slow Advance. At this point, you slow down, read the sentence

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 5 Four-Step Strategy for Inferring Word Meanings from Context

and ?	**Play and Question**
	• Read carefully. • Frequently ask yourself, "Does this make sense?"
	Slow Advance
	• Notice when you don't know the meaning of a word and slow down. • Read that sentence at least once more, looking for clues. • Ask yourself, "What is this paragraph about?"
and	**Stop and Rewind or Fast Forward**
	• If necessary, go back and reread, looking for clues that help you figure out what the word might mean. Read ahead to look for clues.
and ?	**Play and Question**
	• When you figure out what the word might mean, substitute your guess for the difficult word and see if the sentence makes sense. • If it does, keep reading. • If it doesn't, stop, rewind, and try again.

at least once more to look for clues to the word's meaning, and see if you can infer its meaning."

"If you can infer the word's meaning by rereading the sentence, that's great. You continue to read. But if you can't infer the word's meaning from rereading the sentence, it's time to move to the third step of the strategy—*Stop* and *Rewind* or *Fast Forward*. At this point, you stop, go back, and reread the sentence or two that come before the one with the unknown word, again looking for clues to the word's meaning. Then you might *Fast Forward* and read a sentence or two beyond the difficult word to see if the added information helps."

"If you can now infer its meaning, excellent! You can move on to the fourth step of the strategy, Play and Question. This time, Play and Question means trying out the word you inferred. Substitute your educated guess for the word you didn't know and see if that works. If it does, keep on reading. If it doesn't, you'll need to stop and rewind again, ask someone about the word, look it up in the dictionary, or simply continue to read, understanding the passage as well as you can without knowing the meaning of the word."

"I know that all of this sounds pretty complicated. Using context clues to infer the meanings of unknown words is going to take some work. But the work is well worth it because learning to use context clues helps make you an independent and powerful reader, a reader who can read anything because you know what to do when unknown words come up."

SAMPLE TEACHER–STUDENT DIALOGUE

Shown below is a sample dialogue in which the teacher and the class work together to infer the meaning of a difficult word.

Teacher: Much like we did with the video, we are going to take a small section of a book and make sure we understand it before moving on. I will read a paragraph aloud *(give students a copy)* and then stop to check that everyone understands the words and ideas. The book is *The Phantom Tollbooth* by Norton Jester. As you will see, the story is set in a very strange place. Here is the paragraph we're going to work with.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

"A-H-H-H-R-R-E-M-M," roared the gateman, clearing his throat and snapping smartly to attention. "This is Dictionopolis, a happy kingdom, advantageously located in the Foothills of Confusion. The breezes come right off the Sea of Knowledge and gently cool the foothills. In this kingdom, we don't have the cold temperatures like at the top of the mountains, nor the rain that the other side of the mountain gets."

Teacher: This gateman is welcoming the main character, Milo, into his city of Dictionopolis. Notice that Foothills of Confusion and Sea of Knowledge are capitalized. What does that tell you?

Students: They're proper nouns. They're names of places.

Teacher: Exactly. Knowing what sorts of words are capitalized will help you understand this section. Did everyone understand the paragraph completely? If we don't understand everything, what could we do?

Students: Reread it. Read it again. Read it slower. Ask ourselves questions as we are reading it.

Teacher: Good thinking. You came up with two of the steps to our strategy, Slow Advance and Stop and Rewind. Let's use those two steps now. As I reread the sentence, I listen for words that I don't know.

The teacher reads the paragraph aloud again.

Teacher: Were there any difficult words in that sentence? If so, what were they?

Students: Advantageously.

Teacher: Let's highlight that one. Now, let's reread just the sentence that *advantageously* is in and the one after it. We don't need to reread the whole thing every time, just the section we're focusing on.

The teacher rereads just the one sentence.

Teacher: Does *advantageously* sound like a positive thing?

Students: It does to me. It says that it is a happy kingdom. I think that it has a positive meaning.

Teacher: What are some of the things the paragraph tells us about this kingdom?

Students: That it gets nice breezes off the sea. It's not as cold as the mountain peaks and it's not as rainy as the other side of the mountain.

Teacher: Would that make it a pleasant place to live?

Students. Yes. It's nice to have a breeze. It's also good that it's not too cold. And being not so rainy is a good thing, too.

Teacher: What is the word *advantageously* describing?

Students: Where this city is located.

Teacher: That's right. The city is located in an advantageous place. What do you think that *advantageous* could mean?

Students: Nice?

Teacher: Let's add an -ly to that because our unknown word had an -ly. Then, let's write *nicely* above the word *advantageously.* Now, we should reread the paragraph with our replacement word to see if it makes sense. This time, while I'm reading, ask yourself if you understand what sort of place the story takes place in.

The teacher crosses out *advantageously* on the overhead and replaces it with *nicely.*

Teacher: What do you think? Did *nicely* fit in the sentence OK? Does the sentence make sense now?

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Students: Yes. It does make sense. Dictionopolis sounds like a good place to live.

Teacher: I agree. I think that we now have a better understanding of the whole paragraph because we understand the word *advantageously* better. That's what learning to use context to infer word meanings can do. It can help us learn words, and it can help us better understand what we read.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

In addition to the guided practice illustrated in the teacher–student dialogue, each session from the second day of instruction includes independent practice. In this first independent practice activity the teacher gives them a brief paragraph with some difficult words, asks them to read it several times and mark any words they don't know or are uncertain about, and tells them they will discuss it the next day using the context clue strategy. As instruction continues, the guided practice portions of the lessons will become much shorter, and the independent practice sessions will become longer and more challenging.

REVIEW AND QUESTION SESSION

Each session ends with a review and question period. The teacher reviews what students have learned that day and throughout the unit, primarily by calling on students to recap their learning. Each session also gives students an opportunity to ask questions and get clarification on anything they are uncertain about.

The Remaining Eight Days of Initial Instruction

As shown in Figure 4, over the next eight days, the class receives detailed instruction on the four-step strategy, takes a break from the hard work with a game using the strategy, engages in guided practice with both narrative and expository texts, applies the strategy to authentic text, and plans for future use. The figure cannot show several important points: Increasingly, the students talk more and the teacher talks less. The students do more of the work. They take greater responsibility for the strategy and increasingly self-monitor and self-regulate their use of it. At the same time, the teacher is always there to support students' efforts, providing encouragement, scaffolding, and feedback as needed.

Transfer, Review, and Integration Activities

It is vital to recognize that this initial unit on using context clues, substantial as it has been, is only the first step in helping students become competent and confident users of this important strategy. In the weeks, months, and years after the initial instruction, students need extensive independent practice, feedback, brief reviews, and opportunities to use the strategy, reminders to use it, and motivation to do so. Only with such a long-term effort will students fully learn the strategy, internalize it, and make it a part of their approach to building their vocabularies.

Vocabulary Lesson: Using Prefixes to Unlock the Meanings of Unknown Words

Teaching students to use context clues is the most important word-learning strategy, but teaching them to use word parts is a close second. In fact, about half of the new words students encounter in their reading are related to familiar words. Once students can break words into parts, they can use their knowledge of those parts to

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

deduce meaning—if, of course, they understand word parts and how they function. Of the three types of word parts to consider teaching—prefixes, suffixes, and roots—prefixes are the most powerful elements to teach for the reasons shown below.

- There are relatively few prefixes to teach.
- They are used in a large number of words.
- They are consistently spelled.
- They appear at the beginnings of words, where they are easy for students to spot.

Here, we describe a procedure for teaching prefixes in detail.

Day 1: Introduction, Clarification, Motivation, and Overview

On Day 1, the teacher introduces the concept of prefixes and the strategy of using them to unlock the meanings of unknown words, motivates students by emphasizing the value of prefixes, and gives students an overview of the unit. It is particularly important to be sure that students understand exactly what prefixes and prefixed words are.

The teacher might say something like this: "Over the next few days, we're going to look at how you can use prefixes to help you figure out the meanings of words you don't know. If you learn some common prefixes and how to use your knowledge of them to understand words that contain those prefixes, you'll be able to figure out the meanings of many new words. And, as you know, figuring out the meanings of words you don't know in a passage is an important step in understanding the passage."

Next, the teacher asks students what they already know about prefixes, reinforcing correct information and gently noting when any information is not quite on target. It is critical that students have a clear understanding of prefixes, so the teacher follows the discussion with a presentation supported by a graphic image projected through a document camera. The teacher shares Figure 6 or 7 with the students.

This is a lot for students to remember—too much, in fact. For this reason, the teacher creates a condensed version of these points and writes them on a "Basic Facts about Prefixes" poster (Figure 6) or a shorter version in Figure 7. As the unit progresses, the prefixes, their meanings, and example words can be added to the poster.

At this point, the teacher asks students if they know any additional prefixes, prefixes beyond those they have already discussed. The teacher should be generally accepting of their answers, but (assuming that some responses are incorrect) note afterwards that some of the word parts given are not actually prefixes and that the class will continue to work on what is and what is not a prefix as the unit progresses.

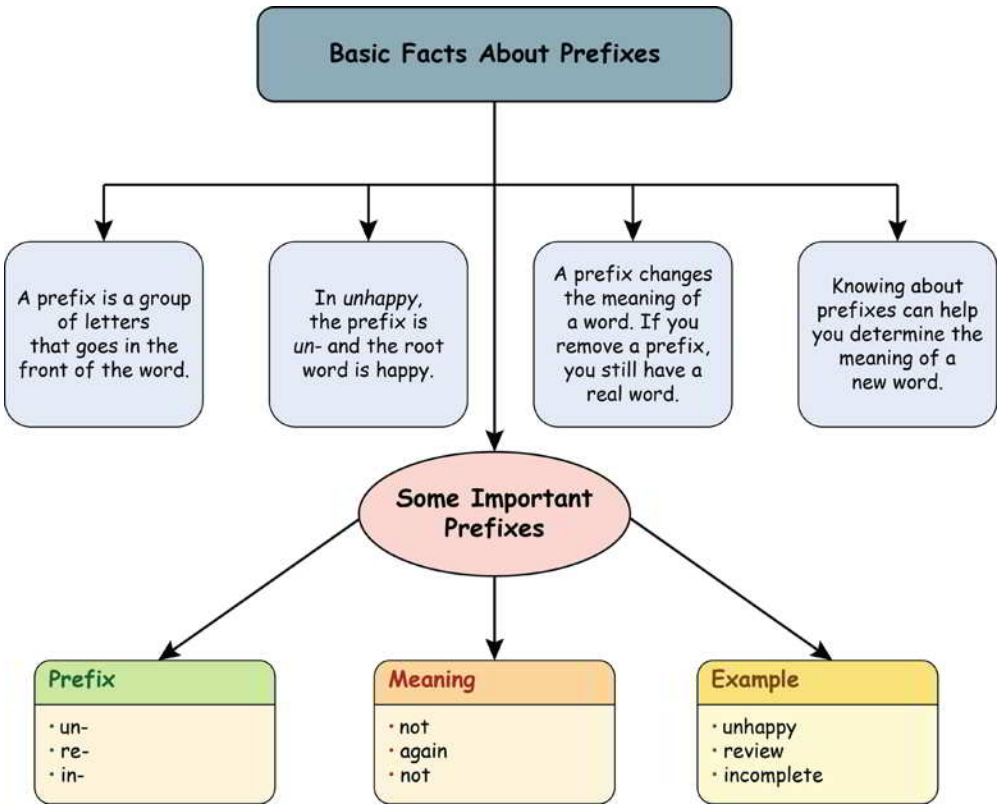
Figure 6 Prefix Transparency or Projection

BASIC FACTS ABOUT PREFIXES

- A prefix is a group of letters that goes in front of a word. *Un-* is one prefix you have probably seen. It often means "not."
- Although you can list prefixes by themselves, as with *un-*, in stories or other things that we read, prefixes are attached to words. They don't appear by themselves. In *unhappy*, for example, the prefix *un-* is attached to the word *happy*.
- When a prefix is attached to a word, it changes the meaning of the word. For example, when the prefix *un-* is attached to the word *happy*, it makes the word *unhappy*, which means "not happy."
- It's important to remember that, for a group of letters to really be a prefix, when you remove them from the word, you should still have a real word left. Removing the prefix *un-* from the word *unhappy* still leaves the word *happy*. That means it's a prefix. But if you remove the letters *un* from the word *uncle*, you are left with *cle*, which is not a word. This means that the *un* in *uncle* is not a prefix.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 7 Prefix Poster



Finally, the teacher introduces the three prefixes for study the next day—*un-* (not), *re-* (again), and *in-* (not)—putting them on the poster, asking students to copy them down, and asking each student to bring in a word beginning with one of the prefixes the next day.

Day 2: Instruction on the First Three Prefixes

At the beginning of the session, the teacher refers to the "Basic Facts" poster and briefly reminds students what prefixes are, where they appear, and why it is important to know them. The teacher then calls on students to share the prefixed words they have identified, jotting those that are actually prefixed on the board and gently noting that the others are not prefixed and will be discussed later.

After this, the teacher begins the standard instructional routine for teaching prefixes and prefix removal for three reasons. First, there is experimental evidence that it works. Second, using the same routine for teaching all prefixes allows students to quickly learn the procedure and then focus on the prefixes and how to work with them. Third, the suggested routine can serve as a model that teachers can use to create a complete set of materials for teaching prefixes and the strategy of prefix removal and replacement.

Next, the teacher tells students that today they will work with the three prefixes introduced the day before and learn how to use them to unlock the meanings of unknown words. The three prefixes are *un-*, meaning "not"; *re-*, meaning "again"; and *in-*, also meaning "not." In teaching these three prefixes, the teacher will use several types of materials—examples of each prefix, worksheets with brief exercises

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 8 Introductory Chart for the Prefix *re-*

THE PREFIX RE-

1. Tom was asked to rewrite his spelling test a second time.
   rewrite—to write again
2. Carmen had to repeat her joke because her grandfather did not hear it.
   repeat—to say again
3. After the heavy doors were battered by the enemy, the soldiers rushed to refortify their stronghold.
   refortify—to make strong again
4. The original movie had been a big hit, so they decided to remake it with some current stars.
   remake—to make again
5. If commence means "begin," then recommence means _____.

that require use of the prefix just taught, exercise sheets that require additional use and manipulation of each prefix, and review sheets on which students manipulate the three prefixes and the words used to illustrate them that day. On the back of the worksheets, exercise sheets, and review sheets, there are answer keys so students can immediately check their work.

Each exercise presents one prefix, illustrates its use with two familiar and two unfamiliar words, and includes each of the four words in a context-rich sentence. Below each sentence, the word and its definition are shown. Below these sample sentences is a fifth sentence that gives students a root word and requires them to generate the prefixed form of the word. The introductory examples for the prefix *re-* is shown in Figure 8.

Instruction begins with the teacher displaying the first sentence on the introductory chart and leading students from the meaning of the familiar prefixed word to the meaning of the prefix itself, as illustrated in the following dialogue.

Teacher: If Tom were asked to rewrite a test, what must he do?
Students: He has to take it over. He has to take it again.
Teacher: That's correct. Using your understanding of the word *rewrite,* what is the meaning of the prefix *re-*?
Students: Again. A second time. Over again.

The process is repeated with the next three sentences. With some prefixes, students can volunteer the response without difficulty. With others, they may need further prompting, in which case the teacher rephrases the sentence to add more clues. If students are still unable to respond after the prompting, the teacher provides the definition. After going through the first four sentences the teacher presents the fifth sentence, which defines the unknown root word and asks students to define the prefixed word.

After completing introductory instruction on the first prefix, students individually complete their check sheets while a student volunteer shares their responses. Part of a check sheet is shown in Figure 9. As soon as students finish their check sheets, the volunteer places their work under the document camera so all students receive immediate feedback on their work. If the volunteer has made an error, the teacher corrects it now.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 9 Part of a Check Sheet for the Prefix *sub-*

CAN YOU FIND IT?

A word or prefix is hidden in each line of letters below. Read the definition of the word or prefix. Then circle the word or prefix when you find it.

1. Find the prefix meaning "under" or "below"
   antidissubplegohnobitto
2. Find the word in each line that means:
   a. "underground railroad"
      shelaunomessubwaywathoning
   b. "to put under water"
      lasubmergersinthergerows
   c. "a plot beneath the main plot"
      thisenroutelesubplotrudiw
   d. "underwater boat"
      mopeitaqksubmarinetshowl

Figure 10 Part of a Review Sheet for the Prefixes *un-, re-*, and *in-*

REVIEW SHEET ON *UN-, RE-,* AND *IN-*

A. Match the prefix in the first column to its meaning in the second column.
   a. *re-* _____ not
   b. *in-* _____ again
   c. *un-* _____ not

B. Complete the following sentences with a word from the list below. You will not use every word.

   rewrite inaudible incomplete
   reconnect unhappy ungrateful

   1. Because Feng-Yi was in such a hurry to finish her test before the bell rang, her last answer was _____ .
   2. A nearly _____ cry escaped her as she hid behind the curtain.

These same procedures are then completed with the two remaining prefixes for the day—*un-* and *in-*. Following initial instruction on the three prefixes, the students complete a review sheet and immediately receive feedback by checking the answers on the back of the sheet. Part of a review sheet is shown in Figure 10. While students complete the review sheet, the teacher monitors their work and provides assistance upon request. This concludes the second day of the unit.

Day 3: Review the Prefix Strategy and the Remaining Three Prefixes

Day 3 begins with the teacher reviewing the basic facts about prefixes on the poster. Then students complete a review sheet covering the three prefixes taught the previous day and immediately correct their work.

Next comes another crucial part of the instruction—instruction in the prefix strategy. The teacher introduces the strategy by telling students that, now that they have worked with it and understand how useful prefixes can be in figuring out the

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 11 Prefix Removal and Replacement Poster

THE PREFIX REMOVAL AND REPLACEMENT STRATEGY

When you come to an unknown word that may contain a prefix:

- Remove the "prefix."
- Check that you have a real word remaining. If you do, you've found a prefix.
- Think about the meaning of the prefix and the meaning of the root word.
- Combine the meanings of the prefix and the root word, and infer the meaning of the unknown word.
- Try out the meaning of the "unknown" word in the sentence, and see if it makes sense. If it does, read on. If it doesn't, you'll need to use another strategy for discovering the unknown word's meaning.

meanings of unknown words, the teacher is going to teach a specific strategy for working with unknown words. The teacher titles the procedure "Prefix Removal and Replacement," emphasizing that it is a big name for an important idea.

The teacher then puts up the "Prefix Removal and Replacement Strategy" poster (shown in Figure 11), and talks students through the procedure with one or two sample prefixed words.

After this explicit description of the strategy and its modeling, the teacher tells students they will continue learning the meanings of prefixes and using the strategy today, tomorrow, and in future review sessions. The teacher then points out that students now have two posters to refer to when they encounter an unknown word that may contain a prefix—the "Basic Facts" poster and the "Prefix Strategy" poster. Finally, the teacher teaches and reviews the remaining three prefixes *(dis-, en-,* and *non-)* using procedures and materials that exactly parallel those used on Day 2. This concludes the third day of the unit.

Day 4: Review of the Information about Prefixes, the Prefix Strategy, and the Prefixes Taught

Day 4 begins with the teacher reviewing the four facts about prefixes, again using the "Basic Facts" poster. As part of the review, the teacher asks students a few questions about these facts to ensure they understand them and answers any questions students have.

Next, the teacher reviews the prefix removal and replacement strategy using the "Prefix Strategy" poster. After this, the teacher continues with the explicit instruction model, first modeling the strategy with two of the six taught prefixes and then using it collaboratively in a whole-class session with two more of the six prefixes. After this, the teacher divides students into small groups and provides guided practice by having the groups use the strategy with the final pair of prefixes. The teacher also has some of the groups share their work and findings, thus providing guided practice.

As the final activity of the initial instruction, small groups of students work together on a quiz. The quiz requires them to state the four facts about prefixes, outline the steps of the prefix removal and replacement strategy, and define the meanings of the six prefixes taught. As soon as students complete the quiz, they correct it in class to receive immediate feedback on their performance and then hand in the corrected quizzes so the teacher has this information to plan reviews.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Reviewing, Prompting, and Guiding Students to Independence

At this point, the instruction is far from complete. If we really want students to remember what a prefix is, recognize and know the meanings of some prefixes, and use the prefix-removal and replacement strategy when they encounter unknown words in their reading, reviewing what has been taught and prompting students to use the strategy while reading are crucial.

By reviewing, we mean formal reviews. Conduct the first review about a month after the initial instruction, the second two months after that, and the third, if it seems necessary, several months after that. Each review might last 30–45 minutes. Two somewhat conflicting considerations are important when undertaking these reviews. The first is that it does no good and, in all probability, does some harm to spend time "teaching" students things they already know. Thus, if at the beginning of a review it is apparent that students already know the material, the review should be very brief or conducted only for the small group who still need additional instruction.

By prompting, we simply mean reminding students about prefixes and the prefix strategy at appropriate points during reading. Thus, when students are about to read a selection that contains some unknown prefixed words, the teacher might say something like, "In looking through today's reading, I noticed some pretty hard words that begin with prefixes. Be on the lookout for these, and if you don't know them, try using the prefix strategy to figure out their meanings." This sort of prompting should probably be fairly frequent, as it can do a lot to move students toward independent use of the strategy.

Lesson adapted from "Teaching Prefixes: As Good as It Gets?" by Michael F. Graves. In J. F. Baumann and E. B. Kame'enui, *Vocabulary Instruction: Research to Practice* (2012) (pp. 81–99). Guilford Press.

Comprehension Materials

In this section of *Appendix B*, we present several lessons all focused on reading comprehension. First, you will find the role sheets that are essential for conducting literature circles, a discussion technique we presented in Chapter 12. Next, you will have two elaborated lesson plans for teaching students to make inferences and a second set of lessons that focus on inferring character feelings, traits, and motives. Third, we provided a detailed guide for conducting a Questioning the Author discussion, including guidelines for sustaining the discussion. Lastly, we have included a scaffolded reading experience for English learners.

Role Sheets for Literature Circles

We provide the following role sheets to implement Literature Circles in your class. Each sheet describes a role and must be introduced and practiced with the class. The role sheets outline the preparation required of the students. One student creates discussion questions, another identifies vocabulary words, and others reflect, critique, or summarize. Pick and choose the roles. A discussion director is essential, but you can vary the other roles based on the students' needs. Not all roles must be assigned for each discussion group but each group must have a discussion director. The roles are:

- Vocabulary Monitor
- Visualizer
- Connector
- Discussion Director: Questioner
- Critic
- Predictor
- Summarizer
- Character Cartographer

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Vocabulary Monitor** **P**urpose: Find, teach and discuss new and important words and/or phrases to the group.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Look for words and phrases we need to know. Write down the page numbers and the context clues for each word. Note why you picked these words.

Words or Phrases we need to know	Page #	Context Clues	Meaning, synonym, or example

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Choose one or more words to discuss.
2. Show the words and pronounce them correctly.
3. Give your reasons for choosing the words. How does each word contribute to your understanding of the passage?
4. Have everyone in the group find the word and read the sentences around it. Ask for a definition or speculation from members of the group.
5. Discuss how the context clues helped you determine the meaning of the words.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Visualizer** **P**urpose: To identify descriptive passages, visualize them and use visual images to improve comprehension.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Find passages with rich descriptions like strong use of adjectives, adverbs, concrete nouns, and explicit verbs. Note these passages and think of ways to bring them to light. You might draw diagrams, charts, pictures, cartoons, or maps.

The Passage and Page #	Why did You Pick This Passage?	What Image Does it Create in Your Mind?

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Read a passage with rich description.
2. Discuss why you picked it.
3. Share the image you created or what you pictured in your mind.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and responds to literature

Role**: The Connector** **P**urpose: To find important connections within the passage and connections to your experiences	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Look for and note important connections that can be made within and outside the text. Use the connection codes you have learned and write why each connection is important.

Within the Text		From the text to . . .	
S	**Sentence/idea connection**	**Me**	**How the story connects to me**
A	**Anaphoric Connection**	**T**	**Text to text connection**
C	**Causal Connection**	**W**	**Text to world connection**

Page # or Passage	Connection Code	Why Is the Connection Important

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Discuss the connections that you made.
2. Ask others what other connections they made while reading.
3. Discuss why all of the connections are important to understanding the story.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Discussion Director: Questioner** **P**urpose: To ask important questions that promote inferential and critical thinking.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

Look for parts of the story that raise questions about plot, character development, theme, and mood. Write questions that will help others in your group develop their understanding of the story.

Question Type	Source of Information	Clues
Right There	Answer is in the text	What, where, when
Think and Search	Answer is in the text, but the reader must think, search and infer	How and why
Author and You	The Answer is in your head, but you must read and think about the story.	How does the author How would the author
On My Own	Answer in your head and often you don't need to have read the story.	Suppose, what if

Page #	Question Type	Question

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Ask your questions and call on people to answer the questions. They should label the questions as they answer them.
2. Ask group members to ask their own questions during the discussion.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **The Critic** **P**urpose: To highlight parts that are important or interesting enough to share with the group.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

During Reading

1. Look for parts of the book that the group should share. Share passages that are:

- interesting
- confusing
- well written
- funny
- important
- thought provoking
- scary
- information
- controversial

2. As you read look for two passages, note their location and why you decided to share them.

Passage Location	Reason for Sharing	Plan for Sharing

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Share with the group at least one of your passages.
2. Tell the group why you are sharing that passage.
3. Ask other group members what passage they would like to share.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **The Predictor** **P**urpose: To help the group think along with the author and use text clues to determine what will happen next.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

Preparation

1. Look for clues that help the reader anticipate what might happen next. Look for some clues and then write down your prediction.

Passage Clues	What are your predictions for the next chapters?

After Reading – During the Discussion

2. Ask the group if the first prediction came true.
3. Ask the group to make a prediction or share yours.
4. Ask people to justify their prediction.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role **The Summarizer** **P**urpose: To help the group integrate what they have read and develop a concise understanding of the story.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

Preparation

Your job is to sum up what has been read. As you are reading, look for: 1. Changes in the setting; 2. Changes in the behavior of the main characters; 3. Resolution of problems and conflicts; 4. Development of new conflicts.

Your Summary

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Read or recite your summary.
2. Ask the group if there is anything we should add to the summary.
3. Ask people if there is anything we should leave out of the summary.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Literature Circles

Purpose: Develop independence in the use of comprehension strategies and respond to literature

Role: **Character Cartographer** **P**urpose: To help the group track the characters, their relationship to other characters, and how characters influence each other.	Name: _____ Book title: _____ Discussion of pages _____ Date _____

Preparation

Your job is to keep a list of characters. After each character's name write down their relationship to other characters, and how they influence each other.

Characters	Relationships	Influences/Interactions

After Reading – During the Discussion

1. Help to explain who the characters are and how they are related.
2. Point out the most important conflicts.
3. Discuss how some characters support each other.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Comprehension Lesson: Teaching Students to Make Inferences

Strategies are mental actions we use to understand and remember what we read. Inferences are the connections we make between ideas in the text and between the text and our prior knowledge. Both comprehension strategies and inferences build understanding. Described below are the first three days of a unit on making inferences as it might be presented to third-, fourth-, or fifth-grade students.

Day 1: Making Inferences Introduction

MOTIVATION AND INTEREST BUILDING (ABOUT 5 MINUTES)

Make a small chart on the whiteboard (Figure 12). Ask the students what toy or game they would very much like to have. Answers will vary, but Nintendo Switch or PlayStation 5 will most likely be included. Label these as goals. Then ask the students how they plan to acquire one. They might say they will ask for it as a birthday present, do odd jobs, or beg. Explain that these are strategies, actions we can take to achieve a goal.

Now switch the discussion to reading and ask, "What are your goals when you read?" Possible responses might include finishing the assignment, remembering new ideas, enjoying a good story, or learn new information. If students leave out any of these ideas, add them to the chart yourself. After you have established the goals, begin discussing strategies. "What are some strategies we use to achieve these goals?" Students' responses might include rereading a story, making notes, sounding out words, and so on. You might add other strategies you have studied, such as making predictions and asking questions. Explain that today the class will learn a new strategy called making inferences.

EXPLANATION AND MODELING (ABOUT 20–30 MINUTES)

Write the following sentence on the board and begin the discussion leading the students to understand what inferences are and how we make them.

> Mary looked at her menu, trying to find the cheapest entrée while John gazed lovingly in her eyes.

First ask, "Where are John and Mary?" Almost all students will infer that they are in a restaurant, but your goal is to discover how that inference is made. Ask the students what clues in the sentence indicate that John and Mary are in a restaurant.

Figure 12 Just What Is a Strategy?

	Your Goals	Your Strategies
Toys & Games	To have a Nintendo Switch or a PlayStation 5	Ask for it as a birthday present Do odd jobs Save up my allowance
Reading	To enjoy the book. To learn something To finish the book.	Read quickly Reread Take notes

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 13 Making Inferences Chart

Clues in the Text	Your Knowledge/Experiences	Inferences/ Conclusions
Menu, entrée	All restaurants I have been to have a menu, even McDonalds.	Mary and John must be in a restaurant.
Gazed, lovingly	That is how people look when they like each other. Love each other.	John loves Mary.

Most will focus on the word *menu,* and a few on the word *entrée.* Now that they have identified the text information needed to draw an inference, lead the students to examine their own experiences or knowledge, the second component of an inference. Ask the students, "Have you been to a restaurant?" "Do all restaurants have menus?" "Does your mother hand you a menu before dinner at home?" As these questions are discussed, explain that we make an inference by considering text clues and our prior knowledge to add to a text what the author has left out. Enter the students' responses on the "Making Inferences" chart (Figure 13).

Briefly discuss why the author does not have to explain everything and why he can leave out the important fact that Mary and John are in a restaurant. He counts on the reader to add their knowledge and experiences to the text to complete what the author has omitted. We call this process *making inferences,* or *reading between the lines.* At times, we can infer how a character feels, what kind of person the character is or what causes a character to act or behave in a certain way.

Reveal more about how the strategy works by reading the next paragraph and discussing with the students what inferences they might make. Make sure that the students think about what the author did not explain, what was left out. Next, tell students to look for clues in the text and think about what they know or have experienced in their own lives.

> The team boarded the school bus and started out for the big game. If they won this game, they would be champions! Suddenly, fifteen miles from the site of the game, the bus broke down. There they sat, waiting. Nobody seemed to know what to do, and it was getting closer and closer to game time.

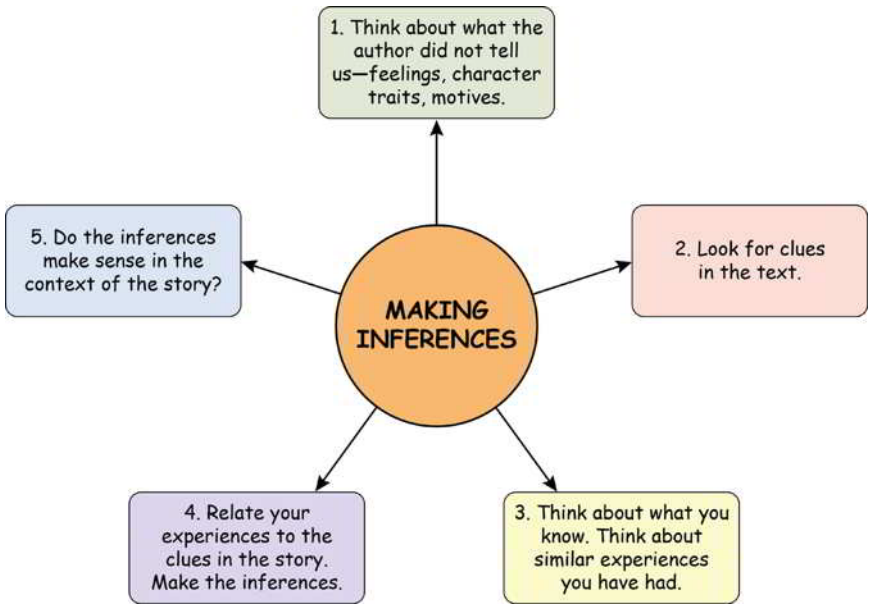
As the discussion about this paragraph develops, point out the salient text clues if the students do not. They should note that the bus has broken down, the students are going to an important game, and nobody knows what to do. If they don't point out these clues, you must. Next, ask the students how they might feel if they were trapped in a similar situation. Update the "Making Inferences" chart with text clues, the students' prior knowledge, and the inferences they have drawn.

Ask students to read the next paragraph and then work with a partner to discover what the author left unsaid. The goal is to discover the feelings, goals, or motives of the characters. Use the chart in Figure 13 to record the text clues and the students' personal experiences.

> Mario was smiling. There were cute little puppies lined up in cages and lots of goldfish swimming around in a huge tank. He could hear birds chirping,

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 14 Inference Anchor Chart



kittens meowing, and gerbils running on their little wheels. He had a big decision to make. His dad looked at him, smiled, and said, "Well, here we are! Are you ready for your new responsibility?" Mario's heart started beating faster. He was so glad Dad said yes to what he had wanted for so long!

End the lesson by introducing the anchor chart (Refer to Figure 14). At this time you will review what an inference is and the thinking process that most readers employ. Check to see if students were following you by asking a few students to explain the strategy and tell why it is important when they read.

Day 2: Large-Group Student Guided Practice (20 minutes)

Begin the lesson by asking the students to explain the strategy they were studying yesterday. Ask students to name the strategy, explain how to make an inference, and explain the importance of making inferences. Expand on the question of importance by exploring with the students when we make inferences. The discussion should focus on the following ideas.

- We make inferences when we sense that the author has left something out. Often it is about a character's feelings, traits, or motives.
- We make inferences when we add something to the text that helps the story make more sense.

Continue the discussion and have the students explain how we go about making inferences, using the inference anchor chart (Figure 13) as a guide. Remind them that the strategy of making inferences has several different names. At times it will be called "making inferences," others may call the strategy "drawing conclusions" and sometimes "making generalizations." The underlying thinking is the same. You need to read between the lines and think about what the author did not tell you. Next, you need to search for text clues and at the same time relate what you are reading to your own knowledge and experiences.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Then, using the following paragraphs, engage the students in a third round of making inferences. Have the students consider what the author might have left out. What can they infer about the characters, what they are doing, and what they are feeling?

> Billy was crying. His hands were scraped up and his knees were bloody. Grandpa said, "You have tried so hard today and you haven't given up! You know they say, 'Practice makes perfect.' I know you can do this." Billy stood up and let out a big sigh. "I know, Grandpa. But I'm getting tired." "How about two more tries and then we'll go get some ice cream?" "Okay, sounds good," Billy responded.
>
> He grabbed the handles, pulled on the button, and rang the bell. The tinkling sound always made him feel better. He slowly straddled the seat and put his left foot on the pedal. "Take your time," Grandpa warned. As he picked up a little speed, Billy put his right foot on the other pedal. He could sense Grandpa close behind him holding the seat. All of a sudden, he felt the wind blowing into his face. Grandpa let go and started clapping. Billy was doing it! He swallowed the lump in his throat and laughed out loud. Grandpa was right! The more you practice, the better you will get.

Add the students' comments to the "Making Inferences" chart in Figure 13. Be sure to discuss the clues in the text and the students' prior knowledge or experiences. Several more paragraphs for you to use with your students are included at the end of this lesson.

Day 3: Making Inferences with Real Text (20 minutes)

It is now time to apply the task of making inferences to the reading and comprehending of a real text, not just a few well-formed paragraphs. We can support students' inference generation by asking many inferential questions, but we should also help them discover these inferences on their own. For this next lesson, review all of the information on the inference poster. Students should have a decent understanding of an inference and the thinking process that underlies it. They should think about what the author has omitted, search for text clues, and relate their prior knowledge and experiences to the text.

PLANNING THE THIRD DAY LESSON

Planning is key to the success of helping students make inferences with texts such as short stories or novels. First, pick a text that demands that the reader make inferences—a text that demands that the reader think along with the writer. Next, read the selection twice, first to gain an overall understanding and second to determine what inferences will be necessary to fully comprehend the selection. Examine the text and determine whether you need to teach any vocabulary words to support the students' comprehension. Consider what prior knowledge you will need to develop before the students read and discuss the selection. Next, pick the points where students will stop reading to discuss portions of the selection. Finally, prepare the questions and prompts you will use to stimulate the inference generation process and encourage discussion.

INTRODUCE THE SELECTION AND DEVELOP PRIOR KNOWLEDGE

Begin the lesson by giving the students a brief preview of the reading selection and taking some time to develop their prior knowledge. Remember, if the students are to make inferences, they must draw upon their prior knowledge. So this portion of the lesson is critical to their success in making inferences. If, for example, the story is

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

about a boy wishing his father would take him fishing and the father is avoiding the idea at all costs, begin with a few simple questions.

1. What do you like to do with your parents?
2. Do your parents always do what you want them to do? How do you feel when they say no?
3. How do you get your parents to do what you want?

This discussion will build the knowledge that the students need to make the necessary inferences. Before reading, it is also important to teach a few of the critical vocabulary words that the students do not know.

READING THE SELECTION AND MAKING INFERENCES

Have the students read a portion of the selection and then stop to discuss it. Begin the discussion by asking the students to summarize what they have read. Ask, "What is the story about? What did the author tell us?" Next, begin the inferential thinking by starting with broad questions. "What did we learn about the character?" "What kind of person is Olivia?" "What did her words or actions tell us about her feelings or their character?" If these broad questions do not solicit the necessary inferences, then become more specific and focus on particular events and reactions in the story. Remember to ask students to search for important text clues.

When students have difficulty answering these inferential questions, it is important to take them into their own experiences. For example, if in the story the child repeatedly asks about going fishing, but the father has excuses and puts the son off, ask the following question: "How do you think that the son feels?" If the students struggle to construct an answer, remind them of their own experiences. "How do you feel when your parents don't do what you have asked?" Making the questions personal helps the students apply what they know and have experienced to answering the questions.

You will continue discussing the selection in this manner. When you have completed the discussion, review some of the important inferences that your students made. What have you and the students learned about the characters, their feelings, and their motivations? Consider what clues in the text helped you make these inferences and what prior knowledge was necessary to make these inferences. As you and the students continue to read and discuss short stories, picture books, and novels during the year, making inferences will always be an important strategy. Return to the poster whenever students need a review of the strategy.

Comprehension Lesson: Inferring Character's Feeling, Traits, and Motives

Reviewing What We Know About Making Inferences

Explain that we are studying how to make inferences, an essential reading strategy. Ask the students why it is necessary to make inferences while reading. Ask the students what kinds of inferences we have been studying. Perhaps they can think of an inference they made from their independent reading book.

Discuss that we make inferences for a number of reasons. First, the author is often incomplete, relying on us, the reader, to fill in what they only imply. Second, inferential thinking prompts us to make connections between ideas in the text that are essential for comprehension. Before we can connect to our experiences or to other texts, we need to connect the ideas in the text we are reading, constructing a complete understanding. Third, thinking inferentially leads us to read deeply and get beneath

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 15 Picture books that convey character feelings and traits

Character Feelings	Character Traits
• *Stellaluna*, J. Cannon • *Brave Irene*, W. Steig • *When Harry Slept Over* • *Sylvester and the Magic Pebble*, W. Steig • *Alexander and the Wind up Mouse*, L. Lionni • *Burnt Toast on Davenport Street*, T. Egan • *The Story of Ruby Bridges*, R. Coles • *My Rotten Redheaded Older Brother*, P. Polacco • *Alexander and the Terrible Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day*, J. Viorst • *Mirette on the High Wire*, E. A. McCully • *Grandfather's Journey*, A. Say	• *The Paper Boy*, D. Pilkey • *Dr. Desoto*, W. Steig • *The Story of Ruby Bridges*, R. Coles • *Frederick*, L. Lionni • *The Wednesday Surprise, E. Bunting* • *Grandfather's Journey*, A. Say • *The Big Orange Splot*, D. M. Pinkwater • *Your Move, E. Bunting*

the surface of the book. We can consider how a character thinks, how he changes, and how the choices and actions in a novel might mirror the choices we make in our lives. When we move beyond the plot, we learn to think and feel deeply.

Today we are going to study several kinds of inferences that we make when reading narrative fiction, biography and autobiography. We are going to learn to infer characters' feelings, traits, and motives.

Introducing the Inferences and Building Vocabulary

Use one or more picture books to introduce the concept of character feelings. Read the picture book and lead a discussion about the characters' feelings. Lists of picture books that feature one or more characters' feelings or traits are provided below. Keep reading these picture books to your students daily. They provide a rich source of examples of characters' feelings and traits. In Figure 15 we provide some picture book titles

As you read each of the books, label the characters' feelings and add them to a character's feeling chart you are developing with the students. I have provided a list of character feeling and character trait words later in the unit. It is important to move the students from *sad* and *happy*, *good* and *bad* to *troubled* and *elated* and *honest* and *devious*. Plan on reading several picture books during the first three days of the unit.

Character Feelings	
Negative	**Positive**
grumpy	jolly
lazy	energetic
disgusted	pleased
panicky	calm
uptight	relaxed
dizzy	silly
foolish	proud
testy	thankful
obnoxious	charming

Remember, learning to infer character traits and motives is a long-term vocabulary lesson. It is unlikely a reader can infer the concept of energetic unless they know the word.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Create a second chart for character trait words but recognize that these terms for character feelings and character traits can overlap. You can infer that a character is feeling *disgusted* or *uptight*, and these terms are also used to describe a character's traits. A character might be uptight and jolly throughout a text.

As each of the new words is introduced, do the following:

1. Re-read the sentences or paragraphs that helped us infer the character's trait or feelings.
2. Write the words on the Character Feelings chart.
3. Discuss the meaning of the words including synonyms and antonyms. Ask the students to share a time when you might have that particular feeling.
4. Ask two or more students to try out the new word in a sentence.

Explaining and Modeling How to Make Inferences

Explain that we are going to use the same process of making inferences that we used before, but now we are going to focus on making inferences about character traits, feelings and motives. Ask the students to describe the four-step process we used before. Remember the four steps to our thinking are:

- What did the author fail to tell us?
- What clues did he leave in the text?
- What do you already know?
- What inferences did you make?

Write or project the following paragraph on the whiteboard.

> Kit's face was red. He couldn't believe Jenny didn't tell the truth! Now he was in trouble for something he did NOT do. He sat outside the principal's office waiting for his name to be called.

The author counts on us to add our knowledge and experiences to the text to complete what the author has omitted. At times, we can infer how a character feels, what kind of person the character is, or what causes a character to act in a certain way.

Discuss the four questions or prompts on the chart, and with the students, complete the chart that is presented in Figure 16. You will use this basic chart often when you are discussing how to make an inference. In the process, remember to tell the students that they often must put themselves in the character's place. Imagine that someone lied at school about what you did or didn't do. How would you feel in this situation? If the students do not have words to label this feeling, supply one (furious, scared, desperate) and add it to the chart.

Write or project the following paragraphs on the whiteboard.

> "Boys, good news! Now that the school year has ended, you both have been accepted in new temporary-care homes starting this afternoon?"

Figure 16 The Process of Making Inferences

What didn't the author tell us?	What are the clues in the text?	What is your knowledge or experiences?	What inferences or conclusions can you reach?

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 17 Feelings, traits, and motives

Title _____		Character _____	
	Beginning of the book	**Middle of the book**	**End of the book**
Character's Feelings			
Character's Traits			
Character's Motives			

Jerry asked the same thing I was thinking. "Together?" She said, "Why, no, Jerry, you'll be in a family with three little girls . . ."

Jerry looked like he'd just found out they were going to dip him in a pot of boiling milk. (Curtis, 1999, p. 3)

Repeat the same analysis with this example from *Bud Not Buddy*. Practice with several paragraphs, as many as you feel are necessary, before shifting to short stories, biographies, and novels. For each paragraph, the students infer what the character is feeling. When the students suggest an imprecise word for a feeling—*sad, happy, scared*—introduce a more sophisticated and precise label for that feeling. They should also explain what clues in the text led them to their particular inference. For each passage the students need to make five responses. These are the responses:

- What did the author fail to tell us?
- What kind of inferences can we make?
- What clues did the author leave in the text?
- What inferences did we make?
- Do the inferences make sense?

Moving to Longer Authentic Text

The process of making inferences about character traits, feelings, and motives is ultimately applied to the reading and discussion of short stories, biographies, and novels. Because characters grow and change over time, students will gain much more experience by reading and discussing a novel as they track changes in characters' feelings and growth in their traits. (Refer to Figure 17.)

A strong, purposeful discussion will help the students make these inferences, a discussion like Questioning the Author. When the students are not discussing the novel, a graphic organizer like the one in Figure 17 will help them capture changes in a character's traits, feelings, and motives.

Comprehension Lesson: A Description of Questioning the Author (QtA)

Questioning the Author is a large- or small-group discussion procedure developed and validated by Isabel Beck and Margaret McKeown (Beck et al., 1996, 1997, 1998;

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

McKeown et al., 1996). As Beck and McKeown explain, it is "an approach to text-based instruction that was designed to facilitate building understanding of text ideas" (Beck et al., 1997). Beck and McKeown developed the procedures after several years of research on textbooks. They found that textbooks were difficult for students to understand because textbook authors assumed students had more prior knowledge of the topics than they actually did. This shortcoming was further compounded by students' assumption that the texts were absolute authorities and thus beyond question. When students read a text and did not understand it, they repeatedly saw themselves as totally responsible for their lack of understanding and failed to consider that the text itself might be at fault (of course not this text.)

Prompted by these findings, Beck and McKeown developed QtA with two ideas in mind: (1) to encourage and assist young readers in getting under the surface of the material they were reading, digging into it, and engaging with the ideas the texts presented, and (2) to assist students in realizing that textbooks are simply someone's ideas written down and that readers frequently need to work hard to figure out what the author is trying to say.

Their procedure for doing this is simple and straightforward. First, the teacher explains to children that texts are written by ordinary people who are not perfect, and that the texts they produce are not perfect either. Consequently, readers need to continually work hard to figure out what the authors are trying to say. QtA proceeds by having the class read a text together, with the teacher stopping at critical points to pose questions that invite students to explore and grapple with the text's meaning. The queries include initiating prompts such as "What's the author trying to say?" to get students started grappling with the text, follow-ups such as "What does the author mean by that?" to encourage them to dig for deeper meaning, and "How does that connect with what the author told you?" to encourage them to put ideas together. However, queries are not scripted, and teachers are encouraged to modify the suggested queries and make up their own to fit the students and texts with which they are working.

The key purpose of QtA is to build understanding from text. As Beck and McKeown note, understanding does not come from a casual reading of the text and the assumption that the author's meaning will somehow be absorbed effortlessly by the reader. Instead, understanding comes when the reader considers, manipulates, grapples with, and integrates information gleaned from the text with their existing knowledge. QtA engages students as they read the text for the first time, rather than after they have read or during a second reading. This is a very important characteristic of QtA and one that distinguishes it from many other questioning and discussion techniques. The goal of QtA is for students to have the experience of constructing meaning for text as they are reading, not to be told about what they might have experienced after the fact.

Another very important characteristic of QtA that distinguishes it from many other questioning and discussion techniques is that QtA discussions focus specifically on the text. QtA discussions are not wide-ranging conversations in which students are encouraged to share a variety of opinions and ideas. Instead, the discussion focuses on clarifying, collaboratively constructing meaning of, and ultimately understanding the ideas in the text they are reading. The teacher strategically uses QtA queries to direct the discussion toward that end. They are general probes with a very specific purpose—engaging students in grappling with and constructing meaning of the ideas in a text.

In the remainder of our discussion of QtA, we present a segment of a QtA session, consider queries in a bit more detail, explain the process of planning a QtA session, characterize the types of discussion you are trying to prompt with QtA, and suggest how you might introduce QtA to a class.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

A Sample: Questioning the Author Segment

The following classroom scenario, drawn from Beck and colleagues (1996, 1997), depicts a fifth-grade social studies class studying Pennsylvania history. The class has been working with QtA for some time and is quite skilled at contending with ideas in text. The class is discussing a text segment about the presidency of James Buchanan, a Pennsylvania native. The text indicates that many people believed Buchanan favored the South over the North because he held that it was a person's choice whether or not to have slaves. Following is the class discussion (McKeown et al., 1996).

FIFTH-GRADERS QUESTIONING THE AUTHOR

Teacher: All right. The paragraph Tracy just read is full of important information. What has the author told us in this paragraph?

Laura: Um, they, um, think that Buchanan liked the South better because they, he said that it is a person's choice if they want to have slaves or not, so they thought, um, that he liked the South better than the North.

Teacher: Okay. And what kind of problem then did this cause President Buchanan when they thought that he liked the South better?

Next, Janet gives her interpretation of how Buchanan's position on slavery might have affected the voters in Pennsylvania.

Janet: Well, maybe, um, like. less people would vote for him because. like. if he ran for President again, maybe less people would vote for him because, like, in Pennsylvania we were against slavery and we might have voted for him because he was in Pennsylvania, because he was from Pennsylvania. That may be why they voted for him, but now since we knew that he was for the South, we might not vote for him again.

At this point, the teacher summarizes Janet's remarks.

Teacher: Okay, a little bit of knowledge, then, might change people's minds.

Then, another student acknowledges Janet's explanation and offers some of his own thoughts.

Jamie: I have something to add on to Janet's 'cause I completely agree with her, but I just want to add something on. Um, we might have voted for him because he was from Pennsylvania so we might have thought that since he was from Pennsylvania and Pennsylvania was an antislavery state, that he was also against slavery. But it turns out he wasn't.

Finally, a third student acknowledges her classmates' thoughts and contributes her ideas to the developing interpretation.

Angelica: I agree with the rest of them, except for one that, um, like, all of a sudden, like, someone who would be in Pennsylvania, you want to vote for them but then they wouldn't, because Buchanan seems to be going for the South and then you wouldn't want to vote for them after that.

The scenario illustrates several key attributes of a QtA discussion. The students are indeed working together to construct the author's meaning. The teacher adroitly directs the discussion, but she does not dominate it. She leaves plenty of room for student input because the purpose is for students to understand the text; if they're the ones who will understand it, they're the ones who must do most of the talking and

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

thinking. The students respond at some length. Finally, they listen to each other and build on each other's responses as they jointly construct the text's meaning.

Queries

One way to begin to understand queries is to contrast them to traditional questions, with which we are more familiar. Beck and McKeown suggest three dimensions on which the two differ:

- First, traditional questions assess comprehension to determine whether students understand what they have read. Queries help students construct the meaning of the with ideas in the text, with the goal of helping them put ideas together.
- Second, traditional questions evaluate individual student responses and foster teacher-to-student exchanges. Queries "facilitate group discussion about an author's ideas and prompt student-to-student interactions."
- Finally, traditional questions are generally used either before or after reading. Queries are used online during the initial reading of the text.

As we have already pointed out, queries are not scripted and teachers are encouraged to adjust their queries to fit their students, the text, and the purposes in reading the text. Nevertheless, Beck and McKeown have identified a set of queries that are quite useful and serve to illustrate the nature of successful queries. These are shown in Figure 18.

These, of course, are general queries. When posed for a specific text, they become more specific. We have already seen specific examples of initiating and follow-up queries in the QtA segment on President Buchanan. Here, the teacher's initiating query and its lead-in were "All right. The paragraph Tracy just read is full of important information.

Figure 18 Some Questioning the Author Queries

INITIATING QUERIES

- What is the author trying to say here?
- What is the author's message?
- What is the author talking about?

FOLLOW-UP QUERIES

- So what does the author mean right here?
- Did the author explain that clearly?
- Does that make sense with what the author told us before?
- How does that connect with what the author has told us here?
- But does the author tell us why?
- Why do you think the author tells us that now?

NARRATIVE QUERIES

- How do things look for this character now?
- How does the author let you know that something has changed?
- How has the author settled that?
- Given what the author has already told us about this character, what do you think he (the character) is up to?

Adapted from SOURCE: Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Hamilton, R., & Kucan, L. (1997). Questioning the Author,p. 45. International Reading Association.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

What has the author told us in this important paragraph?" In the same segment, one of the teacher's follow-up queries was "Okay. And what kind of problem then did this cause President Buchanan when they thought that he liked the South better?

Narrative queries, a type we haven't yet discussed, are different from those used with informational text. They are used with narratives in addition to initiating and follow-up queries. A representative example of a narrative query comes from a teacher whose class was using QtA as they read George Seldon's *The Cricket in Times Square* (1970). In the part of the story students have just read, Mario Bellini's pet cricket, Chester, ate half of a two-dollar bill. This is a problem because two dollars is a lot of money to the Bellinis. Here is the next paragraph of the story.

> Chester Cricket sat frozen on the spot. He was caught red handed, holding the chewed-up two dollars in his front legs. Muttering with rage, Mama Bellini picked him up by his antennae, tossed him into the cricket cage and clicked the gate behind him. He half expected that she would pick him up, cage and all, and throw him onto the shuttle tracks.

After students have read the paragraph, the teacher poses this narrative query: "How do things look for Chester?"

As you can see from the sample queries and these examples, the purposes of initiating queries are to make the text's information public in the classroom and to get the discussion underway, while the purposes of follow-up queries are to keep the discussion focused and to assist students in elaborating and integrating ideas. The purposes of narrative queries are to focus students' attention on characters, the roles they play in the story, and the way the author is crafting the plot.

Planning

There are three steps in planning a QtA lesson:

- The first step is to read and study the text thoroughly to identify the major understandings you want students to achieve and the potential problems they may face in achieving them.
- The second step is to segment the text into short sections that are read and discussed before students move on to the next section. Sometimes a segment will be quite lengthy, perhaps a page or so. At other times, a segment will be relatively short; for example, the sample discussion we presented for the Buchanan text dealt with a single paragraph—"All right. The paragraph Tracy just read is full of important information. What has the author told us in this important paragraph?" At other times, a segment might be even shorter, covering a single sentence, as fifth-grade teacher Rona Greene tells us.
- Finally, in addition to deciding what is important in a text, what the likely stumbling blocks are, and how the text will be segmented for the discussion, you need to write down the queries. Although many queries will be modified or even discarded as the discussion proceeds, queries such as "What has the author told us in this important paragraph?" and "How do things look for Chester?" are planned in advance.

Introducing QtA

Introducing QtA is straightforward, but it is important to include several key points in your introduction. First, tell students that the way they will be reading and discussing text is likely different from how they have typically approached it. Next, tell

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

them that you and they will be reading and discussing short sections of text at some length. That is, they will read a segment of text, then stop to discuss what it means with their classmates. Explain that the reason they need to do this is that a text is simply somebody else's words written down, and that understanding what the author is saying often requires close attention to and a good deal of discussion of the text. Finally, note that your discussions will focus on the text and the meaning the author is trying to convey, rather than on broader matters.

Discussion

We have already given one fairly lengthy example of a QtA discussion and described the sort of discussions that QtA is designed to foster. To keep the discussion moving, you can try one of these six moves. These moves keep the students on track and talking.

1. *Marking*: When you mark a student's comments, you draw attention to them. Think of it as oral underlining. You rephrase what the student has said and perhaps expand it. *"Yes, you are right, the previous colony disappeared and they might be worried about their chances for survival.*
2. *Turning back*: When a student responds, you can turn the discussion back to the students for more information or suggest that they return to the text. *"I think you are on to something about the colonists in Jamestown. Now go back to the previous paragraph and see what else you can learn."*
3. *Revoicing*: Sometimes a student makes a comment that is not quite right, or fails to phrase it properly. Then it is important to rephrase the student's statement. This lets them know that they are partially correct. "*So, Jamestown was not a good place to live, but why did they choose it in the first place?"*
4. *Modeling*: Modeling occurs when you show students how you think through a passage, connect ideas, reach a conclusion, and make an inference. You are making your thinking public. *"I think that they chose Jamestown because it was by the water and it was easy to defend."*
5. *Annotating*: Sometimes, the student cannot make the connection or the interpretations we would like. Then it is the teacher's job to provide the information that the text lacks. *"Let's consider why the settlers in Jamestown may have had difficulty surviving. What were they trained to do?"*
6. *Recapping*: Recapping is summarizing. During the discussion, the teacher realizes that the students grasp the text, and the teacher pulls together everything they have learned. "*These are great ideas. All of you figured out why Buddy was sad to be going to a new foster home."*

These moves illustrate how a teacher rephrases and clarifies ideas and keeps the discussion focused as she guides students toward full understanding. "Students do the work. They construct the meaning, wrestle with the ideas, and consider the ways information connects to construct meaning." Thus, "the discussion becomes an opportunity for students to formulate complete thoughts, respond to the text, react to each other's ideas, and consider new notions" (Beck et al., 1997, p. 164).

The Impact of Using the Questioning the Author Procedure

Beck and McKeown and their colleagues have worked with QtA for several years and have gathered several sorts of data on its efficacy. First, they implemented QtA with two teachers who had been using a very traditional pattern of teacher-initiated

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

questions aimed mainly at retrieving information directly from the text and brief student responses that were quickly acknowledged before the next question was asked. A more recent study indicated that QtA helped students achieve greater comprehension than did a more strategy-focused discussion (McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009).

Scaffolded Reading Experiences for English Learners

The Scaffolded Reading Experience, or SRE, is an instructional framework that one of us (Mike Graves) has worked with for a number of years. The framework offers several options for providing pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading activities to support students as they read a selection. Although SREs can be designed for English-only students as well as for English learners, they can be very useful for English learners. The SRE below is taken with permission from J. Fitzgerald and M. F. Graves (2004) *Scaffolding Reading Experiences for English-Language Learners*. Christopher-Gordon.

A Very Supportive SRE on Seymour Simon's *Earthquakes*

This SRE uses the K-W-L procedure recommended by Donna Ogle (1986). K-W-L includes pre-, during, and postreading activities in which students actively consider what they Know, what they Want to know, and what they Learn.

Students: Fourth-grade students with low to average English-reading ability in an ethnically diverse classroom in California, including several English-language learners.

Selection: *Earthquakes* by Seymour Simon. This short, 32 page, informational book gives a dramatic photographic account of the causes and effects of earthquakes around the globe.

Reading Purpose: To learn about earthquakes, what causes them, what effects they have on people and property, and what might be done to prepare for them.

Overview

Students	Selection	Purpose
Day 1		
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Postreading**
Motivating and Relating Reading to students' lives (10 min.)	Reading to Students (5 min.)	Discussion (10 min.)
Activating Background Knowledge (10 min.)	Guided Reading (5 min)	Questioning (10 min.)
Prequestioning and Direction Setting (5 min.)		
Day 2		
Prereading	**During Reading**	**Postreading**
Prequestioning and Direction Setting (5 min.)	Guided Reading and Silent Reading (30 mins.)	Discussion (10 min.)
		Application—jigsaw groups (10 min.)

Adapted from SOURCE: J. Fitzgerald and M. F. Graves (2004) Scaffolding Reading Experiences for English-Language Learners. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

PREREADING FOR DAY 1
MOTIVATING YOUR STUDENTS

Goal of the Activity: To pique students' interest in a topic and activate their background knowledge.

Rationale: Describing an event in a way that requires students to infer what is happening can be an effective way to stimulate interest and introduce a topic at the same time. Having students then discuss their own experiences requires that they access relevant knowledge, which will help them build meaning from the text.

Procedure: Begin by describing a scenario similar to the following. "Imagine yourself in this situation. You are asleep in bed. Suddenly, the bed begins to move back and forth. Half awake, you say to the sibling in the bed next to yours, 'Stop shaking the bed.'" Ask students to explain what is going on. Tell students this was an experience you had with earthquakes and encourage them to talk about their own experiences.

ACTIVATING BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE—*WHAT I KNOW*

In this activity, students brainstorm to find out what they know about a topic and then generate categories of information that are likely to be found in the text they will read.

Goal of the Activity: To have students activate their prior knowledge about a topic and consider what information on that topic might be included in a specific text.

Rationale: Students who have lived on the West coast for some time are likely to have some knowledge of earthquakes. Activating this knowledge before reading can help establish a framework to aid them in understanding and remembering. If some of the English learners are unfamiliar with earthquakes, they can learn from their classmates.

Procedure: On the whiteboard, write the title *Earthquakes.* Then use the K-W-L procedure we introduced in Chapter 12. Draw or post the K-W-L chart and begin a discussion about what the students know about earthquakes. Jot their responses under the heading What I Know.

What I Know	What I Would Like to Know	What I Learned
Can cause damage Are unpredictable Are scary Happen in California Not all are the same Shake the Earth Don't happen at night Are getting worse.	What causes earthquakes? How are earthquakes measured? What places have earthquakes? What was the worst earthquake ever? Where do most earthquakes happen? What can we do about earthquakes?	
Types of Information I expect to Find		
How earthquakes happen Where they happen What can we do about them Why do they happen		

As you will notice, not all of the students' responses are accurate. During this brainstorming session, you might ask students various questions such as, "How did you learn that?" or "How could you prove that?" Later, during the postreading discussion, you can clear up any remaining misconceptions.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

After students have given a variety of responses, show them the cover illustration on the book *Earthquakes*. Ask them to think about the kind of information that might be included in the book and write their suggestions on the board to the left of their initial responses. Some of their suggestions might include: How earthquakes happen, where they happen, what we can do about them, how much damage they do, why they happen, and descriptions of some of the worst quakes.

Explain that informational books such as *Earthquakes* are written to give us information that we might need or want. Ask students to think about what they would like to know about earthquakes—things they don't already know or aren't quite sure of. Write their response on the K-W-L chart in the What I Would Like to Know column.

DURING READING FOR DAY 1
GUIDED READING—*WHAT I FIND OUT*

In this activity, students write down answers to the questions they posed prior to reading and then they consider which of their questions still need answering.

Goal of the Activity: To have students transform questions into answers and thoughts into writing.

Rationale: Having students search for answers to their questions requires active reading. Transforming what they learn into writing requires and promotes even deeper understanding. Having students go a step further and check what questions still need answering lets them know that the information an author chooses is selective and they may need to check other sources to get their answers.

Procedure: Direct students' attention to the last column of the K-W-L chart. Explain to students that this will be the last part of the K-W-L procedure—a procedure they can use when they read informational books and articles. The last step is to record what information they do learn.

POSTREADING FOR DAY 1
DISCUSSION—*QUESTIONS ANSWERED?*

In this activity, students decide which questions were answered in the text.

Goal of the Activity: To have students realize that, although a specific text may answer some of their questions, it may not answer all of them and they will need to seek other sources for some questions.

Rationale: To become critical thinkers and readers, students need to realize that, while our questions about a topic might be answered in a text, they also might not be. Authors have to be selective in what they include. What we may wish to know may not be in the scope of the text and, therefore, we need to consult others.

Procedure: Draw students' attention to the questions asked in the prereading activity.

Begin by asking students, "Was the first question, *'What causes earthquakes?'* answered in the first five pages of the book?" If students answer "yes," ask them to tell you, if they can, what the answer is and write that answer in the column *What I Found Out.* Proceed in a similar manner with each of the questions. If questions aren't answered, tell students that these questions still might be answered in the remainder of the text or that they may not be answered in this particular text at all and they will need to consult other sources for the answers.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

PREREADING FOR DAY 2
PREQUESTIONING AND DIRECTION-SETTING—K-W-L

In this activity, students deepen what they know about earthquakes by reading a variety of books and using the K-W-L procedure with a partner. Use a selection of texts from the school library like, Shake, Rattle and Roll: Exploring the Science of Earthquakes, The Big Questions: What Are Earthquakes, or All About Earthquakes (A True Book).

Goal of the Activity: To have students access their knowledge on a topic, think about what more they would like to learn about that topic, and better understand and remember the information that interests them most.

Rationale: Having students access appropriate knowledge before reading a text, posing their own questions, and writing down the answers to those questions can help them better understand and remember text material.

Procedure: Hand out K-W-L Chart to each student and ask students to explain how we used the chart yesterday. Supplement and expand what they leave out.

When students have their charts, review the three types of information they will record. First they will think about and record what they **know** about earthquakes, then write down what they **want** to know in the second column. As they read the book, they will write the answers to their questions or what they **learned** in the third column. Remind students of what they had done as a group the day before and explain that today they will have the opportunity to focus on their individual knowledge and interest in earthquakes and work with one other student as they read. Quietly invite each of your English learners to team up with a native English speaker.

Remind students that not all of their questions will be answered in the text. This might be a good opportunity to talk about other resources for finding answers if this particular text doesn't provide them.

Explain that when they finish they will get a chance to share what they learned about earthquakes.

POSTREADING ACTIVITY FOR DAY 2
DISCUSSION I—*WHAT DID YOU LEARN?*

Students meet in small groups to discuss what they learned from the text.

Goal of the Activity: To give students the opportunity to express their ideas to an audience and hear other students' ideas as well.

Rationale: Expressing themselves in an informal small-group setting gives students the opportunity to clarify their thoughts and also receive new information and insights from their classmates.

Procedure: After students have finished reading the text and have completed their K-W-L charts, have them meet in groups of 3–6, with no more than one or two English learners in any one group. Appoint a facilitator—perhaps an English learner—and a recorder for each group. In the groups, students take turns telling what their questions were, which ones were answered, and what the answers were. The facilitator's job is to make sure everyone gets a chance to speak and the recorder keeps an account of the questions that were *not* answered in the text.

DISCUSSION II—*RESEARCH IT*

The recorders from each small group discussion session report to the class what questions are still left to be answered and then each group takes a question to research.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Goal of the Activity: To have students work in small groups to check multiple sources in order to find answers to a question.

Rationale: As previously mentioned, students need to realize that finding the information they want sometimes requires searching in one or more additional sources. Working in heterogeneous groups to locate these sources and answers requires that group members support one another in their efforts. Learning to work cooperatively is a skill that is not only necessary in school, but in many aspects of life.

Procedure: After the groups have met to discuss what they learned in *Earthquakes*, have the recorders report to the entire class what questions their group members still have. Write these questions on the whiteboard. Have each group choose one question to research. That group is then responsible for finding the answer and reporting their findings to the entire class.

This may also be a good time to compare the statements students listed in the *What I Know* activity with what they actually did learn from the text. For example, one student had said, "They are getting worse." Ask students if the idea that earthquakes are getting worse was validated by the text. If the consensus is "no," the student who offered this initial comment may concur or perhaps decide to pursue independent research to try to confirm his statement.

Because this class is familiar with library research techniques, students need only be reminded at this time on how to proceed. This may require only a brief discussion to activate students' prior knowledge and review guidelines they might follow.

Adapting the Activity: The K-W-L activity can be used any time students' purpose for reading is to learn information. Students might use this procedure while reading content-areas textbooks, magazine articles, or any number of informational trade books. For example, a significant portion of the text can be read to the whole class before the students attempt to answer the questions they generated. In another adaption the students can listen to a recording of the text as they follow along in their book. Many texts now are available in audio versions.

Reflection: This SRE us based on the K-W-L teaching routine. *According to Ogle, K-L-W "helps students keep control of their own inquiry, extending the pursuit of knowledge beyond just the one article. The teacher is making clear that learning shouldn't be framed around just what an author chooses to include, but that it involves the identification of the learner's questions and the search for authors or articles dealing with those questions."*

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Appendix C: Test-Taking Lessons

High-stakes tests are mandated in every state, but their consequences have been somewhat mitigated in recent years. These tests still affect a school's reputation and the district's reading policy. They also impose considerable stress on teachers and students and consume instructional time. We have therefore provided a series of test-taking strategies for you to teach your students. We believe a short, well-focused unit on test-taking strategies is all your students need.

Reading Comprehension and Test Taking

The process of comprehension when reading for enjoyment or information changes when students take a test. Taking a test alters comprehension and requires strategies readers do not use in non-testing situations. As Rupp (2006) writes. "When people read in a non-testing context, they do not answer multiple-choice questions in their heads." Nor do they construct responses to open-ended questions.

The context and purpose of reading determine how we read. A recipe demands close, repeated reading to ensure that every step is carried out explicitly. Reading a novel is an aesthetic and emotional experience, with the reader gripped by the narrative. Close critical reading is rare when we read for pleasure. Rereading is more common with informational text when we search for information. Taking a test is a problem-solving experience in which rereading the text for evidence is continual and essential.

It is important for students to understand that taking a test is a distinct reading genre with new texts and a new purpose for reading. There are two parts to test-taking. First is reading the text, and second is answering the questions (Gorin, 2005). It is generally assumed that reading the text precedes answering the questions, but there is considerable back-and-forth between the two. When reading the text, it is important to pay close attention to the passage's genre and structure. When a narrative is used for assessment, the reader should expect questions about characters and their traits, the setting, the conflict, events, and the resolution. When reading informational text, the test taker should expect several possible structures, including an explanation, a discussion of cause and effect, or a chronology.

The second part of the test is answering the test questions. This is problem-solving, pure and simple. A variety of factors influence the process of answering the questions, including the linguistic level of the question (literal, inferential, etc.), the phrasing of the question, the location of the information for the correct answers, and the distractors. The student needs to know what the question is asking them to do, how to select or construct the best answer, and how to use text evidence to support that answer.

The Best Test-Taking Preparation

Strong readers score well on any reading assessment. Therefore, the best test preparation is strong reading instruction. Students who perform well on a reading test are fluent readers with strong word recognition skills. They are motivated to do well, have adequate background knowledge, and they employ reading strategies to build

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves.
Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

their comprehension (Guthrie, 2002). These are students who read for pleasure and information and are highly engaged while reading.

Goals of the Unit

We created this unit to help your students prepare for the upcoming state reading assessment. All students can benefit from well-crafted lessons that help them understand the test and navigate its intricacies. In this unit, you will:

- Teach students a process for reading the passages that helps them stay focused on the critical elements of genre and text structure.
- Help students understand the reasoning required to understand text questions.
- Help students understand how to answer multiple-choice and constructed response questions.
- Introduce and discuss the concepts of stamina, persistence, and thoroughness, and how to manage the stress of taking a test.

Integrating Test-Taking into Classroom Instruction

Test-taking preparation should not replace regular instruction, nor should it be spread out over the full year. Regular reading instruction, vocabulary development, reading aloud, book clubs, and independent reading should not stop just because the class needs to focus on test-taking. Overemphasizing test-taking will likely interfere with reading instruction and with the growth of reading ability.

Once students are well engaged in their book club work, you can begin introducing the test-taking lessons. We suggest the following sequence.

1. Lesson 1. What Do the Students Know About Taking a Standardized Test? (20 minutes)
2. Lesson 2. How to Read the Passages: Noticing and Noting (30 minutes, repeat as needed)
3. Lesson 3. Thinking Through Multiple-Choice Questions (30 minutes, repeat as needed)
4. Lesson 4. Thinking About Constructed Response Test Items (30 minutes repeat as needed)
5. Lesson 5. Developing Stamina, Persistence, and Thoroughness (30 minutes)

Before you begin teaching this unit, build your knowledge of the standardized test used in your school district. Take a sample test and pay close attention to how you think while taking it, so you can explain your thinking to your students. You can't offer direction on test-taking strategies until you can use them yourself. Every standardized high-stakes reading test has its challenges, but nothing is trickier than unraveling a complex test question or deciding between three very similar answer choices. As you take these tests, make notes about the following:

- What do you do before, during, and after you have read the passage?
- Make a list of the difficult vocabulary in the question stems. Study how questions are phrased.
- Note how many ways the test maker can ask the students to find the main idea or make an inference.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

- For single response items (there is one correct answer) reflect on how you decide the right answer. What do you eliminate? When and how do you use the text to eliminate close answers?
- For multiple response items, how do you decide what words or responses to include and what to exclude?
- For constructed response items, how do you decide what information to include in the response?

Lesson 1: What Do Students Know About Taking a Standardized Test?

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, you will discover what the students know about taking a standardized test. You will uncover their misconceptions, refute the incorrect ones, and build students' knowledge of test-taking procedures.
- **Materials:** A K-W-L chart written on chart paper so it can be saved and referred to during the lesson.
- **Motivation:** Explain that for the next several weeks, we will be studying the standardized test to uncover how the test developers think and how they create the questions. Our goal is to out-think the test makers.
- **Time:** 20 minutes

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

Students come to test-taking with some knowledge and experience, and most have taken a test before. Some of what they know about the test is accurate, while some is incorrect. In this lesson, you will explore what they know, dispel misconceptions, and expand their knowledge of test-taking. You and the students should raise important questions.

Display a K-W-L chart on a white board or Smartboard and begin a discussion of the reading test. Ask the following questions and record the students' answers:

- What do you know about taking a reading test? What works when you take a test?
- What do you know about how to take the test?

As the students discuss the test, quickly dispel any incorrect ideas they have about it. For example, if they believe that questions have only one correct answer, point out that this is true for only some answers. In the last column (L), explain that over the next few weeks, they will learn:

- How to read the passages so they remember the information.
- The meaning of important words that they will find on the test.
- How to answer the questions.
- How to relax while taking the test so they do their best.

Figure 19 What Students Know About Taking a Reading Test

What We Know – K	What We Want to Know – W	What We Learned – L
• It is a very long test. • If you don't pass the test you can't go to the next grade. • We can't leave our seats.	• Can we use scratch paper? • Are we allowed to look back in the text? • How much time do we have?	

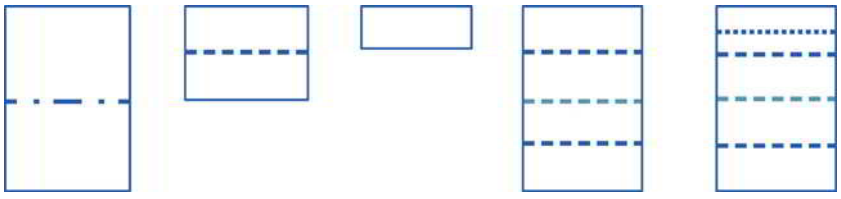
Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Lesson 2: How to Read the Passages: Noticing and Noting

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, students will learn to pay close attention while reading the passage. They will learn to note text features and genre and use these understandings to make sense of the passages (Beers & Probst, 2013).
- **Rationale:** Students are tempted to rush through the passage to get to the questions. We want students to read the passage closely and focus on its genre and structure. Once students know they are reading fiction, they start looking for characters, setting, problems, and so on. Informational text should trigger expectations for the main idea, supporting details, and arguments.
- **Materials:** Sample from a multiple-choice test with the passage and questions. A blank piece of chart paper divided horizontally into four parts. Highlighters and markers.
- **Motivation:** Talk with students about the common problem of paying attention while reading. Tell them that sometimes you can read and still think about something else – weekend plans, a chore that needs to be done. We don't want this to happen while taking an important test. It wastes time.
- **Time:** 30–40 minutes. Remember you will be repeating this lesson several times.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

1. **Noticing the Page:** Tell the students that first, they need to notice the features on the page or screen. The students should practice highlighting (title, paragraph numbers, bolded/italicized words, headings and subheadings) or circling them with a highlighter. This can be done on paper-and-pencil tests or using the computer highlighter. (Remember there are few text features in fiction.)
2. **Note Taking:** Next, the students should take notes. Share a simple process that will keep students focused on the passages while reading, using blank paper to make a few notes. Teach the students the acronym **TTBME** for **T**ext Type (Genre), **T**opic (Subgenre/Topic), **B**eginning, **M**iddle, and **E**nd.
3. Use 8 1/2 × 11 blank paper for taking notes. Fold the paper as follows to create five sections. Fold the paper in half horizontally to create two long rectangles. Fold it again horizontally to create four equal-sized rectangles. Fold the top of the paper down to create two smaller rectangles.



- Figure 20 shows a sample note-taking sheet that students can construct. Down the left margin, write T. Then write another T in the next section. Then write B, M, and E. See the example that follows.
- Have the *students read the title and 1st paragraph of the passage*. They then write the following for the two **T**s:
  - **T** = type of text: This should be the broad genre—fiction, nonfiction, biography, poem, functional text

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

- **T** = topic: for narrative text—write a more specific genre—subgenre, like fairy tale, realistic fiction, fantasy, or free verse

  For informational text—write the topic like Michael Jordan, bees or earthquakes.

  For fiction, the students should anticipate characters, setting, problems or conflicts, events, and resolution. For nonfiction, they should start thinking about what they know about the topic.

- **BME**—Students read the rest of the passage while taking a few notes. For each section, the students should write down eight or ten key words or phrases. They are not to write sentences. The keywords or phrases keep the students focused on the passage.
  - **B—Beginning**
    - Narrative—characters' names, the setting and the problem
    - Informational—keywords related to the topic
    - **M—Middle**
    - Narrative—problem/conflict or events
    - Informational – new concepts/facts
  - **E—End**
    - Narrative—solution/resolution
    - Informational—how ideas and concepts have changed

The **TTBME** strategy should be modeled for the students, and then the students should practice it 2 to 4 times over several days. Your biggest problem is students who write too much. Deciding which ideas are important is difficult.

Figure 20 The TTBME Note-Taking Process

T	
T	
B	
M	
E	

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Lesson 3: Thinking Through Multiple-Choice Questions

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, students will learn a few strategies to help them answer multiple-choice questions. These questions place heavy cognitive demands on students because they come in many types and use complex wording. You will also develop an anchor chart with the students that lists guidelines for answering multiple-choice questions.
- **Materials:** Sample test passages and the accompanying questions. Chart paper for making an anchor chart.
- **Motivation:** Explain to the students that multiple-choice questions are tricky and that the key to success is thinking like the test maker. First, the test maker writes the question. Sometimes he uses complicated wording. Then he decides on the correct answer. Then he writes the wrong answers. Some wrong answers are too broad; others are too narrow. Some wrong answers include irrelevant or incorrect details. Teach students to look for these tricks.
- **Time:** 30–40 minutes

ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS

There are three steps to answering a multiple-choice question. Much of this is reminiscent of the Question-Answer-Relationship (QAR) strategy that was introduced in Chapter 12. QAR is an effective test-taking approach.

1. Determine what the question is asking you to do: make an inference, find the main idea, find support for an inference, and so forth.
2. Locate the answer in the text. Is the answer in a sentence, a paragraph, the whole passage, or can the question be answered without returning to the text?
3. Select the correct answer and eliminate the incorrect answers.

DETERMINE WHAT THE QUESTION IS ASKING YOU TO DO

- Read the question stem carefully and *highlight* the key words in the stem. Do you have to find the *main idea*, make an *inference*, think up a *synonym*?
- Pay attention to the strategy terms in the question and the many synonyms that test writer use. The *main idea* is also the *main purpose*, *best summary*, author's purpose, *mostly about*, the *central idea*.
- If you can rephrase a test question to include the word *why*, then the question is asking you to make an *inference*.

  Eli shows he wants to be Mark's friend by ___ ; rewrite as, Why does Eli want to be Mark's friend.

LOCATE THE ANSWER

Almost all text-based questions must be answered by referring back to the text. The one exception is vocabulary questions, where the answer is typically in the student's head, but the context might provide a clue to the word's meaning. Sometimes the test question tells you specifically where to look; other times, it does not. For example:

- *Specific location*. The test questions direct you to a specific numbered paragraph, "in paragraph 7" or to the "first paragraph."
- *General location*. The test question directs you to a general location, "at the beginning of the story" "at the end of the story."

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

- *Whole passage*. The questions either reference the whole passage, "main idea of the passage" or no location is specified at all.
- *No location*. These are questions about words, dictionary usages, syllabication or figurative language. Looking back into the text offers little support.

HOW TO SELECT THE BEST ANSWER

Traditional multiple-choice questions have one obviously incorrect answer and a second answer that is mostly incorrect. The rest of the questions are seriously off the mark. Here are some things to notice while answering multiple-choice questions.

- If the test question is focused on a detail or a fact, return to the passage and search for that fact.
- If the test question is focused on determining the *main idea* of what the passage is *mostly about,* the incorrect answers will typically be too broad or too narrow. The correct answer is just right—the Goldilocks principle.
  - Is the answer too broad or too big? The answer includes more than the question asks and goes beyond the paragraph or passage.
  - Is the answer too narrow or too small? The answer focuses on a detail, but the questions require a broader answer that encompasses more information.
- If the test question requires you to make o*r* support an *inference*, the key is locating or noting the text evidence. This applies to questions about *character traits, motives, feelings,* and *cause and effect*.
  - If the question *states* the inference, then examine the distractors to see which one provides the correct text evidence to support the inference.
  - If the question asks you *to make* the inferences, then you must go back into the text, read the appropriate paragraph focusing on details, make the inference and then compare your inference to those of the test detractors.
- If the test question asks for a word meaning or synonym, each and every answer (distractor) must be compared to the passage.
- Before you attempt to select the correct answer, construct an answer in your head. Knowing the answer makes it easier to select from the alternatives provided by the test maker.
- Over time, teach your student to think like a test maker.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES—WHOLE GROUP

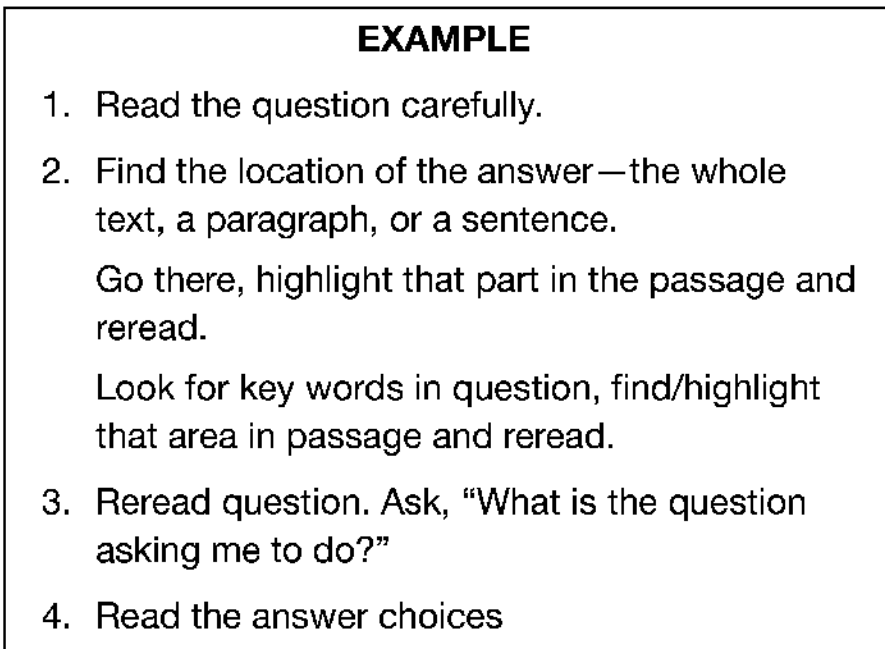
1. You and the students should read the first test question and then think-aloud as you model how you would answer the question. Record the strategies you used on your anchor chart.
2. Repeat the process until you have modeled several types of questions.
3. Now have the students do the modeling. Ask them to read the next test question and ask one or more students to model their thinking.
4. As the students think aloud this gives you the opportunity to correct their thinking.

   Continue to do this until you are confident most know how to answer a question.

Figure 21 is an example of an anchor chart developed in one fourth-grade room for answering multiple-choice questions.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves.
Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Figure 21 Anchor chart for answering multiple-choice questions.



EXAMPLE OF THINK-ALOUDS

CONSIDER THIS EXCEPT FROM AN ARTICLE ABOUT JAMESTOWN.

The settlers were starting to lose their hope of a successful venture. They did not find gold, and they struggled to survive. Luckily, things changed in 1610 when John Rolfe arrived in Jamestown. He was a very bright man, and he worked hard to cultivate a new strain of tobacco. It was very different from the tobacco grown in England. Within two years, he was exporting the crop back to Europe. It proved to be very profitable, and other settlers in Virginia soon joined him in growing tobacco.

What is the main idea of paragraph 7?

A. John Rolfe helped the Jamestown settlers search for gold.

B. John Rolfe taught other settlers how to grow tobacco on their farms.

C. John Rolfe's tobacco crops helped make the colony successful.

D. John Rolfe traveled to Jamestown to grow crops of tobacco.

Think-aloud: *First, I know that the question is asking about the main idea. Second, I know the answer is in paragraph 7.*

The paragraph is about making Jamestown a success. Success is the key word and that is repeated at the end of the paragraph with the word profitable. So the first answer A is wrong because they did not find gold. The other three answers, B, C and D all mention growing tobacco and they are correct as far as they go. But only C uses the word successful *and that is key to the answer.*

CONSIDER THIS EXCERPT FROM AN ARTICLE ABOUT KITES

The article describes the history of kites and their uses in science, during war, in cultural festivals and sports like parasailing.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

What is another good title for this passage?

1. Kites from long ago.
2. Kites, a Popular Pastime
3. More Than Ordinary Kites
4. Toys, Kites, and More.

Think-aloud. *First, I know the answer will be a good title and titles often are the same as the main idea. I know that I have to consider the whole article, not just one paragraph. So I will look at the chapter headings again.*

Answer A is too small or too narrow because it is only about the history of kites. Answer B is also too small because it focuses on kites as a pastime, while the article also discusses kites for warfare and science. C might be correct. D is too broad because it covers kites, toys, and more. So C is the correct answer.

Lesson 4: Thinking About Constructed-Response Test Items

Constructed-response test items are similar to multiple-choice items, except that the possible answers are removed. Some of what students learn from answering multiple-choice items applies to constructed-response questions, but new strategies are necessary. Teaching writing paragraphs will help with constructed-response test items.

- **Lesson Goals:** In this lesson, students will learn strategies to help them answer constructed-response questions. The process will focus on how to construct a short coherent answer.
- **Materials:** Sample test passages and the accompanying questions. Work on only one passage and its accompanying questions at a time.
  - Chart paper for making an anchor chart.
- **Motivation:** Explain to the students that constructed-response questions are similar to multiple-choice questions. Like multiple-choice questions, you need to determine what the question is asking you to do. Next, you must determine where the information for the answer is located. Finally, you must write your answer. Following a format will ensure that your answer is considered "correct."

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

Proceed as you did with the other questions. First, model your thinking by asking two or more questions. Next, have the students model their thinking. Finally, ask them to answer the questions independently. For constructed-response questions, focus on both how to determine the answer by analyzing the test question and how to formulate the response.

DETERMINE WHAT THE QUESTION IS ASKING YOU TO DO

- Read the question stem carefully and *highlight* the key words in the stem. Highlighted terms include important content and information about the purpose of the question. Do you have to find the *main idea*, make an *inference*, or determine a *cause*?
- If you can rephrase a test question to include the word *why*, then the question is asking you to make an *inference*.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Eli shows he wants to be Mark's friend by _____; rewrite as, Why does Eli want to be Mark's friend.

- Typically, a constructed-response question will ask you to support a particular position or argument. That means you need to go back to the text to find evidence and include it in your answer. Highlight the evidence you find.

LOCATE THE ANSWER

All constructed-response questions must be answered by referring back to the text. Sometimes the test question tells you specifically where to look, and other times it does not. Students should understand how the questions work. See our suggestions for multiple-choice questions.

ANSWERING THE QUESTION

The simplest system for answering a constructed-response question is RACE. It stands for:

- **R**estate the question
- **A**nswer the question
- **C**ite evidence from the text
- **E**xplain how the evidence supports your answer

1. Begin by showing the students how to transform a question into a statement. This is the **R**. For example, if the question asks the students to: "W*hat did the fable teach you about judging too quickly?*" Your restatement becomes, "*It is bad to judge people too quickly because you may make a poor decision*."
2. **A**nswer the question. Now supply support for your answer. Explain why it is bad to judge people too quickly. *Judging people too quickly might lead you to make a very biased judgment before you get to know them.*
3. **C**ite evidence from the text. Write about a character from the story who judged someone too quickly and how it led to a bad decision.
4. **E**xplain how the evidence supports your statement in your second sentence. You simply say that the character in the story made a quick decision and how it turned out.

EXAMPLE OF THINK-ALOUDS

The following question begins with a fictional story about Paul Bunyan and Johnny Appleseed. Figure 22 shows both the multiple-choice version of the question and its answers, as well as the constructed-response version and an answer.

Figure 22 Comparing Multiple-Choice and Constructed-Response Items

Multiple-Choice	Constructed-Response
At the beginning of the story, how is Johnny's view about his trees different from Paul's? A. Johnny views his trees as food for the rabbits while Paul views then as useful in his work. B. Johnny views his trees as the result of hard work while Paul views them as objects to win a contest. C. Johnny views his trees as needing his protection while Paul views them as needing too much care. D. Johnny view his trees as friends that he needs to take care of while Paul views them as something to brag about.	At the beginning of the story, how is Johnny's view about his trees different from Pauls? Johnny Appleseed and Paul Bunyan have different views about trees. (*restate question*). Johnny takes pride in his work to plant trees, while Paul likes to chop things down (*answer question*). Paul says, "it took me just three days to chop them down; what is so hard about growing a tree?' (*cite evidence*). This shows that Paul does not care about what living trees can provide (*explain*).

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

Lesson 5: Developing Stamina, Persistence, and Thoroughness

Success with a high-stakes test requires stamina, persistence, and thoroughness, along with reading skills. Like any excellent athletic coach, talk to your students about the attitudes and dispositions that contribute to success. If you can, model those dispositions.

- **Lesson Goals:** In these lessons, students will learn about the mental and emotional aspects of test-taking.
- **Materials:** Sample of a released high-stakes test passage and questions.
- **Motivation:** This lesson helps students build a sense of competence and reduce stress. Competence stems from experiencing success and using the tools that enable it. As students learn about the test and apply strategies during it, their confidence should grow. It is vital that teachers explain that their success on the test came from students' effort and the use of test-taking strategies.
- **Time:** 30 minutes

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

STAMINA

The procedure described here will help your students recognize the stamina they possess and build more of it.

- Students may cringe when they see the number of passages, the length of the passages, and the number of questions, even in a computer-adaptive test. First, demonstrate that your students can read the passages relatively quickly. Most test passages are between 300 and 500 words. The chart that follows shows how long a slow and a fast reader at each grade level would take to read a 600-word passage.
- First, give the students a passage and time them for one minute. At the end of a minute, have the students count the number of words they read. Discuss their reading rate and share the chart below with them. If you like, repeat the process again and time them for two minutes. At the end of two minutes, have them make a mark on the passage indicating the last word they read. Most 300- to 500-word passages can be read in 8 minutes or less.

  Minutes Required to Read a 600 Word Passage and (Reading Rate in WPM)

	Low Fluency	Average Fluency	Advanced Fluency
3rd Grade	9.2 minutes (65 wpm)	6 minutes (100 wpm)	5 minutes (120 wpm)
4th Grade	7 minutes (85 wpm)	6 minutes (100 wpm)	4.6 minutes (130 wpm)
5th Grade	6 minutes (100 wpm)	4.7 minutes (125 wpm)	1.2 minutes (140 wpm)

- Explain that everyone in the class has the stamina to read the passages in a short amount of time. There is ample time to read each passage two or more times.
- While practicing for the test, students may read silently (or under their breath) but never orally.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

PERSISTENCE AND THOROUGHNESS

Persistence and thoroughness can be modeled. Start with one of the practice tests available on the Internet. Read the passage aloud and answer each of the questions. As you answer the questions, think aloud and talk about being thorough.

- Discuss what you learn by reading the question stem.
- Then consider each answer and explain why you think it is correct. If the correct answer is A, model reading through and discuss the other answers. Demonstrate how you frequently return to the text to find textual support for the correct answer choice.
- You will discover that one or more of the items are difficult and that the correct answer is not obvious. Discuss what you do when the correct answer is not easy to determine. You can:
  - Re-read the question.
  - Re-read the passage.
  - Compare one answer to another and decide which is most likely correct.
- Model this process so the students can see that persistence and thoroughness are essential to answer difficult questions. You will do this each time you practice a test passage and its questions.

RELAXATION

Everyone becomes anxious, nervous, or distracted during a test. Relaxation techniques help students refocus their attention. Practice these techniques with your students.

- After completing one section of the test, practice resting your eyes. Combine this with a bit of deep breathing—inhale through your nose, exhale through your mouth. Repeat several times.
- After finishing a section of the test, practice visualizing a calm or beautiful scene. Urge students to do this when they have finished a section or are starting to feel nervous.
- If the rules permit, allow students to stretch or walk around the room after completing one section of the test.

Concluding Thoughts

We created a test-taking guide that puts instruction first. The best preparation for a high-stakes reading assessment is strong reading instruction. Good readers do well on any reading test. But reading tests present different challenges from reading in school and out of school. Test require strategies that are rare in reading for pleasure or even reading to learn. It is therefore useful to equip your students with a few strategies that will help them do well on the test. Test-taking should be a small part of your reading instruction, reserved for the end of the year, a few weeks before the students take their reading test.

Teaching Reading in the 21st Century: Motivating All Learners, 7e by Peter Dewitz, Michael F. Graves, & Bonnie B. Graves. Copyright 2027 by Pearson.

References

Abbott, M., Good, R. H., III, Gray, J. S., Warnock, A. N., & Powell-Smith, K. A. (2020). *Acadience® Reading 7–8 assessment manual*. Acadience Learning Inc.

Abramczyk, A., & Jurkowski, S. (2020). Cooperative learning as an evidence-based teaching strategy: What teachers know, believe, and how they use it. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *46*(3), 296–308. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.173340

ACT. (2012). *Catching up to college and career readiness*. ACT.

Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print*. MIT Press.

Adams, M. J. (2011). Advancing our students' language and literacy: The challenge of complex texts. *American Educator*, *34*(4), 3.

Afflerbach, P., & Cho, B. Y. (2009). Identifying and describing constructively responsive comprehension strategies in new and traditional forms of reading. In S. E. Israel and G. G. Duffy (Eds.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 69–90). Routledge.

Afflerbach, P., Pearson, P. D., & Paris, S. G. (2008). Clarifying differences between reading skills and strategies. *The Reading Teacher, 61*(5), 364–373.

Afflerbach, P. P. (1990). The influence of prior knowledge on expert readers' main idea construction strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *25*(1), 31–46.

Al Otaiba, S., Connor, C. M., Folsom, J. S., Greulich, L., Meadows, J., & Li, Z. (2011). Assessment data-informed guidance to individualize kindergarten reading instruction: Findings from a cluster-randomized control field trial. *The Elementary School Journal*, *111*(4), 535–560.

Alahmari, A. (2019). A review and synthesis of the response to intervention (RtI) literature: Teachers' implementations and perceptions. *International Journal of Special Education*, *33*(4), 894–909.

Alexander, K., Pitcock, S., & Boulay, M. C. (Eds.). (2016). *The summer slide: What we know and can do about summer learning loss*. Teachers College Press.

Alexander, P. A. (2003). The development of expertise: The journey from acclimation to proficiency. *Educational Researcher*, *32*(8), 10–14.

Alexander, P. A. (2013). The nature of disciplinary and domain learning: The knowledge, interest, and strategic dimensions of learning from subject matter text. In *Learning from text across conceptual domains* (pp. 263-287). Routledge.

Allington, R. L. (1977). If they don't read much, how they ever gonna get good? *Journal of Reading, 21,* 57–61.

Allington, R. L. (1983). The reading instruction provided readers of different abilities. *Elementary School Journal, 83,* 548–559.

Allington, R. L. (2001). *What really matters for struggling readers: Designing research-based programs*. Longman.

Allington, R. L. (2014). How reading volume affects both reading fluency and reading achievement. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *7*(1), 13–26.

Allington, R. L., & Johnston, P. H. (2002). *Reading to learn: Lessons from exemplary fourth-grade classrooms*. Guilford Press.

Allington, R. L., & McGill-Franzen, A. M. (2021). Reading volume and reading achievement: A review of recent research. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S231–S238.

Altamura, L., Vargas, C., & Salmerón, L. (2025). Do new forms of reading pay off? A meta-analysis on the relationship between leisure digital reading habits and text comprehension. *Review of Educational Research*, *95*(1), 53–88.

Amendum, S. J., Conradi, K., & Hiebert, E. (2018). Does text complexity matter in the elementary grades? A research synthesis of text difficulty and elementary students' reading fluency and comprehension. *Educational Psychology Review*, *30*, 121–151.

Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 84*(3), 261.

Anderson, N. J., Graham, S. A., Prime, H., Jenkins, J. M., & Madigan, S. (2021). Linking quality and quantity of parental linguistic input to child language skills: A meta-analysis. *Child Development*, *92*(2), 484–501.

Anderson, R. C. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading*. The National Academy of Education and The National Institute of Education.

Anderson, R. C. (1996). Research foundations to support wide reading. In V. Greaney (Ed.), *Promoting reading in developing countries* (pp. 55–77). International Reading Association.

Anderson, R. C., & Biddle, W. B. (1975). On asking people questions about what they are reading. In G. H. Bower (Ed.), *Psychology of learning and motivation* (Vol. 9, pp. 89–132). Academic Press.

Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson, I. A. G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading*. National Institute of Education.

Anderson, R. C., & Nagy, W. E. (1993). The vocabulary conundrum. Center for the Study of Reading Technical Report No. 570.

Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). *A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading comprehension*. Center for the Study of Reading Technical Report No. 306.

Anderson, R. C., Wilson, P. T., & Fielding, L. G. (1988). Growth in reading and how children spend their time outside of school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *23*(3), 285–303.

Anderson, T. H., & Armbruster, B. B. (1984). Content area textbooks. In R. C. Anderson, J. Osborn, & R. J. Tierney (Eds.), *Learning to read in American schools* (pp.193–226). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Arias, M. B. (2018, February). *How can the U.S. overcome its linguistic deficit? The findings of two national reports on language learners*. Center for Applied Linguistics.

Armbruster, B. B., & Anderson, T. H. (1985). Producing 'considerate' expository text: Or easy reading is damned hard writing. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *17*(3), 247–274.

Atteberry, A., & McEachin, A. (2021). School's out: The role of summers in understanding achievement disparities. *American Educational Research Journal*, *58*(2), 239–282.

Au, K. H. (1999). Foreword. In J. T. Guthrie & D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), *Engaged reading: Processes, practices, and policy implications* (pp. 17–45). Teachers College Press.

Au, W. (2007). High-stakes testing and curricular control: A qualitative meta-synthesis. *Educational Researcher*, *36*(5), 258–267.

August, D. (2005, October). *Building vocabulary in English-language learners.* Paper presented at the 3rd Guy Bond Memorial Conference on Reading, Minneapolis, MN.

August, D. (2018, Fall). Educating English language learners: A review of the latest research. *American Educator, 34*(3). https://www.aft.org/ae/fall2018/august

August, D., & Shanahan, J. (Eds.). (2017). *Report of the national literacy panel on language minority children and youth: Acquiring literacy in a second language.* Erlbaum.

Avalos, M. A., Plasencia, A., Chavez, C., & Rascón, J. (2008). Modified guided reading: Gateway to English as a second language and literacy learning. *The Reading Teacher, 61*(*4*), 318–329.

Aydarova, E. (2023). "Whatever you want to call it": Science of reading mythologies in the education reform movement. *Harvard Educational Review*, *93*(4), 556–581.

Aydarova, E. (2024). What you see is not what you get: Science of reading reforms as a guise for standardization, centralization, and privatization. *American Journal of Education*, *130*(4), 653–685.

Baildon, R., & Baildon, M. (2008). Guiding independence: Developing a research tool to support student decision making in selecting online information sources. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(8), 637–647.

Baker, D. L., Santoro, L., Biancarosa, G., Baker, S. K., Fien, H., & Otterstedt, J. (2020). Effects of a read aloud intervention on first grade student vocabulary, listening comprehension, and language proficiency. *Reading and Writing*, *33*(10), 2697–2724.

Baker, L., & Beall, L. C. (2014). Metacognitive processes and reading comprehension. In S. E. Israel, S. E. Israel, & G. G. Duffy (Eds.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 397–412). Routledge.

Baker, S., Lesaux, N., Jayanthi, M., Dimino, J., Proctor, C. P., Morris, J., Gersten, R., Haymond, K., Kieffer, M. J., Linan-Thompson, S., & Newman-Gonchar, R. (2014). *Teaching academic content and literacy to English learners in elementary and middle school*. IES Practice Guide. NCEE 2014-4012. What Works Clearinghouse.

Baker, S. K., Santoro, L. E., Chard, D. J., Fien, H., Park, Y., & Otterstedt, J. (2013). An evaluation of an explicit read aloud intervention taught in whole-classroom formats in first grade. *The Elementary School Journal*, *113*(3), 331–358.

Balu, R., Zhu, P., Doolittle, F., Schiller, E., Jenkins, J., & Gersten, R. (2015). *Evaluation of response to intervention practices for elementary school reading*. NCEE 2016-4000. National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

Barrett, S. H. (2023). *Assessment by design: A practical approach to improve student learning*. Routledge.

Barrett, C. A., Johnwson, L. J., Truckenmiller, A. J., & Van Der Heyden, A. M. (2024). Comparing the cost–accuracy ratios of multiple approaches to reading screening in elementary schools. *Remedial and Special Education*, *45*(2), 71–84.

Bartlett, F. C. (1995). *Remembering: A study in experimental and social psychology*. Cambridge University Press.

Barzilai, S., & Chinn, C. A. (2020). A review of educational responses to the "post-truth" condition: Four lenses on "post-truth" problems. *Educational Psychologist*, *55*(3), 107–119.

Bassok, D., Latham, S., & Rorem, A. (2016). Is kindergarten the new first grade? *AERA Open*, *2*(1), 2332858415616358.

Bates, C. C., Klein, A., Schubert, B., McGee, L., Anderson, N., Dorn, L., McClure, E., & Ross, R. H. (2017). E-books and e-book apps: Considerations for beginning readers. *The Reading Teacher*, *70*(4), 401–411.

Baumann, J. F., Edwards, E. C., Boland, E. M., Olejnik, S., & Kame'enui, E. J. (2003). Vocabulary tricks: Effects of instruction in morphology and context on fifth-grade students' ability to derive and infer word meanings. *American Educational Research Journal*, *40*(2), 447–494.

Baumann, J. F., Edwards, E. C., Font, G., Tereshinski, C. A., Kame'enui, E. J., & Olejnik, S. (2002). Teaching morphemic and contextual analysis to fifth-grade students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *37*(2), 150–176.

Baumann, J. F., Font, G., Edwards, E. C., & Boland, E. (2005). Strategies for teaching middle-grade students to use word-part and context clues to expand reading vocabulary. In E. F. Hiebert and M. L. Kamil (Ed.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice* (pp. 179–205).

Baumann, J. F., & Graves, M. F. (2010). What is academic vocabulary? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *54*(1), 4.

Baumann, J. F., Kame'enui, E. J., & Ash, G. E. (2003). Research on vocabulary instruction: Voltaire redux. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. R. Squire, & J. M. Jensen (Eds.), *Handbook on research on teaching the English language arts* (2nd ed., pp. 752–785). Erlbaum.

Baumann, J. F., Ware, D., & Edwards, E. C. (2007). "Bumping into spicy, tasty words that catch your tongue": A formative experiment on vocabulary instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(2), 108–122.

Baz, M. A., & Aksoy, S. H. (2025). The effect of feedback on informative text writing: AI or teacher? *Open Praxis*, *17*(3), 611–631.

Bear, D. R., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (2016). *Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary, and spelling instruction* (2nd ed.). Pearson.

Beck, I. L., & Beck, M. E. (2024). *Making sense of phonics*. Guilford Press.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (1981). Developing questions that promote comprehension: The story map. *Language Arts, 58*, 913–918.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (1983). Learning words well: A program to enhance vocabulary and comprehension. *The Reading Teacher*, *36*(7), 622–625.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2001a). Inviting students into the pursuit of meaning. *Educational Psychology Review*, *13*, 225–241.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2001b). Text talk: Capturing the benefits of read-aloud experiences for young children. *The Reading Teacher*, *55*(1), 10–20.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Hamilton, R., & Kucan, L. (1997). *Questioning the author: An approach for enhancing student engagement with text.* International Reading Association.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2013). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction* (2nd ed.). Guilford Press.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Sandora, C., Kucan, L., & Worthy, J. (1996). Questioning the author: A yearlong classroom implementation to engage students with text. *The Elementary School Journal*, *96*(4), 385–414.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., Sinatra, G. M., & Loxterman, J. A. (1991). Revising social studies text from a text-processing: Evidence of improved comprehensibility. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *26*(3), 251–276.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Worthy, J. (1995). Giving a text voice can improve students' understanding. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *30*(2), 220–239.

Becker, W. (1977). Teaching reading and language to the disadvantaged—What we have learned from field research. *Harvard Educational Review*, *47*(4), 518–543.

Beers, K., & Probst, R. E. (2013). *Notice and note. Strategies for close reading*. Heinemann.

Begeny, J. C., & Greene, D. J. (2014). Can readability formulas be used to successfully gauge difficulty of reading materials? *Psychology in the Schools*, *51*(2), 198–215.

Beishuizen, J., Asscher, J., Prinsen, F., & Elshout-Mohr, M. (2003). Presence and place of main ideas and examples in study texts. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *73*(3), 291–316.

Bell, T. H., Gardner, D. P., et al. (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform* (U.S. Dept. of Education). U.S. Government Printing Office.

Bender, E. M. & Hanna, A. (2025). *The AI Con: How to fight big tech's hype and create the future we want*. HarperCollins.

Benedetto, S., Drai-Zerbib, V., Pedrotti, M., Tissier, G., & Baccino, T. (2013). E-readers and visual fatigue. *PloS One*, *8*(12), e83676.

Benjamin, R. G. (2012). Reconstructing readability: Recent developments and recommendations in the analysis of text difficulty. *Educational Psychology Review*, *24*, 63–88.

Bennett, R. E. (2011). Formative assessment: A critical review. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, *18*(1), 5–25.

Berliner, D., & Biddle, B. (1995). *The manufactured crisis.* Longman.

Berliner, D. C. (1979). Tempus educare. In P. L. Peterson & H. J. Walberg (Eds.), *Research on teaching: Concepts, findings, and implications* (pp. 120–135). McCutchan.

Best, R. M., Floyd, R. G., & McNamara, D. S. (2008). Differential competencies contributing to children's comprehension of narrative and expository texts. *Reading Psychology, 29*(2), 137–164.

Biancarosa, G., & Griffiths, G. G. (2012). Technology tools to support reading in the digital age. *The Future of Children, 22*(2), 139–160.

Biemiller, A. (2003, April). *Teaching vocabulary to kindergarten to grade two children.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Blachowicz, C., & Fisher, P. (2004). Keep the "fun" in fundamental. In J. F. Baumann & E. J. Kame'enui (Eds.), *Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice* (pp. 210–238). Guilford Press.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, *5*(1), 7–74.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2009). Developing the theory of formative assessment. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, *21*(1), 5–31.

Blevins, W. (2016). *A fresh look at phonics, grades K-2: Common causes of failure and 7 ingredients for success*. Corwin Press.

Bloodgood, J. R. (1999). What's in a name? The role of name writing in children's literacy acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly, 34,* 342–367.

Blythe, T. (1998). *The teaching for understanding guide*. Jossey-Bass.

Blything, L. P., Hardie, A., & Cain, K. (2020). Question asking during reading comprehension instruction: A corpus study of how question type influences the linguistic complexity of primary school students' responses. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*(3), 443–472.

Boaler, J. (2002). *Experiencing school mathematics.* Erlbaum.

Bogaerds-Hazenberg, S. T., Droop, M., & van Steensel, R. C. (2026). Still Too Close to Call: A Literature Review on Close Reading Interventions and Their Effects on Reading Outcomes in Grades 3–9. *Reading Psychology*, 1-30.

Bogaerds-Hazenberg, S. T., Evers-Vermeul, J., & van den Bergh, H. (2021). A meta-analysis on the effects of text structure instruction on reading comprehension in the upper elementary grades. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(3), 435–462.

Bogner, K., Raphael, L., & Pressley, M. (2002). How grade 1 teachers motivate literate activity by their students. *Scientific Studies in Reading, 6,* 135–165.

Bond, G. L., & Dykstra, R. (1967). The cooperative research program in first-grade reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *2*(4), 5–142.

Bond, G. L., & Dykstra, R. (1997). The cooperative research program in first-grade reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly, 32*(4), 345–427. [Reprint]

Bone, J. K., Bu, F., Sonke, J. K., & Fancourt, D. (2025). The decline in reading for pleasure over 20 years of the American Time Use Survey. *iScience*, *28*(9), 113288.

Bowers, P. N., & Kirby, J. R. (2010). Effects of morphological instruction on vocabulary acquisition. *Reading and Writing*, *23*(5), 515–537.

Box, G. E. P., & Draper, N. R. (1987). *Empirical model-building and response surfaces*. John Wiley & Sons.

Boyles, N., & Scherer, M. (2012). Closing in on close reading. In M. Scherer (Ed.), *On developing readers: Readings from educational leadership, El essentials* (pp. 89–99). Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Branigan, H. E., & Donaldson, D. I. (2019). Learning from learning logs: A case study of metacognition in the primary school classroom. *British Educational Research Journal*, *45*(4), 791–820.

Bransford, J. D., & Johnson, M. K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, *11*(6), 717–726.

Bråten, I., Skovdahl, O., Anmarkrud, Ø., & Strømsø, H. I. (2025). Does reading still make you smarter? It depends. Reading and Writing, 1-22. Open access.

Breakstone, J., McGrew, S., Smith, M., Ortega, T., & Wineburg, S. (2018). Why we need a new approach to teaching digital literacy. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *99*(6), 27–32.

Brenner, D., & Hiebert, E. H. (2010). If I follow the teachers' editions, isn't that enough? Analyzing reading volume in six core reading programs. *The Elementary School Journal*, *110*(3), 347–363.

Brindle, M., Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Hebert, M. (2016). Third and fourth grade teacher's classroom practices in writing: A national survey. *Reading and Writing*, *29*(5), 929–954.

Brooks, C., & Warren, R. P. (1938). *Understanding poetry: An anthology for college students*. Holt.

Brown, A. L., & Day, J. D. (1983). Macrorules for summarizing text: The development of expertise. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 22,* 1–14.

Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational Researcher, 18*(1), 32–42.

Brown, L. T., Mohr, K. A., Wilcox, B. R., & Barrett, T. S. (2018). The effects of dyad reading and text difficulty on third-graders' reading achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *111*(5), 541–553.

Brown, R., Pressley, M., Van Meter, P., & Schuder, T. (1996). A quasi-experimental validation of transactional strategies instruction with low-achieving second-grade readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *88*(1), 18.

Bruck, M., & Treiman, R. (1992). Learning to pronounce words: The limitations of analogies. *Reading Research Quarterly, 27,* 375–388.

Bruner, J. (1960). *Process of education*. Harvard University Press.

Bruner, J. S. (2009). *The process of education*. Harvard University Press.

Bryant, P., MacLean, M., & Bradley, L. (1990). Rhyme, language, and children's reading. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *11*(3), 237–252.

Burr, V. (2024). *Social constructionism*. Routledge.

Cabell, S. Q., & Hwang, H. (2020). Building content knowledge to boost comprehension in the primary grades. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S99–S107.

Cain, K., & Oakhill, J. V. (1999). Inference making ability and its relation to comprehension failure in young children. *Reading and Writing*, *11*(5), 489–503.

Calet, N., Gutiérrez-Palma, N., & Defior, S. (2015). A cross-sectional study of fluency and reading comprehension in Spanish primary school children. *Journal of Research in Reading*, *38*(3), 272–285.

Calkins, L. M. (1983). *Lesson from a child*. Heinemann.

Callahan, R. E. (1962). *Education and the cult of efficiency*. University of Chicago Press.

Campbell, D. T. (1979). Assessing the impact of planned social change. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, *2*(1), 67–90.

Cao, Y., & Kim, Y. S. G. (2021). Is retell a valid measure of reading comprehension? *Educational Research Review*, *32*, 100375.

Capin, P., Dahl-Leonard, K., Hall, C., Yoon, N. Y., Cho, E., Chatzoglou, E., Reiley, S., Walker, M., Shanahan, E., Andress, T., & Vaughn, S. (2025). Reading comprehension instruction: Evaluating our progress since Durkin's seminal study. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *29*(1), 85–114.

Carlisle, J., Kelcey, B., Berebitsky, D., & Phelps, G. (2011). Embracing the complexity of instruction: A study of the effects of teachers' instruction on students' reading comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *15*(5), 409–439.

Carr, E., & Ogle, D. (1987). KWL Plus: A strategy for comprehension and summarization. *Journal of Reading*, *30*(7), 626–631.

Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richmond, B. (1971). *The American heritage word frequency book*. Houghton Mifflin.

Cartwright, K. B. (2009). The role of cognitive flexibility in reading comprehension. In S. Israel (Ed.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 115–139). Guilford Press.

Cartwright, K. B., & Palian, S. R. (2024). Considering roles of executive functions in the science of reading: A meta-analysis highlighting promises and challenges of reading-specific executive functions. *Educational Psychologist*, *59*(4), 263–290.

Castles, A., Rastle, K., & Nation, K. (2018). Ending the reading wars: Reading acquisition from novice to expert. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *19*(1), 5–51.

Caulfield, M., & Wineberg, S. (2023). *Verified: How to think straight, get duped less, and make better decisions about what to believe online*. The University of Chicago Press.

Cazden, C. (2001). *Classroom discourse* (2nd ed.). Heinemann.

Cazden, C. B. (1991). *Metalinguistic awareness revisited: Its contribution to the child's appropriation of form*. Plenary address to the Australian Reading Association Conference, Adelaide, Australia.

Ceci, S. J. (1991). How much does schooling influence general intelligence and its cognitive components? A reassessment of the evidence. *Developmental Psychology*, *27*(5), 703.

Cervetti, G. N., Fitzgerald, M. S., Hiebert, E. H., & Hebert, M. (2023). Meta-analysis examining the impact of vocabulary instruction on vocabulary knowledge and skill. *Reading Psychology*, *44*(6), 672–709.

Cervetti, G. N., & Hiebert, E. H. (2015). The sixth pillar of reading instruction: Knowledge development. *The Reading Teacher*, *68*(7), 548–551.

Chall, J. S. (1967). *Learning to read: The great debate*. McGraw-Hill.

Chall, J. S. (1996). *Stages of reading development* (2nd ed.). Harcourt-Brace.

Chall, J. S., & Dale, E. (1995). *Readability revisited and the new Dale-Chall readability formula*. Brookline Books.

Chall, J. S., & Squire, J. R. (1991). The publishing industry and textbooks. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 120–146). Longman.

Chang, W. C., & Ku, Y. M. (2015). The effects of note-taking skills instruction on elementary students' reading. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *108*(4), 278–291.

Chappuis, S., & Stiggins, R. J. (2002). Classroom assessment for learning. *Educational Leadership*, *60*(1), 40–44.

Cho, B. Y. (2014). Competent adolescent readers' use of Internet reading strategies: A think-aloud study. *Cognition and Instruction*, *32*(3), 253–289.

Cho, B. Y., & Afflerbach, P. (2015). Reading on the Internet: Realizing and constructing potential texts. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *58*(6), 504–517.

Cho, B. Y., & Afflerbach, P. (2017). An evolving perspective of constructively responsive reading comprehension strategies in multilayered digital text environments. In S. E. Israel (Ed.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (2nd ed., pp. 115–134). Guilford Press.

Cho, B. Y., Afflerbach, P., & Han, H. (2018). Strategic processing in accessing, comprehending, and using multiple sources online. In *Handbook of multiple source use* (pp. 133–150). Routledge.

Chomsky, C. (1978). When you still can't read in third grade: After decoding, what? In S. J. Samuels (Ed.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (pp. 13–30). International Reading Association.

Christ, T. J., and Colleagues. (2018). *Formative assessment system for teachers: Technical manual.* FastBridge Learning.

Christie, F., & Derewianka, B. (2008). *School discourse: Learning to write across the years of schooling*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Cimino, S., Maremmani, A. G. I., & Cerniglia, L. (2025). The use of artificial intelligence in early childhood education: Opportunities and critical issues. *Societies, 15*(12), 341.

Cipriano, C., Ha, C., Wood, M., Sehgal, K., Ahmad, E., & McCarthy, M. (2024). *A systematic review and meta-analysis of the effects of universal school-based SEL programs in the United States: Considerations for marginalized students*. Social And Emotional Learning Research Practice and Policy. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sel.2024.100029

Cipriano, C., Strambler, M. J., Naples, L., Ha, C., Kirk, M. A., Wood, M. E., Sehgal, K., Zieher, A. K., Eveleigh, A., McCarthy, M., Funero, M., Ponnochm, A., Chow, J. C., & Durlak, J. (2023). *The state of the evidence for social and emotional learning: A contemporary meta-analysis of universal school-based SEL interventions.* https://doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/mk35u

Clark, C., Picton, I., & Galway, M. (2023). *Children and young people's reading in 2023*. National Literacy Trust.

Clark, K. F., & Graves, M. F. (2005). Scaffolding students' comprehension of text. *The Reading Teacher, 56,* 570–580.

Clay, M. (1991). *Becoming literate: The construction of inner control*. Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1977). *Reading: The patterning of complex behaviour*. Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1985). *The early detection of reading difficulties*. Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1993). *Reading recovery: A guidebook for teacher's in training*. Heinemann.

Clemens, N. H., Solari, E., Kearns, D. M., Fien, H., Nelson, N., Stelega, M., Burns, M., St. Martin, K., & Hoeft, F. (2021). *They say you can do phonemic awareness instruction "in the dark", but should you? A critical evaluation of the trend toward advanced phonemic awareness training*. https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/ajxbv

Cobb, L. (1835). *The North American reader.* B and S Collins.

Cohen, E. (1994). *Designing group work: Strategies for heterogeneous classrooms.* Teachers College Press.

Cohen, P. A., Kulik, J. A., & Kulik, C.-l. C. (1982). Education outcomes of tutoring: A meta-analysis of findings. *American Educational Research Journal*, *19*(2), 237–248. https://doi.org/10.2307/1162567

Coiro, J. (2012). Understanding dispositions toward reading on the Internet. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *55*(7), 645–648.

Coiro, J. (2021). Toward a multifaceted heuristic of digital reading to inform assessment, research, practice, and policy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(1), 9–31.

Coiro, J., Coscarelli, C., Maykel, C., & Forzani, E. (2015). Investigating criteria that seventh graders use to evaluate the quality of online information. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *59*(3), 287–297.

Coiro, J., & Dobler, E. (2007). Exploring the online reading comprehension strategies used by sixth-grade skilled readers to search for and locate information on the Internet. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *42*(2), 214–257.

Coleman, D., & Pimental, S. (2012). *Revised publishers' criteria for the Common Core State Standards in English language arts and literacy, grades 3–12*. Council of Chief State School Officers.

Coleman, J. M., Bradley, L. G., & Donovan, C. A. (2012). Visual representations in second graders' information book compositions. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(1), 31–45.

Coleman, J. S. (1966). *Equality of educational opportunity [summary report* (Vol. 1)]. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

Coleman, R., & Goldenberg, C. (2012). The common core challenge for ELLs. *Principal Leadership*, *12*(5), 46–51.

Collinge, S. (2023). *Raising the standards*. Read Side by Side.

Collinge, S., & Robinson, B. (2013). *C.I.A. Unit of study: Earthquake terror*. Read Side by Side.

Common Sense Media. (2025). *The Common Sense census: Media use by kids age zero to eight, 2025*. https://www.commonsensemedia.org/research/the-common-sense-census-media-use-by-kids-zero-to-eight-2025

Compton, D. L., Appleton, A. C., & Hosp, M. K. (2004). Exploring the relationship between text-leveling systems and reading accuracy and fluency in second-grade students who are average to poor decoders. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, *19*, 176–184.

Compton-Lilly, C., Spence, L. K., Thomas, P. L., & Decker, S. L. (2023). Stories grounded in decades of research: What we truly know about the teaching of reading. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(3), 392–400.

Connor, C. M. (2019). Using technology and assessment to personalize instruction: Preventing reading problems. *Prevention Science*, *20*, 89–99.

Connor, C. M., & Morrison, F. J. (2016). Individualizing student instruction in reading: Implications for policy and practice. *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *3*(1), 54–61.

Connor, C. M., Lara J, J., Crowe, E. C., & Meadows, J. G. (2009). Instruction, student engagement, and reading skill growth in reading first classrooms. *The Elementary School Journal*, *109*(3), 221–250.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., & Katch, L. E. (2004). Beyond the reading wars: Exploring the effect of child–instruction interactions on growth in early reading. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *8*(4), 305–336.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B. J., Schatschneider, C., & Underwood, P. (2007a). Algorithm-guided individualized reading instruction. *Science*, *315*(5811), 464–465.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B., Crowe, E. C., Al Otaiba, S., & Schatschneider, C. (2013). A longitudinal cluster-randomized controlled study on the accumulating effects of individualized literacy instruction on students' reading from first through third grade. *Psychological Science*, *24*(8), 1408–1419.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B., Giuliani, S., Luck, M., Underwood, P. S., Bayraktar, A., Crowe, E. C., & Schatschneider, C. (2011). Testing the impact of child characteristics × instruction interactions on third graders' reading comprehension by differentiating literacy instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *46*(3), 189–221.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Fishman, B. J., Schatschneider, C., & Underwood, P. (2007). Algorithm-guided individualized reading instruction. *Science*, *315*(5811), 464–465.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., Schatschneider, C., Toste, J. R., Lundblom, E., Crowe, E. C., & Fishman, B. (2011). Effective classroom instruction: Implications of child characteristics by reading instruction interactions on first graders' word reading achievement. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, *4*(3), 173–207.

Connor, C. M., Morrison, F. J., & Underwood, P. S. (2007). A second chance in second grade: The independent and cumulative impact of first- and second-grade reading instruction and students' letter-word reading skill growth. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *11*(3), 199–233.

Cooke, C. L., & Graves, M. F. (1995). Writing for an audience: Just for fun. *Middle School Journal*, *26*(3), 31–34.

Corio, J. (2011). Predicting reading comprehension on the Internet: Contributions of offline reading skills, online readings skills, and prior knowledge. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *43*(4), 352–392.

Costantino-Lane, T. (2019). Kindergarten then and now: Perceptions of ten long term teachers. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *47*(5), 585–595.

Council of Chief State School Officers & National Governors' Association. (2010). *Common core state standards initiative. United States*. [Web Archive]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/lcwaN0010852/

Coyne, M. D., Kame'enui, E. J., & Simmons, D. C. (2001). Prevention and intervention in beginning reading: Two complex systems. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, *16*(2), 62–73.

Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D. B., Santory, L. E., Gentile, M., Rodrigues, C., & Kastner, P. (2025). The effects of advanced phonemic awareness instruction in first grade. *The Elementary School Journal*, *126*(2).

Craig, S. A. (2006). The effects of an adapted interactive writing intervention on kindergarten children's phonological awareness, spelling, and early reading development: A contextualized approach to instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *98*(4), 714.

Cremin, L. A. (1990). *Popular education and its discontents.* Harper & Row.

Cremin, T., & Scholes, L. (2024). Reading for pleasure: scrutinizing the evidence base–benefits, tensions and recommendations. *Language and Education*, *38*(4), 537–559.

Cress, S. W. (1998). A sense of story: Interactive journal writing in kindergarten. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *26*, 13–17.

Cross, D. R., & Paris, S. G. (1988). Developmental and instructional analyses of children's metacognition and reading comprehension. *Journal of educational psychology*, *80*(2), 131.

Crystal, D. (2008). *Txtng: The gr8 db8.* Oxford University Press.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience.* Harper & Row.

Cuban, L. (1990). Reforming again, again, and again. *Educational Researcher*, *19*(1), 3–13.

Cuban, L. (2018). *The flight of a butterfly or the path of a bullet? Using technology to transform teaching and learning*. Harvard Education Press.

Culham, R. (2003). *6+ 1 traits of writing: The complete guide*. Scholastic Inc.

Cummins, J. (2001). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society* (2nd ed.). California Association for Bilingual Education.

Cummins, S. (2013). *Close reading of informational texts: Assessment-driven instruction in grade 3–8*. Guilford Press.

Cunningham, A. E., & O'Donnel, C. R. (2012). Reading and vocabulary growth. In E. J. Kame'enui & J. F. Baumann (Eds.), *Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice* (2nd ed., pp. 256–279). Guilford Press.

Cunningham, P. (1990). The Names Test: A quick assessment of decoding ability. *The Reading Teacher*, *44*(2), 124–129.

Cunningham, P. M., & Cunningham, J. W. (1992). Making words: Enhancing the invented spelling-decoding connection. *The Reading Teacher*, *46*(2), 106–115.

Cunningham, P. M., Cunningham, J. W., Hall, D. P., & Moore, S. A. (2008). *Writing the Four-Blocks® Way, Grades K-6: The Four-Blocks® Literacy Model Book Series*. Carson-Dellosa Publishing. Change the citation in the text to Cunningham et al., 2008).

Curriculum Associates. (n.d.). *i-Ready diagnostic for reading* [Assessment software]. www.curriculumassociates.com

Dale, E., & Chall, J. (1948). A formula for predicting readability: Instructions. *Educational Research Bulletin*, *27*, 37–54.

Dale, E., & Chall, J. S. (1995). *Readability revisited: The new Dale-Chall readability formula*. Cambridge.

Daniels, H. (2002). *Literature circles: Voice and choice in the student-centered classroom.* Stenhouse.

Daniels, H. (2023). *Literature circles: Voice and choice in book clubs & reading groups*. Routledge.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *61*(1–2), 35–47.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2016). Research on teaching and teacher education and its influences on policy and practice. *Educational Researcher*, *45*(2), 83–91.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2026). Improving Student Achievement: What Read and Blue States Are Doing Right. *Forbes*, (March 5, 2026).

Dawson, N., Hsiao, Y., Banerji, N., Tan, A. W. M., & Nation, K. (2021). Features of lexical richness in children's books: Comparisons with child-directed speech. *Language Development Research, 1*(1), 9–53.

De Boer, H., Donker, A. S., Kostons, D. D., & Van der Werf, G. P. (2018). Long-term effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on student academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *24*, 98–115.

De Temple, J., & Snow, C. E. (2003). Learning words from books. In A. van Kleeck, S. A. Stahl, & E. B. Bauer (Eds.), *On reading books to children* (pp. 16–36). Erlbaum.

Delpit, L. D. (2006). *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom*. The New Press.

Delpit, L. D. (2018). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children. In E. B. Hilty (Ed.), *Thinking about schools* (pp. 157–175). Routledge.

Demarest, A. J., & Van Sickle, W. M. (1900). *New education readers: A synthetic and phonic word method: Book Four: Reading for the third year* (Vol. 1082). American Book Company.

Deno, S. (1991). Curriculum-based measurement: The emerging alternative. In J. Kramer (Ed.), *Curriculum-based assessment: Examining old problems, evaluating new solutions*. Erlbaum.

Deno, S. L. (2003). Developments in curriculum-based measurement. *The Journal of Special Education*, *37*(3), 184–192.

Derewianka, B. (1999). *Exploring how texts work.* Primary English Teaching Association.

DeStefano, D., & LeFevre, J. A. (2007). Cognitive load in hypertext reading: A review. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *23*(3), 1616–1641.

Dewey, G. (1970). *Relative frequencies of English spellings*. Teachers College Press.

Dewey. J. (1910). Language and the raining of thought. In *How we think*. D. C. Heath.

Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. Macmillan.

Dewitz, P. (1995). Reading law—Three suggestions for legal education. *University of Toledol La. Review*, *27*, 657.

Dewitz, P., Campbell, S., & Crusco, M. (2026). *Comprehension instruction in "High-Quality Instructional Programs"*. American Educational Research Association.

Dewitz, P., & Collinge, S. (2018). A new approach to comprehension instruction. Paper presented at the National Council of Teachers of English. Houston, TX.

Dewitz, P., & Collinge, S. (2019). A new approach to comprehension instruction. Paper presented at the National Council of Teachers of English. Houston, TX.

Dewitz, P., & Dewitz, P. K. (2003). They can read the words, but they can't understand: Refining comprehension assessment. *The Reading Teacher*, *56*(5), 422–435.

Dewitz, P., & Graves, M. F. (2014). Teaching for transfer in the common core era. *The Reading Teacher*, *68*(2), 149–158.

Dewitz, P., & Graves, M. F. (2024). Reevaluating and restructuring comprehension strategy instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *78*(1), 17–26.

Dewitz, P., & Jones, J. (2013). Using basal readers: From dutiful fidelity to intelligent decision making. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(5), 391–400.

Dewitz, P., Jones, J., & Leahy, S. (2009). Comprehension strategy instruction in core reading programs. *Reading Research Quarterly, 44*(2), 102–126.

Dewitz, P., Leahy, S. B., Jones, J., & Sullivan, P. M. (2010). *The essential guide to selecting and using core reading programs*. International Reading Association.

Dignath, C., & Büttner, G. (2008). Components of fostering self-regulated learning among students. A meta-analysis on intervention studies at primary and secondary school level. *Metacognition and Learning*, *3*(3), 231–264.

Doan, J. E., Grant, D., & Kaufman, J. H. (2023). *American*. RAND.

Dole, J. A., Duffy, G. G., & Pearson, P. D. (2019). Epilogue: Reflections on the gradual release of responsibility model: Where we've been and where we're going. In M. B. McVee, E. Ortlieb, J. S. Reichenberg, & P. D. Pearson (Eds), *The gradual release of responsibility in literacy research and practice* (pp. 245–263). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Dolezal, S. E., Welsh, L. M., Pressley, M., & Vincent, M. (2003). How do grade 3 teachers motivate their students? *Elementary School Journal, 103,* 239–267.

Donovan, C. A. (2001). Children's development and control of written story and informational genres: Insights from one elementary school. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *35*(3), 394–447.

Donovan, C. A., & Smolkin, L. B. (2002). Children's genre knowledge: An examination of K-5 students' performance on multiple tasks providing differing levels of scaffolding. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *37*(4), 428–465.

Dorfman, L. R., & Cappelli, R. (2017). *Mentor texts: Teaching writing through children's literature, K-6*. Stenhouse Publishers.

Dorn, L., & Soffos, C. (2023). *Scaffolding young writers: A writer's workshop approach*. Routledge.

Dreher, M. J., & Singer, H. (1980). Story grammar instruction is unnecessary for intermediate-grade students. *The Reading Teacher*, *34*(3), 261–268.

Duffy, G. G. (2009). *Explaining reading: A resource for teaching concepts, skills, and strategies.* Guilford Press.

Duin, A. H., & Graves, M. F. (1988). Teaching vocabulary as a writing prompt. *Journal of Reading, 22,* 204–212.

Duke, N. K. (2000). 3.6 minutes per day: The scarcity of informational texts in first grade. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *35*(2), 202–224.

Duke, N. K., & Cartwright, K. B. (2021). The science of reading progresses: Communicating advances beyond the simple view of reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S25–S44.

Duke, N. K., & Purcell-Gates, V. (2003). Genres at home and at school: Bridging the known to the new. *The Reading Teacher*, *57*(1), 30–37.

Duke, N. K., & Roberts, K. L. (2010). The genre-specific nature of reading comprehension. In D. Wyse, R. Andrews, & J. Hoffman (Eds), *The Routledge international handbook of English, language and literacy teaching* (pp. 74–83). Routledge.

Duke, N. K., Ward, A. E., & Pearson, P. D. (2021). The science of reading comprehension instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *74*(6), 663–672.

Dymock, S. (2007). Comprehension strategy instruction: Teaching narrative text structure awareness. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(2), 161–167.

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., Short, D., & Toppel, K. E. (2024). *Making content comprehensible for multilingual learners: The SIOP® model*. Pearson.

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., & Short, D. J. (2024). Making content comprehensible for elementary English learners: The SIOP model. BoD–Books on Demand.

Edmonds, M. S., Vaughn, S., Wexler, J., Reutebuch, C., Cable, A., Tackett, K. K., & Schnakenberg, J. W. (2009). A synthesis of reading interventions and effects on reading comprehension outcomes for older struggling readers. *Review of Educational Research*, *79*(1), 262–300.

EdReports. (2024). *State of the instructional materials report*. https://cdn.edreports.org/media/2024/10/EdReports_State_of_the_Instructional_Materials_Market_2023.pdf?_gl=1*6wtcd0*_gcl_au*NjU3Nzc5NDA0LjE3MzA4NTY3ODY

Eeds, M., & Wells, D. (1989). Grand conversations: An exploration of meaning construction in literature study groups. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *23*(1), 4–29.

Ehri, L. C. (2005). Learning to read words: Theory, findings, and issues. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *9*(2), 167–188.

Ehri, L. C. (2012). Word reading by sight and by analogy in beginning readers. In *Reading and spelling* (pp. 87–111). Routledge.

Ehri, L. C. (2014). Orthographic mapping in the acquisition of sight word reading, spelling memory, and vocabulary learning. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *18*(1), 5–21.

Ehri, L. C. (2015). How children learn to read words. In A. Pollatsek & R. Treiman (Eds), *The Oxford handbook of reading* (pp. 231–254). Oxford University Press.

Ehri, L. C. (2020). The science of learning to read words: A case for systematic phonics instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S45–S60.

Ehri, L. C. (2022). What teachers need to know and do to teach letter–sounds, phonemic awareness, word reading, and phonics. *The Reading Teacher*, *76*(1), 53–61.

Ehri, L. C., & McCormick, S. (1998). Phases of word learning: Implications for instruction with delayed and disabled readers. *Reading & Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*, *14*(2), 135–163.

Ehri, L. C., & Robbins, C. (1992). Beginners need some decoding skill to read words by analogy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 13–26.

Elbow, P. (1998). *Writing without teachers*. Oxford University Press.

Elbro, C. (2018). Knowledge-based inference making for reading comprehension: What to teach and what not. *Bulletin of Educational Psychology*, *49*(4), 701–713.

Elbro, C., & Buch-Iversen, I. (2013). Activation of background knowledge for inference making: Effects on reading comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *17*(6), 435–452.

Elleman, A. M. (2017). Examining the impact of inference instruction on the literal and inferential comprehension of skilled and less skilled readers: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *109*(6), 761.

Elleman, A. M., & Oslund, E. L. (2019). Reading comprehension research: Implications for practice and policy. *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *6*(1), 3–11.

Ellington, A. J. (2003). A meta-analysis of the effects of calculators on students' achievement and attitude levels in precollege mathematics classes. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 34*(5), 433–463.

Emig, J. (1971). *The composing process of twelfth graders.* National Council of Teachers of English.

Engle, R. W., & Conway, A. R. (2004). Working memory and comprehension. In K. Gilhooly & R. H. Logie (Eds), *Working memory and thinking* (pp. 73–97). Routledge.

Englert, C. S., Zhao, Y., Dunsmore, K., Collings, N. Y., & Wolbers, K. (2007). Scaffolding the writing of students with disabilities through procedural facilitation: Using an Internet-based technology to improve performance. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, *30*(1), 9–29.

Ericson, L., & Juliebo, M. F. (1998). *The phonological awareness handbook for kindergarten and primary teachers*. International Reading Association.

Every Student Succeeds Act, 20 U.S.C. § 6301 (2015).

Fawson, P. C., Ludlow, B. C., Reutzel, D. R., Sudweeks, R., & Smith, J. A. (2006). Examining the reliability of running records: Attaining generalizable results. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *100*(2), 113–126.

Fernald, A., Marchman, V. A., & Weisleder, A. (2012). SES differences in language processing skill and vocabulary are evident at 18 months. *Developmental Science, 16,* 234–248.

Fetterman, D. M. (1998). *Ethnography Step by step* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Filderman, M. J., Austin, C. R., Boucher, A. N., O'Donnell, K., & Swanson, E. A. (2022). A meta-analysis of the effects of reading comprehension interventions on the reading comprehension outcomes of struggling readers in third through 12th grades. *Exceptional Children*, *88*(2), 163–184.

Finn, B. (2015). Measuring motivation in low-stakes assessments. *ETS Research Report Series*, *2015*(2), 1–17.

Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2007). Implementing a schoolwide literacy framework: Improving achievement in an urban elementary school. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(1), 32–43.

Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2012). Close reading in elementary schools. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(3), 179–188.

Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2014). Close reading as an intervention for struggling middle school readers. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult literacy*, *57*(5), 367–376.

Fisher, D., Flood, J., Lapp, D., & Frey, N. (2004). Interactive read-alouds: Is there a common set of implementation practices? *The Reading Teacher*, *58*(1), 8–17.

Fisher, D., & Ivey, G. (2006). Evaluating the interventions for struggling adolescent readers. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *50*(3), 180–189.

Fitzgerald, J., & Graves, M. F. (2004). *Scaffolding reading experiences for English language learners*. Christopher-Gordon Publishers.

Flesch, R. (1955). *Why johnny can't read—And what you can do about it.* Harper.

Fletcher, R., & Portalupi, J. (2023). *Craft lessons: Teaching writing K-8*. Routledge.

Foorman, B. R., & Connor, C. M. (2011). Primary grade reading. In *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. IV, pp. 136–156). Routledge.

Foorman, B. R., Francis, D. J., Fletcher, J. M., Schatschneider, C., & Mehta, P. (1998). The role of instruction in learning to read: Preventing reading failure in at-risk children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*(1), 37.

Foorman, B. R., Schatschneider, C., Eakin, M. N., Fletcher, J. M., Moats, L. C., & Francis, D. J. (2006). The impact of instructional practices in grades 1 and 2 on reading and spelling achievement in high poverty schools. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *31*(1), 1–29.

Ford, M. P., & Opitz, M. F. (2008). A national survey of guided reading practices: What we can learn from primary teachers. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, *47*(4), 309–331.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (1996). *Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children.* Heinemann.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2001). *Guiding readers and writers: Grades 3–6*. Heinemann.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2006). *Teaching for comprehending and fluency: Thinking, talking and writing about reading*. Heinemann.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2012). Guided reading: The romance and the reality. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(4), 268–284.

Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2013). Guided reading: The romance and the reality. *The Reading Teacher*, *66*(4), 268–284.

Fountas, I. C., Pinnell, G. S., & Le Verrier, R. (2012). *Guided reading*. International Reading Association.

Frayer, D. A., Frederick, W. D., & Klausmeier, H. J. (1969). *A schema for testing the level of concept mastery* (Working Paper No. 16). Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning.

Frith, U. (1986). A developmental framework for developmental dyslexia. *Annals of Dyslexia*, *36*, 67–81.

Fry, E. (1977). Fry's Readability Graph: Clarifications, validity, and extension to level 17. *Journal of Reading*, *21*(3), 242–252.

Frye, N. H. (1957). *Anatomy of criticism*. Princeton.

Fuchs, A., Radkowitsch, A., & Sommerhoff, D. (2024). Using learning progress monitoring to promote academic performance? A meta-analysis of the effectiveness. *Educational Research Review*, 100648.

Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., & Vaughn, S. (Eds.). (2008). *Response to intervention: A framework for reading educators*. International Reading Association.

Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (2011). *Using CBM for progress monitoring in reading*. National Center on Student Progress Monitoring.

Fukkink, R. G., & de Glopper, K. (1998). Effects of instruction in deriving word meanings from context: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 68,* 450–469.

Galda, L. (1998). Mirrors and windows: Reading as transformation. In T. Raphael & K. Au (Eds.), *Literature-based instruction: Reshaping the curriculum* (pp. 72–97). Christopher-Gordon.

Galda, L., Ash, G. E., & Cullinan, B. E. (2000). *The multidisciplinary nature of children's literature Reading Online, 4*(9).

Galda, L., & Cullinan, B. E. (2016). *Literature and the child* (7th ed.). Wadsworth.

Galda, L., & Graves, M. F. (2010). *Reading and responding in the middle grades: Approaches for all classrooms.* Allyn & Bacon.

Gambrell, L. B., & Mazzoni, S. A. (1999). Principles of best practice: Finding the common ground. In L. B. Gambrell, L. M. Morrow, S. B. Neuman, & M. Pressley (Eds.), *Best practices in literacy instruction* (pp. 11–21). Guilford Press.

Gamse, B. C., Jacob, R. T., Horst, M., Boulay, B., & Unlu, F. (2008). *Reading first impact study. Final report. NCEE 2009-4038*. National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

Garzón, J. (2025). Artificial intelligence in education: A systematic review of research trends and challenges. *Future Internet, 17*(8), 84.

Gaskins, I. W., Ehri, L. C., Cress, C., O'hara, C., & Donnelly, K. (1997). Analyzing words and making discoveries about the alphabetic system: Activities for beginning readers. *Language Arts*, *74*, 172–184.

Gearin, B., Petscher, Y., Stanley, C., Nelson, N. J., & Fien, H. (2021). Document analysis of state dyslexia legislation suggests likely heterogeneous effects on student and school outcomes. *Learning Disability Quarterly.* Advance online publication.

Gellert, A. S., & Elbro, C. (2013). Cloze tests may be quick, but are they dirty? Development and preliminary validation of a cloze test of reading comprehension. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *31*(1), 16–28.

Gersten, R., & Baker, S. (2000). What we know about effective instructional practices for English-language learners. *Exceptional Children, 66,* 454–470.

Gersten, R., Baker, S. K., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades*. IES Practice Guide. NCEE 2007-4011. What Works Clearinghouse.

Gersten, R., Compton, D., Connor, C. M., Dimino, J., Santoro, L., Linan-Thompson, S., & Tilly, W. D. (2009). *Assisting students struggling with reading: Response to intervention and multi-tier intervention for reading in the primary grades*. IES practice guide (NCEE 2009-4045). National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

Gillespie Rouse, A., Kiuhara, S. A., & Kara, Y. (2021). Writing-to-learn in elementary classrooms: A national survey of US teachers. *Reading and Writing*, *34*(9), 2381–2415.

Goldenberg, C. (2000). The voices of researchers: Conflict and consensus in reading research and reading policy. *The Reading Teacher*, *53*, 640–641.

Goldenberg, C. (2013). Unlocking the research on English Learners: What we know—And don't yet know—About effective instruction. *American Educator*, *37*(2), 4–11, 38. http://www.aft.org/periodical/american-educator/summer-2013/unlocking-research-english-learners

Goldenberg, C. (2015, July 10). Congress: Bilingualism is not a handicap. *Education Week*. Commentary published only online. https://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2015/congress-bilingualism-is-not-a-handicap.ht

Goldenberg, C. (2020). Reading wars, reading science, and English learners. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S131–S144.

Goldenberg, C. (2023). *The "bilingual brain" and reading research: Questions about teaching English Learners to read in English.* Colorin Colorado. https://www.colorincolorado.org/article/bilingual-brain-and-reading-research-questions-about-teaching-english-learners-read-english

Goldenberg, C., & Coleman, R. (2010). *Promoting academic achievement among English learners: A guide to the research*. Corwin Press.

Goldenberg, C., Tolar, T. D., Reese, L., Francis, D. J., Ray Bazán, A., & Mejía-Arauz, R. (2014). How important is teaching phonemic awareness to children learning to read in Spanish? *American Educational Research Journal*, *51*(3), 604–633.

González-Laguna, M. V., Fidalgo, R., López, P., & Rijlaarsdam, G. (2024). A review of effective technology-based writing interventions: A componential analysis. *Sustainability*, *16,* 3703.

Good, R. H. (2016, October). *DIBELS Next*. https://dibels.org/dibelsnext.html

Good, T., & Brophy, J. (2003). *Looking into classrooms* (9th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Goodman, K. (1986). *What's whole in whole language?* Heinemann.

Goodman, K. S. (1970). Psycholinguistic universals in the reading process. *Visible Language*, *4*(2), 103–110.

Goodman, K. S. (1976). Behind the eye: What happens in reading. In R. Ruddell, M. Ruddell, & H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (Vol. 2, pp. 470–496). International Reading Association.

Goodwin, A. P., & Ahn, S. (2013). A meta-analysis of morphological interventions in English: Effects on literacy outcomes for school-age children. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *17*(4), 257–285.

Gough, P. B., Juel, C., & Roper-Schneider, D. (1983). Code and cipher: A two-stage conception of initial reading acquisition. In *Searches for meaning in reading/language processing and instruction* (pp. 207–211).

Gough, P. B., & Walsh, M. A. (1991). Chinese, Phoenicians, and the orthographic cipher of English. In S. Brady & D. Shankweiler (Eds.), *Phonological processes in literacy* (pp. 199–209). Erlbaum Associates.

Graesser, A. C., McNamara, D. S., & Louwerse, M. M. (2003). *What do readers need to learn in order to process coherence relations in narrative and expository text?* In A. P. Sweet & C. E. Snow (Eds.), *Rethinking reading comprehension* (pp. 82–98). Guilford Press.

Graesser, A. C., Singer, M., & Trabasso, T. (1994). Constructing inferences during narrative text comprehension. *Psychological Review*, *101*(3), 371.

Graham, S. (2020). The sciences of reading and writing must become more fully integrated. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S35–S44.

Graham, S., & Alves, R. A. (2021). Research and teaching writing. *Reading and Writing*, *34*(7), 1613–1621.

Graham, S., Bollinger, A., Olson, C. B., D'Aoust, C., MacArthur, C., McCutchen, D., & Olinghouse, N. (2012). *Teaching elementary school students to be effective writers: A practice guide*. NCEE 2012-4058. What Works Clearinghouse.

Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2017). Reading and writing connections: How writing can build better readers (and vice versa). In C. Ng & B. Bartlett (Eds), *Improving reading and reading engagement in the 21st century: International research and innovation* (pp. 333–350). Springer.

Graham, S., & Hebert, M. (2010). *Writing to read: Evidence for how writing can improve reading: A report from Carnegie Corporation Time to Act Report.* Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Graham, S., & Hebert, M. (2011). Writing to read: A meta-analysis of the impact of writing and writing instruction on reading. *Harvard Educational Review*, *81*(4), 710–744.

Graham, S., Liu, X., Aitken, A., Ng, C., Bartlett, B., Harris, K. R., & Holzapfel, J. (2018). Effectiveness of literacy programs balancing reading and writing instruction: A meta-analysis. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *53*(3), 279–304.

Graham, S., McKeown, D., Kiuhara, S., & Harris, K. R. (2012). A meta-analysis of writing instruction for students in the elementary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *104*(4), 879.

Graves, D. H. (1991). *Writing: Teachers and children at work.* Heinemann.

Graves, M. (2022). *Vocabulary instruction.* Routledge Resources Online: Education. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781138609877-REE95-1

Graves, M. F. (2016). *The vocabulary book: Learning and instruction*. Teachers College Press.

Graves, M. F., Baumann, J. F., Blachowicz, C. L. Z., Manyak, P., Bates, A., Cieply, C., Davis, J. R., & Von Gunten, H. (2013). Words, words everywhere; But which ones do we teach. *The Reading Teacher, 67*, 333–346.

Graves, M. F., & Dykstra, R. (1997). Contextualizing the first-grade studies: What is the best way to teach children to read? *Reading Research Quarterly, 32,* 342–344.

Graves, M. F., Flynn, K., & Ringstaff, C. (2020). Reflections on seven years of strategy instruction. *Journal of Education, 201*(3). https://doi.org/10.1177/0022057420914912

Graves, M. F., & Graves, B. B. (2003). *Scaffolding reading experiences: Designs for student success* (2nd ed.). Christopher-Gordon.

Graves, M. F., & Philippot, R. A. (2001). High interest-easy reading book series. In B. E. Cullinan & D. G. Person (Eds.), *The encyclopedia of children's literature* (pp. 194–215). Continuum.

Graves, M. F., & Slater, W. H. (2016). Vocabulary instruction in content areas. In D. Lapp, J. Flood, & N. Farnan (Eds.), *Content area reading and learning: Instructional strategies* (3rd ed.). Erlbaum.

Graves, M. F., Sales, G. C., & Ruda, M. (2008). *The first 4,000 words.* Seward Inc.

Graves, M. F., Schneider, S., & Ringstaff, C. (2018). Empowering students with word-learning strategies: Teach a child to fish. *The Reading Teacher, 71*, 533–543.

Graves, M. F., & Watts-Taffe, S. W. (2008). For the love of words: Fostering word consciousness in young readers. *The Reading Teacher, 62,* 185–193.

Greenberg, M. T. (2023). *Evidence for social and emotional learning in schools*. Learning Policy Institute. https://doi.org/10.54300/928.269

Greenleaf, C., & Valencia, S. (2017). Missing in action: Learning from texts in subject-matter classrooms. In K. A. Hinchman & D. A. Appleman (Eds), *Adolescent literacies: A handbook of practice-based research* (pp. 235–256). Guilford Press.

Grigorenko, E. L., Compton, D. L., Fuchs, L. S., Wagner, R. K., Willcutt, E. G., & Fletcher, J. M. (2020). Understanding, educating, and supporting children with specific learning disabilities: 50 Years of science and practice. *American Psychologist*, *75*(1), 37.

Grønli, K. M., Walgermo, B. R., McTigue, E. M., & Uppstad, P. H. (2024). Teachers' feedback on oral reading: A critical review of its effects and the use of theory in research. *Educational Psychology Review*, *36*(4), 121.

Grønli, K. M., Walgermo, B. R., McTigue, E. M., & Uppstad, P. H. (2025). Feedback practices on young students' oral reading: A systematic review. *Review of Educational Research*, 00346543241306070.

Guthrie, J. E., & Wigfield, A. (2024). Roles of motivation and engagement in teaching the English language arts. In D. Fisher & D. Lapp (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (5th ed., pp. 267–293). Routledge.

Guthrie, J. T., & Anderson, E. (1999). Engagement in reading: Processes of motivated, strategic, knowledgeable, social readers. In J. T. Guthrie & D. E. Alvermann (Eds.), *Engaged reading: Processes, practices, and policy implications* (pp. 17–45). Teachers College Press.

Guthrie, J. T., Van Meter, P., Hancock, G. R., Alao, S., Anderson, E., & McCann, A. (1998). Does concept-oriented reading

instruction increase strategy use and conceptual learning from text? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*(2), 261.

Guthrie, J., & Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 403–424). Erlbaum.

Guthrie, J. T., Wigfield, A., Barbosa, P., Perencevich, K. C., Taboada, A., Davis, M. H., Scaffidi, N. T., & Tonks, S. (2004). Increasing reading comprehension and engagement through concept-oriented reading instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *96*(3), 403.

Gutierrez, K. D. (2005). The persistence of inequality: English-language learners and educational reform. In J. Flood & P. L. Anders (Eds.), *Literacy development of students in urban schools: Research and policy* (pp. 288–304). International Reading Association.

Hacker, D. J., & Tenent, A. (2002). Implementing reciprocal teaching in the classroom: Overcoming obstacles and making modifications. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(4), 699.

Haidt, J. (2024). *The anxious generation*. Penguin Press.

Hall, C., Dahl-Leonard, K., Cho, E., Solari, E. J., Capin, P., Conner, C. L., Henry, A. R., Cook, L., Hayes, L., Vargas, I., Richmond, C., & Kehoe, K. F. (2023). Forty years of reading intervention research for elementary students with or at risk for dyslexia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(2), 285–312.

Hall, L. A. (2005). Teachers and content area reading: Attitudes, beliefs and change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *21*(4), 403–414.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Webster, J. J. (2009). *Systemic functional linguistics*. Continuum.

Hanford, E. (2018). *Hard words: Why aren't kids being taught to read*. https://www.apmreports.org/episode/2018/09/10/hard-words-why-american-kids-arent-being-taught-to-read

Hanford, E. (2019a). There is a right way to teach reading, and Mississippi knows it. *The New York Times*, December 6.

Hanford, E. (2019b). Why millions of kids can't read and what better teaching can do about it. *NPR*, January 2.

Hanford, E. (Host). (2022). *Sold a story: How teaching kids to read went so wrong*. (Audio podcast). https://features.apmreports.org/sold-a-story/

Hansen, J., & Pearson, P. D. (1981). The effects of inference training and practice on young children's reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *16*(3), 391–417.

Hare, V. C., Rabinowitz, M., & Schieble, K. M. (1989). Text effects on main idea comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *24*(1), 72–88.

Harris, Z. S. (1954). Distributional structure. *Word*, *10*(2–3), 146–162.

Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experiences of young American children.* Paul H. Brookes.

Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (2003, Spring). The early catastrophe: The 30 million word gap. *American Educator*, *27*(1), 4–9.

Hart, B., Risley, T. R., & Kirby, J. R. (1997). Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children. *Canadian Journal of Education*, *22*(3), 323.

Harvey, S., & Goudvis, A. (2023). *Strategies that work: Teaching comprehension for understanding and engagement*. Stenhouse Publishers.

Harwayne, S. (2023). *Above and beyond the writing workshop*. Routledge.

Hasbrouch, J., & Tindal, G. (2017). *Oral reading fluency data*. https://www.readnaturally.com/article/hasbrouck-tindal-oral-reading-fluency-data-2017

Hasbrouck, J. (2022). *The science of reading 2.0*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BVBlywaNI9o

Hasbrouck, J., & Tindal, G. (2017). *An update to compiled ORF norms* (No. 1702, pp. 1–17). Technical report.

Hasbrouck, J., & Tindal, G. A. (2006). Oral reading fluency norms: A valuable assessment tool for reading teachers. *The Reading Teacher*, *59*(7), 636–644.

Hattan, C. (2019). Prompting rural students' use of background knowledge and experience to support comprehension of unfamiliar content. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *54*(4), 451–455.

Hattan, C. (2024). Supporting students' knowledge activation before, during, and after reading. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(6), 861–869.

Hattan, C., & Alexander, P. A. (2020). Prior knowledge and its activation in elementary classroom discourse. *Reading and Writing*, *33*(6), 1617–1647.

Hattan, C., & Alexander, P. A. (2021). The effects of knowledge activation training on rural middle-school students' expository text comprehension: A mixed-methods study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *113*(5), 879.

Hattan, C., Alexander, P. A., & Lupo, S. M. (2024). Leveraging what students know to make sense of texts: What the research says about prior knowledge activation. *Review of Educational Research*, *94*(1), 73–111.

Hattan, C., & Lupo, S. M. (2020). Rethinking the role of knowledge in the literacy classroom. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S283–S298.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, *77*(1), 81–112.

Heath, S. B. (1982). What no bedtime story means: Narrative skills at home and school. *Language in Society*, *11*(1), 49–76.

Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Heath, S. B. (2012). *Words at work and play: Three decades in family and community life*. Cambridge University Press.

Hebert, M., Bohaty, J. J., Nelson, J. R., & Brown, J. (2016). The effects of text structure instruction on expository reading comprehension: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *108*(5), 609.

Hebert, M., Simpson, A., & Graham, S. (2013). Comparing effects of different writing activities on reading comprehension: A meta-analysis. *Reading and Writing*, *26*(1), 111–138.

Heckelman, R. G. (1969). A neurological-impress method of remedial-reading instruction. *Academic Therapy Quarterly, 4*, 277–282.

Heimlich, J. E., & Pittelman, S. D. (1986). *Semantic mapping: Classroom applications.* International Reading Association.

Hiebert, E. H. (2005). The effects of text difficulty on second graders' fluency development. *Reading Psychology, 26*(2), 183-209.

Heins-Israelson, M. (2015). The App Map: A tool for systematic evaluation of apps for early literacy learning. *The Reading Teacher, 69*(3), 339–349.

Henry, L. A. (2006). SEARCHing for an answer: The critical role of new literacies while reading on the Internet. *The Reading Teacher*, *59*(7), 614–627.

Hidi, S. (2001). Interest, reading, and learning: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Educational Psychology Review*, *13*(3), 191–209.

Hidi, S., & Renninger, K. A. (2006). The four-phase model of interest development. *Educational Psychologist*, *41*(2), 111–127.

Hiebert, E. F. (2024, December 4–7). *Terminology, texts, and teachers in an Al world: Possibilities and problems*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Literacy Research Association, Atlanta, GA.

Hiebert, E. H. (1994). Reading recovery in the United States: What difference does it make to an age cohort? *Educational Researcher, 23*(9), 15–25.

Hiebert, E. H. (1999). Texts matters in learning to read. *The Reading Teacher*, *52*(6), 552–569.

Hiebert, E. H. (2010). Understanding the word-level features of texts for students who depend on schools to become literate. In M. G. McKeown & L. Kucan (Eds.), *Bringing reading research to life* (pp. 207–231). Guilford Press.

Hiebert, E. H. (Ed.). (2009). *Reading more, reading better*. Guilford Press.

Hiebert, E. H. (2013). Core vocabulary and the challenge of complex text. In S. B. Neuman & L. B. Gambrell (Eds), *Quality reading instruction in the Age of Common Core Standards* (pp. 149–161). International Reading Association.

Hiebert, E. H. (2014). *Changing readers, changing texts: Beginning reading texts from 1960 to 2010*. TextProject & University of California.

Hiebert, E. H. (2024). Enhancing opportunities for decoding and knowledge building through beginning texts. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(6), 965–974.

Hiebert, E. H. (2025). Flattening the Developmental Staircase: Lexical Complexity Progression in Elementary Reading Texts Across Six Decades. *Education Sciences, 15*(11), 1546.

Hiebert, E. H., & Martin, L. A. (2015). Changes in the texts of reading instruction during the past 50 years. In P. D. Pearson & E. H. Hiebert (Eds.), *Research-based practices for teaching common core literacy* (pp. 237–257). International Literacy Association.

Hiebert, E. H., & Mesmer, H. A. (2013). Upping the ante of text complexity in the Common Core State Standards: Examining its potential impact on young readers. *Educational Researcher, 42*(1), 44–51.

Hiebert, E. H., & Tortorelli, L. S. (2022). The role of word-, sentence-, and text-level variables in predicting guided reading levels of kindergarten and first-grade texts. *The Elementary School Journal*, *122*(4), 557–590.

Higham, J. (1988). *Strangers in the land: Patterns of American nativism, 1860–1925*. Rutgers University Press.

Hill, D., Ameenuddin, N., Reid Chassiakos, Y. L., Cross, C., Hutchinson, J., Levine, A., Boyd, R., Mendelson, R, Moreno, M., & Swanson, W. S. (2016). Media and young minds. *Pediatrics*, *138*(5), e20162591.

Hirsch, E. D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge of words and the world. *American Educator*, *27*(1), 10–13.

Hirsch, E. D. (2019). *Why knowledge matters: Rescuing our children from failed educational theories*. Harvard Education Press.

Hjetland, H. N., Brinchmann, E. I., Scherer, R., Hulme, C., & Melby-Lervåg, M. (2020). Preschool pathways to reading comprehension: A systematic meta-analytic review. *Educational Research Review*, *30*, 100323.

Hoffman, J. V. (2017). What if "just right" is just wrong? The unintended consequences of leveling readers. *The Reading Teacher, 71*(3), 265–274.

Hoffman, J. V., McCarthey, S. J., Abbott, J., Christian, C., Corman, L., Curry, C., Dressman, M., Elliot, B., & Stahle, D. (1994). So what's new in the new basals? A focus on first grade. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *26*(1), 47–73.

Hoffman, J. V., Sailors, M., Duffy, G. R., & Beretvas, S. N. (2004). Effective elementary classroom literacy environment: Examining the validity of the TEX-IN3 observation system. *Journal of Literacy Research, 36,* 303–334.

Hoover, W. A., & Gough, P. B. (1990). The simple view of reading. *Reading and writing*, *2*(2), 127–160.

Houghton Mifflin Harcourt. (2023). *Into reading* (2020). Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Howell, E., Butler, T., & Reinking, D. (2017). Integrating multimodal arguments into high school writing instruction. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *49*(2), 181–209.

Huey, E. B. (1908). *The psychology and pedagogy of reading*. MIT Press.

Hutchison, A. C., Woodward, L., & Colwell, J. (2016). What are preadolescent readers doing online? An examination of upper elementary students' reading, writing, and communication in digital spaces. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *51*(4), 435–454.

Hwang, H., & Duke, N. K. (2020). Content counts and motivation matters: Reading comprehension in third-grade students who are English learners. *AERA Open*, *6*(1), 2332858419899075.

Hwang, H., Cabell, S. Q., & Joyner, R. E. (2020). *Effects of integrated literacy and content-area instruction on comprehension and vocabulary in the elementary years: A meta-analysis*. [Manuscript submitted for publication]. Florida Center for Reading Research, Florida State University.

Hwang, H., McMaster, K. L., & Kendeou, P. (2023). A longitudinal investigation of directional relations between domain knowledge and reading in the elementary years. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(1), 59–77.

Ihnot, C. (2004). *Read Naturally* (Software ed., version 2.0). Read Naturally.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990, 20U.S.C. et seg.

International Reading Association. (1997). *We love to read beary much*. International Literacy Association.

Invernizzi, M., Meier, J., Swank, L., & Juel, C. (2015). *PALS: Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening*. University of Virginia Printing Services.

Irwin, V., Zhang, J., Wang, X., Hein, S., Wang, K., Roberts, A., York, C., Barmer, A., Bullock Mann, F., Dilig, R., Parker, S., Nachazel, T., Barnett, M., & Purcell, S. (2021). *Report on the Condition of Education 2021*. NCES 2021-144. National Center for Education Statistics.

Iversen, S., & Tunmer, W. E. (1993). Phonological processing skills and the Reading Recovery Program. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *85*(1), 112.

Jabr, F. (2013). Why the brain prefers paper. *Scientific American*, *309*(5), 48–53.

January, S. A. A., & Klingbeil, D. A. (2020). Universal screening in grades K-2: A systematic review and meta-analysis of early reading curriculum-based measures. *Journal of School Psychology*, *82*, 103–122.

Jenkins, J. R., Peyton, J. A., Sanders, E. A., & Vadasy, P. F. (2004). Effects of reading decodable texts in supplemental first-grade tutoring. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *8*(1), 53–85.

Jenkins, J., Schulze, M., Marti, A., & Harbaugh, A. G. (2017). Curriculum-based measurement of reading growth: Weekly versus intermittent progress monitoring. *Exceptional Children*, *84*(1), 42–54.

Jensen, B. (2021). Advancing the science of teaching reading equitably. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S69–S84.

Johnson, D. D., & Pearson, P. D. (1975). Skills management systems: A critique. *The Reading Teacher*, *28*(8), 757–764.

Johnson, D. D., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). *Teaching reading vocabulary* (2nd ed.). Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Johnson, D. D., Pittelman, S. D., & Heimlich, J. E. (1986). Semantic mapping. *The Reading Teacher*, *39*(8), 778–783.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1989). *Cooperation and competition: Theory and research.* Interaction Book Company.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2002). Teaching students to resolve their own and their schoolmates' conflicts. *Counseling and Human Development, 34*(6), 1–12.

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. J. (1994). *The new circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom.* Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Johnston, F. R. (2000). Word learning in predictable text. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*, 248–255.

Johnston, P. H., & Winograd, P. N. (1985). Passive failure in reading. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 17,* 279–301

Joseph, L. M., Alber-Morgan, S., Cullen, J., & Rouse, C. (2016). The effects of self-questioning on reading comprehension: A literature review. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *32*(2), 152–173.

Juel, C. (1988). Learning to read and write: A longitudinal study of 54 children from first through fourth grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *80*(4), 437–447.

Juel, C. (1990). Effects of reading group assignment on reading development in first and second grade. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 22,* 223–254.

Juel, C. (1995). The messenger may be wrong, but the message may be right. *Journal of Research in Reading*, *18*, 146–146.

Juel, C. (2005). The impact of early school experiences on initial reading. In D. K. Dickinson & S. B. Neuman (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research* (Vol. 2, pp. 410–426). Guilford Press.

Juel, C., & Minden-Cupp, C. (2000). Learning to read words: Linguistic units and instructional strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly, 35*(4), 458–492.

Juel, C., Biancarosa, G., Coker, D., & Deffes, R. (2003). Walking with Rosie: A cautionary tale of early reading instruction. *Educational Leadership*, *60*(7), 12–18.

Juel, C., Griffith, P. L., & Gough, P. B. (1986). Acquisition of literacy: A longitudinal study of children in first and second grade. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78, 243–255.*

Juel, C., & Roper/Schneider, D. (1985). The influence of basal readers on first grade reading. *Reading Research Quarterly, 18,* 306–327.

Kaefer, T. (2020). When did you learn it? How background knowledge impacts attention and comprehension in read-aloud activities. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S173–S183.

Kalantzis, M., & Cope, B. (2025). Literacy in the time of Artificial Intelligence. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *60*(1), e591.

Kambach, A. E., & Mesmer, H. A. (2024). Comprehension for emergent readers: Revisiting the reading rope. *Reading Teacher*, *77*(6).

Kaminski, R. A., Good, R. H., Baker, D., Cummings, K., Dufour-Martel, C., Fleming, K., Knutson, N., Powell-Smith, K. A., & Wallin, J. (2006). *Position paper on use of DIBELS for diverse learners*. Dynamic Measurement Group.

Karchmer, R. A., Mallette, M. H., Kara-Soteriou, J., & Leu Jr, D. J. (2005). *Innovative approaches to literacy education: Using the internet to support new literacies*. International Reading Association.

Kaufman, G., & Flanagan, M. (2016, May). High-low split: Divergent cognitive construal levels triggered by digital and non-digital platforms. In *Proceedings of the 2016 CHI conference on human factors in computing systems* (pp. 2773–2777).

Kearns, D. M. (2015). How elementary-age children read polysyllabic polymorphemic words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *107*(2), 364.

Kearns, D. M. (2020). Does English have useful syllable division patterns? *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S145–S160.

Kearns, D. M., & Cooper Borkenhagen, M. J. (2024). Following the rules in an unruly writing system: The cognitive science of learning to read English. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(5), 712–726.

Kearns, D. M., & Hiebert, E. H. (2022). The word complexity of primary-level texts: Differences between first and third grade in widely used curricula. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *57*(1), 255–285.

Keenan, J. M., Betjemann, R. S., & Olson, R. K. (2008). Reading comprehension tests vary in the skills they assess: Differential dependence on decoding and oral comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *12*(3), 281–300.

Kehret, P. (1998). *Earthquake terror*. Penguin Putnam Books.

Kenavey, L. A. (2016). *A longitudinal investigation of content, resources, and instructional approaches in a basal reading series within a research and policy context*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Pittsburgh.

Kendeou, P., & O'Brien, E. J. (2014). The knowledge revision components (KReC) framework: Processes and mechanisms. In D. N. Rapp & J. L. G. Braasch (Eds.), *Processing inaccurate information: Theoretical and applied perspectives from cognitive science and the educational sciences* (pp. 353–377). The MIT Press.

Kendeou, P., Rapp, D. N., & van den Broek, P. (2003). The influence of reader's prior knowledge on text comprehension and learning from text. *Progress in Education*, *13*, 189–209.

Kendeou, P., Van Den Broek, P., Helder, A., & Karlsson, J. (2014). A cognitive view of reading comprehension: Implications for reading difficulties. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, *29*(1), 10–16.

Kidd, D. C., & Castano, E. (2013). Reading literary fiction improves theory of mind. *Science*, *342*(6156), 377–380.

Kieffer, M. J., & Lesaux, N. K. (2007). Breaking down words to build meaning: Morphology, vocabulary, and reading comprehension in the urban classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(2), 134–144.

Kim, J. S. (2008). Research and the reading wars. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *89*(5), 372–375.

Kim, J. S., Burkhauser, M. A., Mesite, L. M., Asher, C. A., Relyea, J. E., Fitzgerald, J., & Elmore, J. (2021). Improving reading comprehension, science domain knowledge, and reading engagement through a first-grade content literacy intervention. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *113*(1), 3.

Kim, J., Gilbert, J., Yu, Q., & Gale, C. (2021). Measures matter: A meta-analysis of the effects of educational apps on preschool to grade 3 children's literacy and math skills. *Aera Open*, *7*, 23328584211004183.

Kim, J. S., Gilbert, J. B., Relyea, J. E., Rich, P., Scherer, E., Burkhauser, M. A., & Tvedt, J. N. (2024). Time to transfer: Long-term effects of a sustained and spiraled content literacy intervention in the elementary grades. *Developmental Psychology*, *60*(7), 1279–1297.

Kim, J. S., & Quinn, D. M. (2013). The effects of summer reading on low-income children's literacy achievement from kindergarten to grade 8: A meta-analysis of classroom and home interventions. *Review of Educational Research*, *83*(3), 386–431.

Kim, J. S., & White, T. G. (2008). Scaffolding voluntary summer reading for children in grades 3 to 5: An experimental study. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *12*(1), 1–23.

Kim, J. S., & White, T. G. (2014). *Replicating the effects of a scaled-up, teacher-scaffolded voluntary summer reading program*. Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.

Kim, Y. S., & Snow, C. (2021). *The science of reading is incomplete without the science of Teaching Reading*. Grantee Submission.

Kim, Y. S. G. (2015). Developmental, component-based model of reading fluency: An investigation of predictors of word-reading fluency, text-reading fluency, and reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(4), 459–481.

Kim, Y.-S. G., Boyle, H. N., Zuilkowski, S. S., & Nakamura, P. (2016). *Landscape report on early grade literacy*. USAID.

Kim, J. S., Gilbert, J. B., Relyea, J. E., Rich, P., Scherer, E., Burkhauser, M. A., & Tvedt, J. N. (2024). Time to transfer: Long-term effects of a sustained and spiraled content literacy intervention in the elementary grades. *Developmental Psychology*, *60*(7), 1279.

Kintsch, W. (1998). *Comprehension: A paradigm for cognition*. Cambridge University Press.

Kintsch, W. (2004). The construction-integration model of text comprehension and its implications for instruction. *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, *5*, 1270–1328.

Kintsch, W. (2004). The construction-integration model of text comprehension and its implications for instruction. In R. Ruddell & N. Unrau (Eds.) *Theoretical models and processes of reading*, *5*, 1270–1328. International Reading Association.

Kintsch, W., & Kintsch, E. (2005). Comprehension. In S. G. Paris & S. A. Stahl (Eds), *Children's reading comprehension and assessment* (pp. 89–110). Routledge.

Kirby, J. R., & Savage, R. S. (2008). Can the simple view handle the complexities of reading? *Literacy*, *42*(2), 75–82.

Kirsch, I., & Jungeblut, A. (1986). *Literacy: Profiles of America's young adults*. National Assessment of Educational Progress and Educational Testing Service.

Klingbeil, D. A., McComas, J. J., Burns, M. K., & Helman, L. (2015). Comparison of predictive validity and diagnostic accuracy of screening measures of reading skills. *Psychology in the Schools*, *52*(5), 500–514.

Klingner, J. K., & Vaughn, S. (1996). Reciprocal teaching of reading comprehension strategies for students with learning disabilities who use English as a second language. *Elementary School Journal, 96*(3), 275–293. https://doi.org/10.1086/461828

Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., Boardman, A., & Swanson, E. (2012). *Teaching reading comprehension to students with learning difficulties*. Guilford Press.

Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., & Schumm, J. S. (1998). Collaborative strategic reading during social studies in heterogeneous fourth-grade classrooms. *The Elementary School Journal*, *99*(1), 3–22.

Kohnen, A. M., Mertens, G. E., & Boehm, S. M. (2020). Can middle schoolers learn to read the Web like experts? Possibilities and limits of a strategy-based intervention. *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, *12*(2), 64–79.

Kois, D. (2024). Not lost in a book. *Slate*. https://slate.com/culture/2024/05/kids-reading-fun-books-decline-by-nine-crisis.html

Konopka, C. L., Adaime, M. B., & Mosele, P. H. (2015). Active teaching and learning methodologies: Some considerations. *Creative Education*, *6*(14), 1536–1545.

Koretz, D. (2008). "*Measuring up." What educational testing tells us*. Harvard University Press.

Koretz, D. (2017). *The testing charade. Pretending to make schools better*. University of Chicago Press.

Kosmyna, N., Hauptmann, E., Yuan, Y. T., Situ, J., Liao, X. H., Beresnitzky, A. V., Braunstein, I., & Maes, P. (2025). Your brain on ChatGPT: Accumulation of cognitive debt when using an AI assistant for essay writing task. *arXiv preprint*, arXiv:2506.08872, *4*.

Kraft, M. A., & Novicoff, S. (2024). Time in school: A conceptual framework, synthesis of the causal research, and empirical exploration. *American Educational Research Journal*, *61*(4), 724–766.

Krashan, S. (2004). False claims about literacy development. *Educational Leadership*, *61*(6), 18–21.

Kuhn, M., Rasinski, T., & Zimmerman, B. (2014). Integrated fluency instruction: Three approaches for working with struggling readers. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *7*(1), 71–82.

Kuhn, M. R. (2005). A comparative study of small group fluency instruction. *Reading Psychology*, *26*(2), 127–146.

Kuhn, M. R. (2020). Whole class or small group fluency instruction: A tutorial of four effective approaches. *Education Sciences*, *10*(5), 145.

Kuhn, M. R., & Morrow, L. M. (2003). Taking computers out of the corner: Making technology work for struggling readers. In R. L. McCormack & J. R. Paratore (Eds), *After early intervention, then what* (pp. 172–189). International Reading Association.

Kuhn, M. R., Schwanenflugel, P. J., & Meisinger, E. B. (2010). Aligning theory and assessment of reading fluency: Automaticity, prosody, and definitions of fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *45*(2), 230–251.

Kuhn, M. R., & Stahl, S. A. (2003). Fluency: A review of developmental and remedial practices. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*, 3–21.

Labaree, D. F. (2010). How Dewey lost: The victory of David Snedden and social efficiency in the reform of American education. In *Pragmatism and modernities* (pp. 163–188). Brill.

Labbo, L. D., Love, M. S., & Ryan, T. (2007). A vocabulary flood: Making words "sticky" with computer-response activities. *The Reading Teacher*, *60*(6), 582–588.

LaBerge, D., & Samuels, S. J. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. *Cognitive Psychology*, *6*, 293–323.

Lane, B. (2015). After the END. *Teaching and learning creative revision.* Heinemann.

Langer, J. (1998). Thinking and doing literature: An eight-year study. *English Journal*, *87*(2), 16–23.

Language and Reading Research Consortium. (2015). Learning to read: Should we keep things simple? *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(2), 151–169.

Le Bigot, L. L., & Rouet, J. F. (2007). The impact of presentation format, task assignment, and prior knowledge on students' comprehension of multiple online documents. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *39*(4), 445–470.

Leavitt, J. (1832). *Easy lessons in reading*. J. and J. W. Prentiss.

Lee, H., Chung, H. Q., Zhang, Y., Abedi, J., & Warschauer, M. (2020). The effectiveness and features of formative assessment in US K-12 education: A systematic review. *Applied Measurement in Education*, *33*(2), 124–140.

Lems, K. (2011). Pun work helps English learners get the joke. *The Reading Teacher*, *65*(3), 197–202.

Lenski, S. D., Ehlers-Zavala, F., Daniel, M. C., & Sun-Irminger, X. (2006). Assessing English-Language learners in mainstream classrooms. *The Reading Teacher, 60*(1), 24-34.

Lepore, J. (2018). *These truths: History of the United States*. W.W. Norton & Company.

Leslie, L., & Allen, L. (1999). Factors that predict success in an early literacy intervention project. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *34*(4), 404–424.

Leslie, L., & Caldwell, J. (2020). *The qualitative reading inventory-7*. Pearson.

Lesaux, N. K., & Siegel, L. S. (2003). The development of reading in children who speak English as a second language. *Developmental psychology, 39*(6), 1005.

Leu, D. J., Forzani, E., Burlingame, C., Kulikowich, J., Sedransk, N., Coiro, J., & Kennedy, C. (2013). The new literacies of online research and comprehension: Assessing and preparing students for the 21st century with Common Core State Standards. *Quality Reading Instruction in the Age of Common Core Standards*, *219*, 236.

Leu, D. J., Forzani, E., Rhoads, C., Maykel, C., Kennedy, C., & Timbrell, N. (2015). The new literacies of online research and comprehension: Rethinking the reading achievement gap. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(1), 37–59.

Leu, D. J., Jr, & Kinzer, C. K. (2000). The convergence of literacy instruction with networked technologies for information and communication. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *35*(1), 108–127.

Leu, D. J., Kinzer, C. K., Coiro, J., Castek, J., & Henry, L. A. (2017). New literacies: A dual-level theory of the changing nature of literacy, instruction, and assessment. *Journal of Education*, *197*(2), 1–18.

Leu, D. J., Kinzer, C. K., Coiro, J., Castek, J., & Henry, L. A. (2018). New literacies: A dual-level theory of the changing nature of literacy, instruction, and assessment. In M. Sailors & D. E. Alverman (Eds), *Theoretical models and processes of literacy* (pp. 319–346). Routledge.

Levesque, K. C., Kieffer, M. J., & Deacon, S. H. (2019). Inferring meaning from meaningful parts: The contributions of morphological skills to the development of children's reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *54*(1), 63–80.

Lexia Learning, Inc. (2019). *Lexia RAPID Assessment technical manual for RAPID Version 5.0: Grades 3–12*. Lexia Learning.

Liebfreund, M. D. (2021). Cognitive and motivational predictors of narrative and informational text comprehension. *Reading Psychology*, *42*(2), 177–196.

Link, L. J., & Guskey, T. R. (2022). Is standards-based grading effective?. *Theory Into Practice*, *61*(4), 406–417.

Lipnevich, A. A., & Panadero, E. (2021, December). A review of feedback models and theories: Descriptions, definitions, and conclusions. In D. Trohler, T. Schlag, & F. Osterwalder (Eds), *Frontiers in education* (Vol. 6, p. 720195). Frontiers.

Logan, J. A., Piasta, S. B., Purtell, K. M., Nichols, R., & Schachter, R. E. (2024). Early childhood language gains, kindergarten readiness, and Grade 3 reading achievement. *Child Development*, *95*(2), 609–624.

Longman. (2000). *Longman American idioms dictionary*. Pearson Education.

Lonigan, C. J., Burgess, S. R., & Schatschneider, C. (2018). Examining the simple view of reading with elementary school children: Still simple after all these years. *Remedial and Special Education*, *39*(5), 260–273.

Lovett, M. W., Frijters, J. C., Wolf, M., Steinbach, K. A., Sevcik, R. A., & Morris, R. D. (2017). Early intervention for children at risk for reading disabilities: The impact of grade at intervention and individual differences on intervention outcomes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *109*(7), 889.

Lupo, S. M., Berry, A., Thacker, E., Sawyer, A., & Merritt, J. (2020). Rethinking text sets to support knowledge building and interdisciplinary learning. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(4), 513–524.

Lupo, S. M., Tortorelli, L., Invernizzi, M., Ryoo, J. H., & Strong, J. Z. (2019). An exploration of text difficulty and knowledge support on adolescents' comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *54*(4), 457–479.

MacGinitie, W. H., MacGinitie, K. A., Maria, K. B., & Dreyer, L. G. (2000). *Gates-MacGinitie reading tests* (4th ed.). Riverside Publishing.

Maehr, M., & Midgley, C. (1996). *Transforming school cultures.* Westview Press.

Mandinach, E. B., & Schildkamp, K. (2021). Misconceptions about data-based decision making in education: An exploration of the literature. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, *69*, 100842.

Mandler, J., & Johnson, N. (1977). Remembrance of things parsed: Story structure and recall. *Cognitive Psychology, 9,* 111–151.

Mangen, A., & Van der Weel, A. (2016). The evolution of reading in the age of digitisation: An integrative framework for reading research. *Literacy*, *50*(3), 116–124.

Mangen, A., Walgermo, B. R., & Brønnick, K. (2013). Reading linear texts on paper versus computer screen: Effects on

reading comprehension. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *58*, 61–68.

Mann, H. (1965). Method of teaching young children on their first entering school. In N. B. Smith (Ed.), *American reading instruction* (2nd ed., p. 117). International Reading Association. (Original work published in 1884.)

Manyak, P. (2007). Character trait vocabulary: A schoolwide approach. *The Reading Teacher*, *60*(6), 574–577.

Manyak, P., Blachowics, C. L., & Graves, M. F. (2020). The multifaceted, comprehensive vocabulary instructional program: Quantitative findings from a three-year formative experiment. *Literacy Research and Instruction, 60*(4), 301–331.

Manyak, P. C., Baumann, J. F., & Manyak, A. M. (2018). Morphological analysis instruction in the elementary grades: Which morphemes to teach and how to teach them. *The Reading Teacher*, *72*(3), 289–300.

Marieswari, M., & Prema, N. (2016). Effectiveness of peer tutoring in learning English among tutors and tutees of class VIII students in Kancjeepiram DT. *English Language Teaching, 9*(11), 1–5.

Marshall, J. (2000). Response to literature. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 381–402). Erlbaum.

Martinez, M., Roser, N. L., & Strecker, S. (1998). "I never thought I could be a star": A Readers Theatre ticket to fluency. *The Reading Teacher*, *52*(4), 326–334.

Marulis, L. M., & Neuman, S. B. (2010). The effects of vocabulary intervention on young children's word learning: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *80*(3), 300–335.

Marzano, R. J. (2000). *Transforming classroom grading*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Massaro, D. W. (2017). Reading aloud to children: Benefits and implications for acquiring literacy before schooling begins. *The American Journal of Psychology*, *130*(1), 63–72.

Mather, N., Sammons, J., & Schwartz, J. (2006). Adaptations of the Names Test: Easy-to-use phonics assessments. *The Reading Teacher*, *60*(2), 114–122.

Mathes, P. G., Denton, C. A., Fletcher, J. M., Anthony, J. L., Francis, D. J., & Schatschneider, C. (2005). The effects of theoretically different instruction and student characteristics on the skills of struggling readers. *Reading Research Quarterly, 40*(2), 148–182.

May, L., Crisp, T., Bingham, G. E., Schwartz, R. S., Pickens, M. T., & Woodbridge, K. (2020). The durable, dynamic nature of genre and science: A purpose-driven typology of science trade books. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*(3), 399–418.

McAdams, D. P. (2011). Narrative identity. In S. J. Schwarts, K. Luycks, & V. L. Vignoles (Eds), *Handbook of identity theory and research* (pp. 99–115). Springer.

McCarthy, K. S., & McNamara, D. S. (2021). The multidimensional knowledge in text comprehension framework. *Educational Psychologist*, *56*(3), 196–214.

McClay, J. K., Peterson, S. S., & Nixon, R. (2012). Parents and communities as partners in teaching writing in Canadian middle grades classrooms: Teachers engage the support of parents and their communities for writing instruction. *Middle School Journal*, *44*(1), 44–52.

McClure, A. A., Harrison, P., & Reed, S. (1990). *Sunrises and songs: Reading and writing poetry in an elementary classroom.* Heinemann.

McGill-Franzen, A., Zmach, C., Solic, K., & Zeig, J. L. (2006). The confluence of two policy mandates: Core reading programs and third-grade retention in Florida. *The Elementary School Journal*, *107*(1), 67–91.

McGuffey, W. H. (1857). *McGuffey's new first eclectic reader* (Vol. 6). WB Smith & Company.

McKenna, M. C., Conradi, K., Lawrence, C., Jang, B. G., & Meyer, J. P. (2012). Reading attitudes of middle school students: Results of a U.S. Survey. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*(3), 283–306.

McKenna, M. C., Kear, D. J., & Ellsworth, R. A. (1995). Children's attitudes toward reading: A national survey. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *30*(4), 934–956.

McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., & Blake, R. G. (2009). Rethinking reading comprehension instruction: A comparison of instruction for strategies and content approaches. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *44*(3), 218–253.

McKeown, M. G., Deane, P. D., & Lawless, R. R. (2017). *Vocabulary assessment to support instruction: Building rich word-learning experiences*. Guilford Publications.

McMaster, K. L., van den Broek, P., Espin, C. A., Pinto, V., Janda, B., Lam, E., Hsu, H.-C., Jung, P.-G., Leinen, A. B., & van Boekel, M. (2015). Developing a reading comprehension intervention: Translating cognitive theory to educational practice. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *40*, 28–40.

McNair, J. C. (2016). We need mirrors and windows: Diverse classroom libraries for K-6 students. *The Reading Teacher*, *70*(3), 375–381.

McNamara, D. S., Jacovina, M. E., & Allen, L. K. (2015). Higher order thinking in comprehension. In P. Afflerbach (Ed.), *Handbook of individual differences in reading* (pp. 164–176). Routledge.

McNamara, D. S., Kintsch, E., Songer, N. B., & Kintsch, W. (1996). Are good texts always better? Interactions of text coherence, background knowledge, and levels of understanding in learning from text. *Cognition and Instruction*, *14*(1), 1–43.

McNeil, L. (2002). *Contradictions of school reform: Educational costs of standardized testing*. Routledge.

McQuillan, J. E. (2019a). The inefficiency of vocabulary instruction. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *11*(4), 309–318.

McQuillan, J. (2019b). Where do we get our academic vocabulary? Comparing the efficiency of direct instruction and free voluntary reading. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal, 19*(1), 129–138.

McWhorter, J. (2013). Is texting killing the English language. *Time Magazine*, *25*.

Menand, L. (2015). *Out of Bethlehem*. The New Yorker.

Menon, S., & Hiebert, E. H. (2005). A comparison of first graders' reading with little books or literature-based basal anthologies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *40*(1), 12–38.

Merke, S., Ganushchak, L., & van Steensel, R. (2024). Effects of additions to independent silent reading on students' reading proficiency, motivation, and behavior: Results of a meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *42*, 100572.

Mesmer, H. (2019). *Letter lessons and first words*. Heinemann.

Mesmer, H. A., & Kambach, A. (2022). Beyond labels and agendas: Research teachers need to know about phonics and phonological awareness. *The Reading Teacher*, *76*(1), 62–72.

Messick, S. (1993). Foundations of validity: Meaning and consequences in psychological assessment. *ETS Research Report Series*, *1993*(2), i–18.

Meyer, B. J., & Ray, M. N. (2011). Structure strategy interventions: Increasing reading comprehension of expository text. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *4*(1), 127–152.

Miller, G., & Gildea, P. M. (1987). How children learn words. *Scientific American*, *257*(3), 94–99.

Milliot, J. (2024). Middle-grade sales continue to slip. *Publisher Weekly*. https://www.publishersweekly.com/pw/by-topic/childrens/childrens-industry-news/article/95571-middle-grade-sales-continue-to-slip.html

Mills, H., & Jennings, L. (2011). Talking about talk: Reclaiming the value and power of literature circles. *The Reading Teacher*, *64*(8), 590–598.

Moats, L. C. (2020). Teaching reading "is" rocket science: What expert teachers of reading should know and be able to do. *American Educator*, *44*(2), 4.

Moats, L. C., & Brady, S. (2000). *Speech to print: Language essentials for teachers* (p. 304). Paul H. Brookes Publication.

Moats, L. C., & Tolman, C. A. (2019). *LETRS* (3rd ed.) Voyager Sopris Learning Inc.

Mol, S. E., & Bus, A. G. (2011). To read or not to read: A meta-analysis of print exposure from infancy to early adulthood. *Psychological Bulletin*, *137*(2), 267.

Moll, L. C. (1992). Literacy research in community classrooms: A socio-cultural approach. In R. Beach, J. L. Green, M. S. Kamil, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Multidisciplinary perspectives on literacy research* (pp. 211–244). National Council of Teachers of English.

Monaghan, E. J., & Barry, A. L. (1999). *Writing the past: Teaching reading in colonial America and the United States, 1640–1940*. The Catalogue.

Moore, D. W., Readence, J. E., & Rickelman, R. J. (1983). An historical exploration of content area reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *18*(4), 419–438.

Morais, J. (2013). Constraints on the development of phonemic awareness. In S. A. Brady & D. P. Shankweiler (Eds), *Phonological processes in literacy* (pp. 5–28). Routledge.

Morgan, D. N., Valerio, M., & Evans, K. I. (2024). A 20 year guided reading research synthesis: Examining student Data. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, *63*(3), 193–216.

Morrow, L. M. (1985). Retelling stories: A strategy for improving young children's comprehension, concept of story structure, and oral language complexity. *The Elementary School Journal*, *85*(5), 647–661.

Mullis, I. V. S., Martin, M. O., Foy, P., Kelly, D. L., & Fishbein, B. (2023). *PIRLS 2021 international results in reading*. International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). https://pirls2021.org

Murphy, P. K., Wilkinson, I. A., Soter, A. O., Hennessey, M. N., & Alexander, J. F. (2009). Examining the effects of classroom discussion on students' comprehension of text: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *101*(3), 740.

Murray, B. A., Brabham, E. G., Villaume, S. K., & Veal, M. (2008). The Cluella study: Optimal segmentation and voicing for oral blending. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *40*(4), 395–421.

NAEP. (2023). *Long-term trend data*. https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/ltt/reading/student-experiences/?age=9

Nagy, W., & Townsend, D. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*(1), 91–108.

Nagy, W. E., & Anderson, R. C. (1984). How many words are there in printed school English? *Reading Research Quarterly, 19,* 304–330.

Nagy, W. E., Anderson, R. C., & Herman, P. A. (1987). Learning word meanings from context during normal reading. *American Educational Research Journal*, *24*(2), 237–270.

Nagy, W. E., Berninger, V. W., & Abbott, R. D. (2006). Contributions of morphology beyond phonology to literacy outcomes of upper elementary and middle-school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(1), 134–147.

Nagy, W. E., Carlisle, J. F., & Goodwin, A. P. (2014). Morphological knowledge and literacy acquisition. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *47*(1), 3–12.

Nagy, W. E., Herman, P. A., & Anderson, R. C. (1985). Learning words from context. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *20*(2), 233–253.

Nagy, W. E., & Scott, J. A. (2000). Vocabulary processes. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 269–284). Erlbaum.

Najarro, I. (2025, March). Trump has made English the official language: What that means for schools. *Education Week*. https://www.edweek.org/teaching-learning/trump-has-made-english-the-official-language-what-that-means-for-schools/2025/03

Nation, K., Dawson, N. J., & Hsiao, Y. (2022). Book language and its implications for children's language, literacy, and development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *31*(4), 375–380.

National Assessment of Educational Progress. (2018). *2017 NAEP mathematics and reading assessments: Highlighted results at grades 4 and 8 for the nation, states, and districts.* NCES Number: 2018037. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2018037

National Assessment of Educational Progress. (2024). *NAEP report card: Reading*. https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/reading/nation/groups/?grade=4

National Center for Education Statistics. (2022). *Appendix tables: NAEP long-term trend reading age 9, average score results by selected characteristics, 1971–2022* [PDF]. U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/ltt/supporting_files/2022_appendix_ltt_9.pdf

National Center for Education Statistics. (2023a). *Highlights of U.S. PIRLS 2021 results: Reading achievement of U.S. fourth-grade students in an international context*. NCES 2023-048). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2023048

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2023b). *Highlights of the 2023 U.S. PIAAC results.* https://nces.ed.gov/surveys/piaac/2023/national_results.asp

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2025). *Conditions of education*. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. *The Elementary School Journal*, *84*(2), 113–130.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. (2014). *Principles to actions: Ensuring mathematical success for all*. Author.

National Early Literacy Panel. (2008). *Developing early literacy: Report of the National Early Literacy Panel.* National Institute for Literacy. https://lincs.ed.gov/publications/pdf/NELPReport09.pdf

National Governors Association Center for Best Practice & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010). *Common core state standards for English language arts and literacy in history, social studies, science and technical subjects*. Authors. www.corestandards.org/assets/CCSSL_ELA%20standards.pdf

National Library of Medicine. (2023). *MedlinePlus: Screen time and children*. https://medlineplus.gov/ency/patientinstructions/000355.htm

National Reading Panel (US), National Institute of Child Health, & Human Development (US). (2000). *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction: Reports of the subgroups* (NIH Publication No. 00-4769). U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health. https://www.nichd.nih.gov/sites/default/files/publications/pubs/nrp/Documents/report.pdf

National Research Council. (2004). *Engaging schools: Fostering high school students' motivation to learn.* National Academies Press.

Neitzel, A. J., Lake, C., Byun, S., Shi, C., & Slavin, R. (2019). *Effective tier 1 reading instruction for elementary schools: A systematic review*. https://osf.io/xsw2p/

Neugebauer, S. R., Gámez, P. B., Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D. B., Cólon, I. T., & Ware, S. (2017). Promoting word consciousness to close the vocabulary gap in young word learners. *The Elementary School Journal, 118*(1), 28–54.

Neuman, S. B., Quintero, E., & Reist, K. (2025). *Bringing the rocket science of reading to all students recommendations for enhancing state legislation*. America Federation of Teachers.

Nicholson, T. (1991). Do children read words better in context or in lists? A classic study revisited. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *83*(4), 444.

Nilsson, N. L. (2013). Introduction to using informal reading inventories in research and practice. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *29*(3), 203–207.

Nitko, A. J. (1996). *Educational assessment of students*. Prentice-Hall.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, 20 U.S.C. § 6319.

Noddings, N. (2003). *Happiness and education.* Cambridge University Press.

NWEA. (2018). *MAP® Growth™ technical report*.

Oakhill, J., & Cain, K. (2018). Children's problems with inference making: Causes and consequences. *Bulletin of Educational Psychology*, *49*(4), 683–699.

OCED. (2025). *Using technology at school and students' learning outcomes.* https://www.oecd.org/content/dam/oecd/en/publications/reports/2024/12/technology-use-at-school-and-students-learning-outcomes_4c4f92e6/422db044-en.pdf

O'Connor, R. E., Bell, K. M., Harty, K. R., Larkin, L. K., Sackor, S. M., & Zigmond, N. (2002). Teaching reading to poor readers in the intermediate grades: A comparison of text difficulty. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(3), 474.

Oczkus, L. (2004). *Super 6 comprehension strategies*. Christopher-Gordon.

OECD. (2023). *PISA 2022 Results (Volume I): The state of learning and equity in education*. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/53f23881-en

Ogle, D. M. (1986). KWL: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *The Reading Teacher*, *39*(6), 564–570.

Okkinga, M., van Steensel, R., van Gelderen, A. J., van Schooten, E., Sleegers, P. J., & Arends, L. R. (2018). Effectiveness of reading-strategy interventions in whole classrooms: A meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, *30*(4), 1215–1239.

Oláh, L. N., Lawrence, N. R., & Riggan, M. (2010). Learning to learn from benchmark assessment data: How teachers analyze results. *Peabody Journal of Education*, *85*(2), 226–245.

Ong, W. J., & Hartley, J. (2013). *Orality and literacy*. Routledge.

Ophir, E., Nass, C., & Wagner, A. (2009). Cognitive control in media multitaskers. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0903620106

Otto, W., & Askov, E. N. (1971). *Wisconsin design for reading skill development: Rationale and guidelines*. National Computer Systems, Incorporated.

Oudega, M., & van den Broek, P. (2018). Standards of coherence in reading: Variations in processing and comprehension of text. In K. K. Millis, D. Long, J. Magliano, & K. Wiemer (Eds), *Deep comprehension* (pp. 41–51). Routledge.

Paige, D. D., Rasinski, T. V., & Magpuri-Lavell, T. (2012). Is fluent, expressive reading important for high school readers? *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *56*(1), 67–76.

Palincsar, A., & David, Y. (1991). Promoting literacy through classroom dialogue. In E. H. Hiebert (Ed.), *Literacy for a diverse society: Perspectives, practices, and policies* (pp. 122–140). Teachers College Press.

Palinscar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, *1*(2), 117–175.

Papadakis, S., Kalogiannakis, M., & Zaranis, N. (2018). The effectiveness of computer and tablet assisted intervention in early childhood students' understanding of numbers. An empirical study conducted in Greece. *Education and Information Technologies*, *23*, 1849–1871.

Paré, A., & Smart, G. (1994). Observing genres in action: Towards a research methodology. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 146–154). Taylor & Francis.

Paris, A. H., & Paris, S. G. (2003). Assessing narrative comprehension in young children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *38*(1), 36–76.

Paris, S. G. (2005). Reinterpreting the development of reading skills. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *40*(2), 184–202.

Paris, S. G. (2026). The simple view of reading is not so simple: Fundamental problems and suggested alternatives. In M. Sailors, I. Nuñez, V. Watson, D. Alvermann, & J. Hoffman (Eds.), *Theories, models, and practices of literacy* (8th ed.). Routledge.

Paris, S. G., Lipson, M. Y., & Wixson, K. K. (1983). Becoming a strategic reader. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *8*(3), 293–316.

Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers. (2019). *PARCC final technical report for 2018 administration*. ERIC. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED599198

Pearson, P. D. (1974). The effects of grammatical complexity on children's comprehension, recall, and conception of certain semantic relations. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *10*(2), 155–192.

Pearson, P. D. (2000). Reading in the twentieth century. In T. L. Good (Ed.), *American education: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow* (pp. 152–208). National Society for the Study of Education.

Pearson, P. D. (2011). An endangered species act for literacy education. In P. L. Anders (Ed.), *Defying convention, inventing the future in literary research and practice* (pp. 246–262). Routledge.

Pearson, P. D., & Cervetti, G. N. (2017). Fifty years of reading comprehension theory and practice. In P. D. Pearson & E. H. Hiebert (Eds.), *Research-based practices for teaching common core literacy* (pp.1–224). Teachers College Press.

Pearson, P. D., & Gallagher, M. C. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *8*(3), 317–344.

Pearson, P. D., Garavaglia, D., Lycke, K., Roberts, E., Danridge, J., & Hamm, D. (1999). *The impact of item format on the depth of students' cognitive engagement*. Unpublished manuscript. NAEP Validity Study Panel.

Pearson, P. D., & Hamm, D. N. (2005). The assessment of reading comprehension: A review of practices—Past, present, and future. In S. G. Paris & S. A. Stahl (Eds), *Children's reading comprehension and assessment* (pp. 31–88). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pearson, P. D., Hiebert, E. H., & Kamil, M. L. (2012). Vocabulary assessment: Making do with what we have while we create the tools we need. In E. J. Kame'enui & J. F. Baunann (Eds.), *Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice* (2nd ed., pp. 231–255). Guilford Press.

Pearson, P. D., & Johnson, D. D. (1978). *Teaching reading comprehension*. Holt Rinehart Winston.

Pearson, P. D., Roehler, L. R., Dole, J. A., & Duffy, G. G. (1992). Developing expertise in reading comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (Vol. *2*, pp. 145–199). International Reading Association.

Pearson, P. D., Salinger, T., Lee, C. D., Uccelli, P., Alexander, P., & Vogt, M. E. (2024). *Response to Ranking Member Bill Cassidy's preventing a lost generation: Facing a critical moment for students' literacy report.* https://casel.org/student-literacy_white-paper/?view=true

Pearson, P. D., & Tierney, R. J. (1984). Chapter VI: On becoming a thoughtful reader: Learning to read like a writer. *Teachers College Record*, *85*(5), 144–173.

Peng, P., Wang, W., Filderman, M. J., Zhang, W., & Lin, L. (2024). The active ingredient in reading comprehension strategy intervention for struggling readers: A Bayesian network meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *94*(2), 228–267.

Perfetti, C. (2007). Reading ability: Lexical quality and comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *11*(4), 357–383.

Perfetti, C. A., & Lesgold, A. M. (2013). Coding and comprehension in skilled reading and implications for reading instruction. *Theory and Practice of Early Reading*, 57–84. Routledge.

Perkins, D. (1992). *Smart schools: From training memories to educating minds*. The Free Press.

Perkins, D. (2004). Knowledge alive. *Educational Leadership*, *62*(1), 14–18.

Perkins, D., & Blythe, T. (1994). Putting understanding up front. *Educational Leadership*, *51*, 4–7.

Pew Research Center Short Reads. (2022). *Three-in-ten Americans now read e-books*. https://www.pewresearch.org/short-reads/2022/01/06/three-in-ten-americans-now-read-e-books/

Piasta, S. B., Connor, C. M., Fishman, B. J., & Morrison, F. J. (2009). Teachers' knowledge of literacy concepts, classroom practices, and student reading growth. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 13*(3), 224–248.

Piasta, S. B., Connor, C. M., Fishman, B. J., & Morrison, F. J. (2009). Teachers' knowledge of literacy concepts, classroom practices, and student reading growth. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 13*(3), 224-248.

Piasta, S. B., & Wagner, R. K. (2010). Learning letter names and sounds: Effects of instruction, letter type, and phonological processing skill. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *105*(4), 324–344.

Picton, I., & Clark, C. (2024). Young people's reading in the United Kingdom. In C. E. Loh (Ed.), *The reading lives of teens* (pp. 18–39). Routledge.

Pilgrim, J., & Vasinda, S. (2021). Fake news and the "wild wide web": A study of elementary students' reliability reasoning. *Societies*, *11*(4), 121.

Pilgrim, J., Vasinda, S., Bledsoe, C., & Martinez, E. (2019). Critical thinking is critical: Octopuses, online sources, and reliability reasoning. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(1), 85–93.

Pintrich, P. R., & Zusho, A. (2002). The development of academic self-regulation: The role of cognitive and motivational factors. In A. Wigfield & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *A Vol. in the Educational Psychology Series. Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 249–284). Academic Press.

Poindexter, C. C., & Oliver, I. R. (1998). Navigating the writing process: Strategies for young children. *The Reading Teacher*, *52*(4), 420–423.

Popham, W. J. (1997). Consequential validity: Right concern-wrong concept. *Educational measurement: Issues and practice*, *16*(2), 9–13.

Popham, W. J. (2019). *Classroom assessment: What teachers need to know*. Pearson.

Pressley, M. (2000). What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. III). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pressley, M. (2002). Metacognition and self-regulated comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (Vol. 3, pp.291–309). International Reading Association.

Pressley, M. (2005). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching*. Christopher-Gordon.

Pressley, M. (2006). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching* (3rd ed.). Guilford Press.

Pressley, M., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). *Verbal protocols of reading: The nature of constructively responsive reading*. Erlbaum.

Pressley, M., Allington, R. L., Wharton-McDonald, R., Block, C. C., & Morrow, L. M. (2001). *Learning to read: Lessons from exemplary first-grade classrooms*. The Guilford Press.

Pressley, M., Dolezal, S. E., Raphael, L., Mohan, L., Bogner, K., & Roehrig, A. (2003). *Motivating primary grade students*. Guilford Press.

Pressley, M., Wharton-McDonald, R., Allington, R., Block, C. C., Morrow, L., Tracey, D., Baker, K., Brooks, G., & Woo, D. (2001). A study of effective first-grade literacy instruction. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *5*(1), 35–58.

Pressley, T., Allington, R. L., & Pressley, M. (2023). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching*. Guilford Publications.

Pritchard, A., & Cartwright, V. (2004). Transforming what they read: Helping eleven-year-olds engage with Internet information. *Literacy*, *38*(1), 26–31.

Proctor, C. P., Dalton, B., & Grisham, D. L. (2007). Scaffolding English language learners and struggling readers in a universal literacy environment with embedded strategy instruction and vocabulary support. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *39*(1), 71–93.

Prose, F. (2012). *Reading like a writer: A guide for people who love books and for those who want to write them*. Union Books.

Pugh, A., Kearns, D. M., & Hiebert, E. H. (2023). Text types and their relation to efficacy in beginning reading interventions. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(4), 710–732.

Purcell-Gates, V. (1989). What oral/written language differences can tell us about beginning instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 42,* 290–294.

Purcell-Gates, V., Duke, N. K., & Martineau, J. A. (2007). Learning to read and write genre-specific text: Roles of authentic experience and explicit teaching. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *42*(1), 8–45.

Puzio, K., Colby, G. T., & Algeo-Nichols, D. (2020). Differentiated literacy instruction: Boondoggle or best practice? *Review of Educational Research*, *90*(4), 459–498.

Quiocho, A. L., & Ulanoff, S. H. (2009). *Differentiated literacy instruction for English language learners*. Prentice Hall.

Rampe, M. (2023. October 27). The U.S. needs to improve foreign language education. *The Tufts Daily*. https://www.tuftsdaily.com/article/2023/10/the-us-needs-to-improve-foreign-language-education

RAND Reading Study Group. (2002). *Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension.* Rand Education. www.rand.org/multi/achievement-forall/reading

Rand, M. K., & Morrow, L. M. (2021). The contribution of play experiences in early literacy: Expanding the science of reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*, S239–S248.

Ransom, J. C. (1979). *The new criticism 1941*. Greenwood Press.

Raphael, T. E. (1986). Teaching question answer relationships, revisited. *The Reading Teacher*, *39*(6), 516–522.

Raphael, T. E., & Au, K. H. (2005). QAR: Enhancing comprehension and test taking across grades and content areas. *The Reading Teacher*, *59*(3), 206–221.

Rasinski, T., Homan, S., & Biggs, M. (2009). Teaching reading fluency to struggling readers: Method, materials, and evidence. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *25*(2–3), 192–204.

Rasinski, T., Padak, N., Newton, R., & Newton, E. (2011). *Greek and Latin roots: Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension.* Shell Education.

Rasinski, T., Smith, M. C., & Campbell, S. (2026). *The megabook of vocabulary*. Scholastic.

Rasinski, T. V. (2004). *Assessing reading fluency*. Pacific resources for education and learning (PREL).

Rauch, D. P., & Hartig, J. (2010). Multiple-choice versus open-ended response formats of reading test items: A two-dimensional IRT analysis. *Psychological Test and Assessment Modeling*, *52*(4), 354.

Ravitch, D. (2010). *The death and life of the great American school system*. Basic Books.

Read, C., & Treiman, R. (2013). Children's invented spelling: What we have learned in forty years. In M. Piattelli-Palmarini & R. C. Berwick (Eds), *Rich languages from poor inputs* (pp. 197–211). Oxford University Press.

Reading Rockets. (2024). *Concept-oriented reading instruction*. https://www.readingrockets.org/topics/comprehension/articles/concept-oriented-reading-instruction-cori

Reinking, D., Hruby, G. G., & Risko, V. J. (2023). Legislating phonics: Settled science or political polemics? *Teachers College Record*, *125*(1), 104–131.

Reinking, D., & Yaden, D. B., Jr (2021). Do we need more productive theorizing? A commentary. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(3), 383–399.

Renkl, A., Mandl, H., & Gruber, H. (1996). Inert knowledge: Analyses and remedies. *Educational Psychologist*, *31*(2), 115–121.

Reutzel, D. R., Child, A., Jones, C. D., & Clark, S. K. (2014). Explicit instruction in core reading programs. *The Elementary School Journal*, *114*(3), 406–430.

Reutzel, D. R., Jones, C. D., Fawson, P. C., & Smith, J. A. (2008). Scaffolded silent reading: A complement to guided repeated oral reading that works! *The Reading Teacher*, *62*(3), 194–207.

Reynolds, D., & Goodwin, A. (2016). Supporting students reading complex texts: Evidence for motivational scaffolding. *Aera Open*, *2*(4), 2332858416680353.

Reynolds, R. E., & Anderson, R. C. (1982). Influence of questions on the allocation of attention during reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *74*(5), 623.

Richards, I. A. (1926). *Poetries and sciences* (Vol. 2). Routledge & Kegan Paul, Limited.

Richardson, J. (2009). *The next step in guided reading*. Scholastic.

Rinsky, L. A. (1993). *Teaching word recognition skills*. Gorsuch Scarisbrick.

Roessing, L. (2009). *The write to read: Response journals that increase comprehension*. Corwin Press.

Romeo, R. R., Segaran, J., Leonard, J. A., Robinson, S., West, M. R., Mackey, A. P., Yendiki, A, Rowe, M. L., & Gabrieli, J. D. E. (2022). Socioeconomic status and reading outcomes. *Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience, 53*, Article 101087. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcn.2021.101087

Rosenblatt, L. (1978). *The reader, the text, the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work*. Southern Illinois Press.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1938/1995). *Literature as exploration.* Modern Language Association.

Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1994). Reciprocal teaching: A review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, *64*(4), 479–530.

Rosenshine, B., Meister, C., & Chapman, S. (1996). Teaching students to generate questions: A review of the intervention studies. *Review of Educational Research*, *66*(2), 181–221.

Roth, K., & Guinee, K. (2011). Ten minutes a day: The impact of interactive writing instruction on first graders'

independent writing. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, *11*(3), 331–361.

Routman, R. (2014). *Read, write, lead: Breakthrough strategies for schoolwide literacy success*. ASCD.

Ruddell, R. B., & Unrau, N. J. (2004). *Theoretical models and processes of reading*. International Reading Association.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1980). Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension* (pp. 33–58). Erlbaum.

Rupley, W. H., Blair, T. R., & Nichols, W. D. (2009). Effective reading instruction for struggling readers: The role of direct/explicit teaching. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *25*(2–3), 125–138.

Rupp, A. A., Ferne, T., & Choi, H. (2006). How assessing reading comprehension with multiple-choice questions shapes the construct: A cognitive processing perspective. *Language Testing*, *23,* 441–474.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2020). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from a self-determination theory perspective: Definitions, theory, practices, and future directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 61*, 101860. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2020.101860

Rylant, C. (1988). *Every living thing*. Modern Curriculum Press.

Sáenz, L. M., Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (2005). Peer-assisted learning strategies for English language learners with learning disabilities. *Exceptional children, 71*(3), 231-247.

Sales, G. C. (2008–2011). *Word learning strategies* (no. R305S050072). Small Business Innovation Research, Institute for Educational Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.

Salmerón, L., García, A., & Vidal-Abarca, E. (2018). The development of adolescents' comprehension-based Internet reading activities. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *61*, 31–39.

Samuels, S. J. (1997). The method of repeated readings. *The Reading Teacher*, *50*(5), 376–381.

Samuels, S. J. (2002). Reading fluency: Its development and assessment. In S. J. Samuels & A. E. Farstrup (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (3rd ed., pp. 166–183). International Reading Association.

Samuels, S. J., Tennyson, R., Schermer, N., & Hajovy, H. (1988). Adults' use of text structure in the recall of a scientific journal article. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *81*(3), 171–174.

Santoro, L. E., Chard, D. J., Howard, L., & Baker, S. K. (2008). Making the very most of classroom read-alouds to promote comprehension and vocabulary. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(5), 396–408.

Saunders, W. M., & Goldenberg, C. (1999). The effects of instructional conversations and literature logs on the story comprehension and thematic understanding of English-proficient and limited-English-proficient students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *34*(4), 386–412.

Scammacca, N. K., Roberts, G., Vaughn, S., & Stuebing, K. K. (2015). A meta-analysis of interventions for struggling readers in grades 4–12: 1980–2011. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *48*(4), 369–390.

Scanlon, D. M., Anderson, K. L., & Sweeney, J. M. (2016). *Early intervention for reading difficulties: The interactive strategies approach*. Guilford Publications.

Scarborough, H. S. (2001). Connecting early language and literacy to later reading (dis)abilities: Evidence, theory, and practice. In S. B. Neuman & D. K. Dickinson (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research* (Vol. 1, pp. 97–110). Guilford Press.

Scharping, M. (2025). *K-12 Reading market report*. Simba Freedonia Group.

Schiefele, U., & Löweke, S. (2018). The nature, development, and effects of elementary students' reading motivation profiles. *Reading Research Quarterly, 53*(4), 405–421.

Schiefele, U., & Schaffner, E. (2016). Factorial and construct validity of a new instrument for the assessment of reading motivation. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *51*(2), 221–237.

Schiefele, U., Schaffner, E., Moller, J., & Wigfield, A. (2012). Dimensions of reading motivations and their relation to reading behavior and competence. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*, 427–463.

Schneider, S. (2015–2019). *Word learning strategies: A program for upper elementary students* (IES Award #R305A150108, Goal 3 Efficacy Study). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Research.

Schraw, G., & Dennison, R. S. (1994). Assessing metacognitive awareness. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *19*(4), 460–475.

Schwanenflugel, P. J., Hamilton, A. M., Kuhn, M. R., Wisenbaker, J. M., & Stahl, S. A. (2004). Becoming a fluent reader: Reading skill and prosodic features in the oral reading of young readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *96*(1), 119.

Schwanenflugel, P. J., & Kuhn, M. R. (2015). Reading fluency. In P. Afflerbach (Ed.), *Handbook of individual differences in reading* (pp. 107–119). Routledge.

Scott, J. A., Skobel, B. J., & Wells, J. (2016). *The word-conscious classroom.* TextProject.

Seidenberg, M. (2017). *Language at the speed of sight: How we read, why so many can't, and what can be done about it*. Basic Books.

Seidenberg, M. S., Cooper Borkenhagen, M., & Kearns, D. M. (2020). Lost in translation? Challenges in connecting reading science and educational practice. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S119–S130.

Seidenberg, M. S., & MacDonald, M. C. (2018). The impact of language experience on language and reading: A statistical learning approach. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *38*(1), 66–83.

Selwyn, N. (2021). *Education and technology: Key issues and debates*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Senate Committee on Health, Education, Labor & Pensions. (2024). *Preventing a lost generation: Facing a critical moments for students'* literacy. https://www.help.senate.gov/imo/media/doc/literacy_report.pdf

Serravallo, J. (2015). *Reading strategies book*. Heinemann.

Shahaeian, A., Wang, C., Tucker-Drob, E., Geiger, V., Bus, A. G., & Harrison, L. J. (2018). Early shared reading, socioeconomic status, and children's cognitive and school competencies: Six years of longitudinal evidence. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *22*(6), 485–502.

Shanahan, T. (2016). Relationships between reading and writing development. In C. A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (2nd ed., pp. 194–207). The Guilford Press.

Shanahan, T. (2019, February 9). *Which texts for teaching reading: Decodable, predictable, or controlled vocabulary?* Shanahan on Literacy. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/which-texts-for-teaching-reading-decodable-predictable-or-controlled-vocabulary

Shanahan, T. (2023a). *Shanahan on literacy*. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/what-about-the-new-research-that-says-phonics-instruction-isnt-very-important

Shanahan, T. (2023b). *Why the main idea is not the main idea or how best to teach reading comprehension*. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/why-main-idea-is-not-the-main-idea-or-how-best-to-teach-reading-comprehension

Shanahan, T. (2024a). *'Tis the season of test prep: Bah Humbug*. Shanahan on Literacy. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/tis-the-season-of-test-prep-bah-humbug

Shanahan, T. (2024b). *Shanahan on literacy*. https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/the-instructional-level-concept-revisited-teaching-with-complex-text-1

Shanahan, T. (2025a). *Leveled reading, leveled lives: How students' reading achievement has been held back and what we can do about it*. Harvard Education Press.

Shanahan, T. (2025b). *Leveled texts, leveled lives.* Harvard Educational Press.

Shanahan, T. (2025c, January 4). *Are we getting the right information when it comes to the science of reading?* https://www.shanahanonliteracy.com/blog/are-we-getting-the-right-information-when-it-comes-to-the-science-of-reading

Shanahan, T., & Barr, R. (1995). Reading recovery: An independent evaluation of the effects of an early instructional intervention for at-risk learners. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *30*(4), 958–996.

Shanahan, T., Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2016). The challenge of challenging text. In *On developing readers: Readings from educational leadership* (EL Essentials), 100.

Shanahan, T., & Shanahan, C. (2008). Teaching disciplinary literacy to adolescents: Rethinking content-area literacy. *Harvard Educational Review*, *78*(1), 40–59.

Shany, M. T., & Biemiller, A. (1995). Assisted reading practice: Effects on performance of poor readers in grades 3 and 4. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30,* 382–395.

Share, D. L. (1995). Phonological recoding and self-teaching: Sine qua non of reading acquisition. *Cognition*, *55*, 151–218.

Share, D. L. (1999). Phonological recoding and orthographic learning: A direct test of the self-teaching hypothesis. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *72*(2), 95–129.

Share, D. L. (2004). Orthographic learning at a glance: On the time course and developmental onset of self-teaching. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *87*(4), 267–298.

Share, D. L. (2025). Blueprint for a universal theory of learning to read: The combinatorial model. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *60*(2), e603.

Share, D. L., Jorm, A. F., Maclean, R., & Matthews, R. (1984). Sources of individual differences in reading acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *76*, 1309–1324.

Shepard, L. A. (2010). What the marketplace has brought us: Item-by-item teaching with little instructional insight. *Peabody Journal of Education*, *85*(2), 246–257.

Short, K. G., & Klassen, C. (1993). Literature circles: Hearing children's voices. In B. E. Cullinan (Ed.), *Children's voices: Talk in the classroom* (pp. 66–85). International Reading Association.

Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, *57*(1), 1–23.

Silverman, R. D., Keane, K., Darling-Hammond, E., & Khanna, S. (2024). The effects of educational technology interventions on literacy in elementary school: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *95*(5), 00346543241261073.

Simpson, D. (1986). *The politics of American English, 1976–1850*. Oxford University Press.

Singer, L. M., & Alexander, P. A. (2017). Reading across mediums: Effects of reading digital and print texts on comprehension and calibration. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *85*(1), 155–172.

Skinner, B. F. (1957). The experimental analysis of behavior. *American Scientist*, *45*(4), 343–371.

Slavin, R. E. (1987). *Cooperative learning: Student teams* (2nd ed.). National Education Association.

Slavin, R. E. (1989). PET and the Pendulum: e L-L 1-dl ltl ItIV, 1 C 1 U ll Faddism in Education and. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, *70*(10), 752–758.

Slavin, R. E., & Cheung, A. (2005). A synthesis of research on language of reading instruction for English language learners. *Review of Educational Research, 75,* 247–284.

Slavin, R. E., Lake, C., Chambers, B., Cheung, A., & Davis, S. (2009). Effective reading programs for the elementary grades: A best-evidence synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, *79*(4), 1391–1466.

Smith, C. B. (2002). *Building a strong vocabulary: A twelve-week plan for students*. ERIC/EDINFO Press.

Smith, F. (1971). *Understanding reading: A psycholinguistic analysis of reading and learning to read.* Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Smith, L. E., Borkowski, J. G., & Whitman, T. L. (2008). From reading readiness to reading competence: The role of self-regulation in at-risk children. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 12*(2), 131–152.

Smith, N. B. (2002). *American reading instruction*. Newark/IRA.

Smith, R., Snow, P., Serry, T., & Hammond, L. (2021). The role of background knowledge in reading comprehension: A critical review. *Reading Psychology*, *42*(3), 214–240.

Snow, C. (2002). *Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension*. Rand Corporation.

Snow, C., Barnes, W. S., Chandler, J., Goodman, I. F., & Hemphill, L (1991). *Unfulfilled expectations: Home and school influences on literacy*. Harvard University Press.

Snow, C., & O'Connor, C. (2013). *Close reading and far-reaching classroom discussion: Fostering a vital connection* (Policy brief). International Reading Association. http://www.reading.org/Libraries/lrp/ira-lrp-policy-brief—close reading--13sept2013. pdf

Snow, C., & O'Connor, C. (2016). Close reading and far-reaching classroom discussion: Fostering a vital connection. *Journal of Education*, *196*(1), 1–8.

Snow, C., & RAND Reading Study Group. (2002). *Reading for understanding. Chapter 2: A research agenda for improving reading comprehension*. RAND Corporation.

Snow, C. E. (2018). Simple and not-so-simple views of reading. *Remedial and Special Education*, *39*(5), 313–316.

Snow, C. E., Barnes, W. S., Chandler, J., Goodman, I. F., & Hemphill, L. (1991). *Unfulfilled expectations: Home and school influences on literacy*. Harvard University Press.

Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.). (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children.* National Academies Press.

Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (2001). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. National Academy Press.

Snow, C. E., & Kim, Y. (2007). Large problem spaces: The challenge of vocabulary for English language learners. In R. K. Wagner, A. E. Muse, & K. R. Tannenbaum (Eds.), *Vocabulary acquisition: Implications for reading comprehension* (pp. 123–139). Guilford Press.

Snow, C. E., & Juel, C. (2005). *Teaching children to read: What do we know about how to do it?*

Snowling, M. J., Hulme, C., & Nation, K. (2020). Defining and understanding dyslexia: Past, present and future. *Oxford Review of Education*, *46*(4), 501–513.

Snowling, M. J., Hulme, C., & Nation, K. (Eds.). (2022). *The science of reading: A handbook*. John Wiley & Sons.

Solari, E. J., Denton, C. A., & Haring, C. (2017). How to reach first-grade struggling readers: An integrated instructional approach. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, *49*(3), 149–159.

Solari, E. J., Terry, N. P., Gaab, N., Hogan, T. P., Nelson, N. J., Pentimonti, J. M., Petscher, Y., & Sayko, S. (2020). Translational science: A road map for the science of reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*, S347–S360.

Spandel, V. (2005). *Creating writers: Through 6-trait writing assessment and instruction*. Allyn & Bacon.

Sparks, S. D. (2016). Teaching English-language learners: What does the research tell us? *Education Week*, *35*(30), 3–6. www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2016/05/11/teaching-english-language-learners-what-does-the-research.html?r=2135472880

Spichtig, A. N., Hiebert, E. H., Vorstius, C., Pascoe, J. P., David Pearson, P., & Radach, R. (2016). The decline of comprehension-based silent reading efficiency in the United States: A comparison of current data with performance in 1960. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *51*(2), 239–259.

Stahl, S. A., & Heubach, K. M. (2005). Fluency-oriented reading instruction. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *37*(1), 25–60.

Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. (2006). *Teaching word meanings.* Erlbaum.

Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. E. (2007). *Teaching word meanings*. Routledge.

Stanovich, K. E. (1980). Toward an interactive-compensatory model of individual differences in the development of reading fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *16*(1), 32–71.

Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading. Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *21*(4), 360–406.

Stanovich, K. E. (1988). The right and wrong places to look for the cognitive locus of reading disability. *Annals of Dyslexia*, *38*, 154–177.

Stanovich, K. E. (1991). Word recognition: Changing perspectives. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 418–452). Longman.

Stanovich, K. E. (1992). Speculations on the causes and consequences of individual differences in early reading acquisition. In P. B. Gough, L. C. Ehri, & R. Treiman (Eds.), *Reading acquisition* (pp. 307–342). Erlbaum.

Stanovich, K. E. (1994). Constructivism in reading education. *Journal of Special Education, 28,* 259–274.

Stanovich, K. E., & Siegel, L. S. (1994). Phenotypic performance profile of children with reading disabilities: A regression-based test of the phonological-core variable-difference model. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *86*(1), 24.

Stanovich, K. E., West, R. F., & Harrison, M. R. (1995). Knowledge growth and maintenance across the life span: The role of print exposure. *Developmental Psychology*, *31*(5), 811.

Steacy, L. M., Edwards, A. A., Rigobon, V. M., Gutierrez, N., Marencin, N. C., Siegelman, N., Himelhoch, A. C., Himelhoch, C., Rueckl, J., & Compton, D. L. (2023). Set for variability as a critical predictor of word reading: Potential implications for early identification and treatment of dyslexia. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *58*(2), 254–267.

Steiss, J., Tate, T., Graham, S., Cruz, J., Hebert, M., Wang, J., Moon, Y., Tseng, W., Warschauer, M., & Olson, C. B. (2024). Comparing the quality of human and ChatGPT feedback of students' writing. *Learning and Instruction*, *91*, 101894.

Stipek, D. (2002). *Motivation to learn: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Suggate, S. P., Schaughency, E. A., & Reese, E. (2013). Children learning to read later catch up to children reading earlier. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *28*(1), 33–48.

Sulzby, E., & Teale, W. (1996). Emergent literacy. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 727–758). Longman.

Sung, Y. T., Chang, K. E., & Liu, T. C. (2016). The effects of integrating mobile devices with teaching and learning on students' learning performance: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. *Computers & Education*, *94*, 252–275.

Swire-Thompson, B., & Lazer, D. (2020). Public health and online misinformation: Challenges and recommendations. *Annual Review of Public Health*, *41*, 433–451.

Tanner, D., & Tanner, L. (1995). C*urriculum development: Theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Merrill.

Taylor, B. M., & Beach, R. W. (1984). The effects of text structure instruction on middle-grade students' comprehension and production of expository text. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *19*(2), 134–146.

Taylor, B. M., Frye, B. J., & Maruyama, G. M. (1990). Time spent reading and reading growth. *American Educational Research Journal, 27*(2), 351-362.

Taylor, B. M., & Pearson, P. D. (Eds.). (2005). *Teaching reading: Effective schools, accomplished teachers*. Routledge.

Taylor, B. M., Pearson, P. D., Clark, K., & Walpole, S. (2000). Effective schools and accomplished teachers: Lessons about primary-grade reading instruction in low-income schools. *Elementary School Journal, 101,* 121–165.

Taylor, B. M., Pearson, P. D., Peterson, D. S., & Rodriguez, M. C. (2003). Reading growth in high-poverty classrooms: The influence of teacher practices that encourage cognitive engagement in literacy learning. *The Elementary School Journal*, *104*(1), 3–28.

Taylor, B. M., Pressley, M., & Pearson, P. D. (2002). Research-supported characteristics of schools and teachers that promote reading achievement. In B. M. Taylor & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Teaching reading: Effective schools, accomplished teachers* (pp. 361–373). Erlbaum.

Tegmark, M., Vinterek, M., Alatalo, T., & Winberg, M. (2025). The complex relationship between teachers' instructional practices and students' reading amount. *Reading Research Quarterly, 60*(1), e561.

The New England Primer. (1777). Edward Draper.

Thomas, P. L. (2022). *How to end the reading war and serve the literacy needs of all students: A primer for parents, policy makers, and people who care*. Information Age Publishing.

Thompson, G. B., & Johanston, R. S. (2000). Are nonword and other phonological deficits indicative of a failed reading process? *Reading and Writing*, *12*, 63–97. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008048712877

Thorndyke, P. (1977). Cognitive structures in comprehension and memory of narrative discourse. *Cognitive Psychology, 9*, 97–110.

Tierney, R., & Pearson, P. D. (2024). *Fact-checking the science of reading*. Literacy Research Commons.

Tierney, R. J., & Pearson, P. D. (2021). *A history of literacy education: Waves of research and practice*. Teachers College Press.

Tierney, R.T. & Cunningham, J. W. (1984). *Research on teaching reading comprehension.* In (P.D. Pearson, R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, & P. Mosenthal) Handbook of Reading Research. Longman.

Tollefson, J. W. (1995). Introduction: Language policy, power, and inequality. In J. W. Tollefson (Ed.), *Power and inequality in language education* (pp. 1–9). Cambridge University Press.

Torppa, M., Niemi, P., Vasalampi, K., Lerkkanen, M. K., Tolvanen, A., & Poikkeus, A. M. (2020). Leisure reading (but not any kind) and reading comprehension support each other—A longitudinal study across grades 1 and 9. *Child Development*, *91*(3), 876–900.

Toste, J. R., Didion, L., Peng, P., Filderman, M. J., & McClelland, A. M. (2020). A meta-analytic review of the relationship between motivation and reading achievement for K-12 students. *Review of Educational Research, 90*(3), 420–456. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654320919352

Toste, J. R., Fluhler, S. K., Farris, E. A., & Chandler, B. W. (2025). What's in a word? Analyzing students' oral reading fluency to inform instructional decision-making. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *60*(5), 251–261.

Toyama, Y. (2021). What makes reading difficult? An Investigation of the contributions of passage, task, and reader characteristics on comprehension performance. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(4), 633–642.

Toyama, Y., Hiebert, E. H., & Pearson, P. D. (2017). An analysis of the text complexity of leveled passages in four popular classroom reading assessments. *Educational Assessment*, *22*(3), 139–170.

Trainin, G., Hiebert, E. H., & Wilson, K. M. (2015). A comparison of reading rates, comprehension, and stamina in oral and silent reading of fourth-grade students. *Reading Psychology*, *36*(7), 595–626.

Treiman, R. (2018). Teaching and learning spelling. *Child Development Perspectives*, *12*(4), 235–239.

Treiman, R., & Rodriguez, K. (1999). Young children use letter names in learning to read words. *Psychological Science*, *10*(4), 334–338.

Troia, G. A., Lin, S. J. C., Cohen, S., & Monroe, B. W. (2011). A year in the writing workshop: Linking writing instruction practices and teachers' epistemologies and beliefs about writing instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, *112*(1), 155–182.

Truckenmiller, A. J., Cho, E., Bourgeois, S., & Friedman, E. (2024). Uses and misuses of commercial reading assessment: An applied framework for decision making in grades K through 6. *The Reading Teacher*, *77*(5), 609–623.

Tuma, A. P., Suo, G., Eagan, J., Kaufman, J. H., Doan, S., Lee, S., & Suryavanshi, A. (2023). *The 2023 American instructional resources survey*. RAND.

Tunmer, W. E., & Nicholson, T. (2011). The development and teaching of word recognition skill. In *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. IV, pp. 405–431). Routledge.

Turner, J., & Paris, S. G. (2010). How literacy tasks influence children's motivation for literacy. *Essential Readings on Motivation: International Reading Association.*

Twenge, J. M., Martin, G. N., & Spitzberg, B. H. (2019). Trends in US Adolescents' media use, 1976–2016: The rise of digital media, the decline of TV, and the (near) demise of print. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture*, *8*(4), 329.

Tyner, A., & Kabourek, S. (2020). *Social studies instruction and reading comprehension: Evidence from the early childhood longitudinal study*. Thomas B. Fordham Institute.

U.S. Department of Education. (1983, April). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform*. The National Commission on Excellence in Education.

U.S. Department of Education. (2025). *Grant priorities will inform department discretionary grant programs*. https://www.ed.gov/about/news/press-release/us-department-of-education-releases-secretary-mcmahons-supplemental-grant-priorities

University of Oregon. (2018). *Dynamic indicators of basic early literacy skills (DIBELS®): Administration and scoring guide* (8th ed.). https://dibels.uoregon.edu

Usher, M. (2025). Generative AI vs. instructor vs. peer assessments: A comparison of grading and feedback in higher education. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 50*(6), 912–927.

Valencia, S. W., Smith, A. T., Reece, A. M., Li, M., Wixson, K. K., & Newman, H. (2010). Oral reading fluency assessment: Issues of construct, criterion, and consequential validity. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *45*(3), 270–291.

Valli, L., Croninger, R. G., & Buese, D. (2012). Studying high-quality teaching in a highly charged policy environment. *Teachers College Record*, *114*(4), 1–33.

Valli, L., Croninger, R. G., Chambliss, M. J., Graeber, A. O., & Buese, D. (2008). *Test driven: High-stakes accountability in elementary schools*. Teachers College Press.

van Bergen, E., Vasalampi, K., & Torppa, M. (2021). How are practice and performance related? Development of reading from age 5 to 15. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *56*(3), 415–434.

van den Broek, P., Beker, K., & Oudega, M. (2015). Inference generation in text comprehension: Automatic and strategic processes in the construction of a mental representation. In E. J. O'Brien, A. E. Cook, & R. F. Lorch, Jr. (Eds.), *Inferences during reading* (pp. 94–121). Cambridge University Press.

van den Broek, P., & Kemer, K. E. (2000). The mind in action: What it means to comprehend during reading.

In B. M. Taylor, P. van den Broek, & M. Graves (Eds.), *Reading for meaning* (pp. 1–31). International Reading Association.

van Moort, M. L., de Bruïne, A., & van den Broek, P. (2025). Reading comprehension in an online world: Challenges, opportunities, and implications for education. *The Reading Teacher*, *79*(3), 1–14.

Vasinda, S., & Pilgrim, J. (2019). Are we preparing students for the web in the wild? An analysis of features of websites for children. *The Journal of Literacy and Technology*, *20*(2), 97–124.

Vaughn, M., Premo, J., Sotirovska, V. V., & Erickson, D. (2020). Evaluating agency in literacy using the student agency profile. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(4), 427–441.

Vaughn, S., Klingner, J. K., Swanson, E. A., Boardman, A. G., Roberts, G., Mohammed, S. S., & Stillman-Spisak, S. J. (2011). Efficacy of collaborative strategic reading with middle school students. *American Educational Research Journal*, *48*(4), 938–964.

Vandervelden, M. C., & Siegel, L. S. (1995). Phonological recoding and phoneme awareness in early literacy: A developmental approach. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 854-875.

Veenendaal, N. J., Groen, M. A., & Verhoeven, L. (2015). What oral text reading fluency can reveal about reading comprehension. *Journal of Research in Reading*, *38*(3), 213–225.

Vellutino, F. R., Scanlon, D. M., Sipay, E. R., Small, S. G., Pratt, A., Chen, R., & Denckla, M. B. (1996). Cognitive profiles of difficult to remediate and readily remediated poor readers: Early intervention as a vehicle for distinguishing between cognitive and experiential deficits as basic causes of specific reading disability. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 88*(4), 601–638.

Venezky, R. L. (1999). *The American way of spelling: The structure and origins of American English orthography*. Guilford Press.

Verhoeven, L., Voeten, M., & Segers, E. (2022). Computer-assisted word reading intervention effects throughout the primary grades: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *37*, 100486.

Vinovskis, M. A. (2022). Federal compensatory education policies from Lyndon B. Johnson to Barack H. Obama. *History of Education Quarterly*, *62*(3), 243–267.

von Gillern, S., Gleason, B., & Hutchison, A. (2022). Digital citizenship, media literacy, and the ACTS framework. *The Reading Teacher*, *76*(2), 145–158.

von Hippel, P. T. (2018). Inequality in reading and math skills forms mainly before school begins. *Psychological Science*, *29*(6), 1151–1159. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797617746189

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (Vol. 86). Harvard University Press.

Walpole, S., Amendum, S., Pasquarella, A., Strong, J. Z., & McKenna, M. C. (2017). The promise of a literacy reform effort in the upper elementary grades. *The Elementary School Journal*, *118*(2), 257–280.

Walpole, S., & McKenna, M. C. (2007). *Differentiated reading instruction: Strategies for the primary grades*. Guilford Press.

Walpole, S., McKenna, M. C., & Philippakos, Z. A. (2011). *Differentiated reading instruction in grades 4 and 5: Strategies and resources*. Guilford Press.

Walsh-Moorman, E., & Hovick, K. (2021). "This Is Crazy . . . She's Real": How fourth-grade readers establish source authority. *The Reading Teacher*, *74*(5), 559–568.

Wang, D. (2009). Factors affecting the comprehension of global and local main idea. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, *39*(2), 34–52.

Wanzek, J., Wexler, J., Vaughn, S., & Ciullo, S. (2010). Reading interventions for struggling readers in the upper elementary grades: A synthesis of 20 years of research. *Reading and Writing*, *23*, 889–912.

Watts-Taffe, S., Fisher, P., & Blachowiz, C. (2017). Vocabulary instruction: Research and Practice. In D. Lapp & D. Fisher (Eds.), *The handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (4th ed., pp. 130–161). Routledge.

Webb, S., Massey, D., Goggans, M., & Flajole, K. (2019). Thirty-five years of the gradual release of responsibility: Scaffolding toward complex and responsive teaching. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(1), 75–83.

Webster, N. (1790). *The little reader's assistant*. Elisha Babcock.

Webster, N. (1821). *The American spelling book: Containing the rudiments of the English language, for the use of schools in the United States*. Holbrook and Fessenden.

Welsch, J. G., Powell, J. J., & Robnolt, V. J. (2019). Getting to the core of close reading: What do we really know and what remains to be seen? *Reading Psychology*, *40*(1), 95–116.

Werderich, D. E. (2006). The teacher's response process in dialogue journals. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, *47*(1), 4.

Wertsch, J. V. (1998). *Mind as action.* Oxford University Press.

Westby, C., Culatta, B., Lawrence, B., & Hall-Kenyon, K. (2010). Summarizing expository texts. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *30*(4), 275–287.

Wexler, N. (2020). *The Knowledge Gap: The hidden cause of America's broken education system—And how to fix it*. Penguin.

Wharton-McDonald, R., Pressley, M., & Hampston, J. M. (1998). Literacy instruction in nine first-grade classrooms: Teacher characteristics and student achievement. *Elementary School Journal, 99,* 101–128.

White, S., Sabatini, J., Park, B. J., Chen, J., Bernstein, J., & Li, M. (2021). *The 2018 NAEP Oral Reading Fluency Study*. NCES 2021–2025. National Center for Education Statistics.

White, T. G. (2005). Effects of systematic and strategic analogy-based phonics on grade 2 students' word reading and reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *40*(2), 234–255.

White, T. G., Graves, M. F., & Slater, W. H. (1990). Growth of reading vocabulary in diverse elementary schools: Decoding and word meaning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(2), 281–290.

White, T. G., Slater, W. H., & Graves, M. F. (1989). Yes/no method of vocabulary assessment: Valid for whom and useful for what? In S. McCormick & V. Zutel (Eds.), *Cognitive and social perspectives for literacy research and instruction.* National Reading Conference.

White, T. G., Sowell, J., & Yanagihara, A. (1989). Teaching elementary students to use word-part clues. *The Reading Teacher, 44,* 302–307.

Whitehurst, G. J., Arnold, D. S., Epstein, J. N., Angell, A. L., Smith, M., & Fischel, J. E. (1994). A picture book reading intervention in day care and home for children from low-income families. *Developmental Psychology, 30*(5), 679–689. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.30.5.679

Whitehurst, G. J., Falco, F. L., Lonigan, C. J., Fischel, J. E., DeBaryshe, B. D., Valdez-Menchaca, M. C., & Caulfield, M. (1988). Accelerating language development through

picture book reading. *Developmental Psychology, 24*(4), 552–559. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.24.4.552

Wigfield, A., & Guthrie, J. T. (1997). Relations of children's motivation for reading to the amount and breadth of their reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *89*(3), 420.

Wijekumar, K. K., Meyer, B. J., & Lei, P. (2017). Web-based text structure strategy instruction improves seventh graders' content area reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *109*(6), 741.

Wiliam, D., & Thompson, M. (2007) Integrating assessment with instruction: what will it take to make it work? In C. A. Dwyer (Ed.), *The future of assessment: Shaping teaching and learning* (pp. 53–82). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Wilkinson, I. A., Murphy, P. K., & Binici, S. (2015). Dialogue-intensive pedagogies for promoting reading comprehension: What we know, what we need to know. In L. R. Resnick, C. S. C. Asterhan, & S. H. Clarke (Eds), *Socializing intelligence through academic talk and dialogue* (pp. 37–50). American Educational Research Association.

Wilkinson, I. A., Scott, J. A., Hiebert, E. H., & Anderson, R. C. (2016). Prologue: Becoming a nation of readers. *Journal of Education*, *196*(3), 1–5.

Williams, C. (2018). Learning to write with interactive writing instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *71*(5), 523–532.

Williams, C., & Beam, S. (2019). Technology and writing: Review of research. *Computers & Education*, *128*, 227–242.

Williams, J. P. (2018). Text structure instruction: The research is moving forward. *Reading and Writing*, *31*(9), 1923–1935.

Williams, J. P., Hall, K. M., Lauer, K. D., Stafford, K. B., DeSisto, L. A., & deCani, J. S. (2005). Expository text comprehension in the primary grade classroom. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *97*(4), 538.

Williams, J. P., Lauer, K. D., Hall, K. M., Lord, K. M., Gugga, S. S., Bak, S. J., Jacobs, P. R., & de Cani, J. S. (2002). Teaching elementary school students to identify story themes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(2), 235.

Williams, J. P., Pollini, S., Nubla-Kung, A. M., Snyder, A. E., Garcia, A., Ordynans, J. G., & Atkins, J. G. (2014). An intervention to improve comprehension of cause/effect through expository text structure instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *106*(1), 1.

Willingham, D. T. (2006a). How knowledge helps: It speeds and strengthens reading comprehension, learning and thinking. *American Educator, 30*(1), 30–37.

Willingham, D. T. (2006b). The usefulness of brief instruction in reading comprehension strategies. *American Educator, 31*(Winter), 39–45.

Wineburg, S., Breakstone, J., McGrew, S., & Ortega, T. (2017). Why google can't save us: The challenges of our post-Gutenberg moment. In O. Zlatkin-Troitschanskala, G. Wittum, & A. Dengel (Eds), *Positive learning in the age of information: A blessing or a curse?* (pp. 221–228). Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden.

Wiske, M. S. (1998). *Teaching for understanding: Linking research with practice.* Jossey-Bass.

Wittrock, M. (1986). Students' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 297–314). Macmillan.

Wood, D. J., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem-solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 17*(2), 89–100.

Woodruff, A. H., & Griffin, R. A. (2017). Reader response in secondary settings: Increasing comprehension through meaningful interactions with literary texts. *Texas Journal of Literacy Education*, *5*(2), 108–116.

Worcester, S. (1832). *First book for reading*. Jenks, Palmer & Co.

Wright, T. S. (2019). Reading to learn from the start: The power of interactive read-alouds. *American Educator*, *42*(4), 4.

Wright, T. S., & Cervetti, G. N. (2017). A systematic review of the research on vocabulary instruction that impacts text comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly 52*(2), 203–226.

Wright, T. S., & Neuman, S. B. (2013). Vocabulary instruction in commonly used kindergarten core reading curricula. *The Elementary School Journal*, *113*(3), 386–408.

Wylie, R. E., & Durrell, D. D. (1970). Teaching vowels through phonograms. *Elementary English*, *47*(6), 787–791.

Yopp, H. K. (1995). A test for assessing phonemic awareness in young children. *The Reading Teacher, 49*(1), 20–29.

Yopp, H., & Yopp, R. H. (2022). *Purposeful play for early childhood phonological awareness.* ebook. Teacher Created Materials.

Yopp, H. K., & Yopp, R. H. (2000). Supporting phonemic awareness development in the classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, *54*(2), 130–143.

Yopp, R. H., & Yopp, H. K. (2006). Informational texts as read-alouds at school and home. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *38*(1), 37–51.

Zevenbergen, A. A., & Whitehurst, G. J. (2004). Dialogic reading: A shared picture book reading intervention for preschoolers. In A. V. Kleeck, S. A. Stahl, & E. B. Bauer (Eds.), *On reading books to children: Parents and teachers* (pp. 177–200). Erlbaum.

Zhang, S., & Duke, N. K. (2008). Strategies for Internet reading with different reading purposes: A descriptive study of twelve good Internet readers. *Journal of Literacy Research, 40*(1), 128–162.

Zhang, S., Duke, N. K., & Jimenez, L. M. (2011). The WWW-DOT approach to improving students' critical evaluation of websites. *The Reading Teacher, 65*(2), 150–168.

Zheng, B., Warschauer, M., Lin, C.-H., & Chang, C. (2016). Learning in one-to-one laptop environments: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 86*(4), 1052–1084.

Zickuhr, K., & Madden, M. (2012). Older adults and internet use. *Pew Internet & American Life Project, 6*, 1–23.

Zwaan, R. A. (1996). Processing narrative time shifts. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 22*(5), 1196.

Name Index

A

Abramczyk, A., 90
Adams, J., 515
Adams, M., 3, 47, 120
Adams, M. J., 226, 264, 272
Adams, P., 240
Adler, D. A., 303
Adler, M. J., 414
Afflerbach, P., 22, 381, 382, 384, 438, 440, 443, 444
Agostini, A., 79
Ahn, S., 358
Alahmari, A., 128
Alcini, A., 428
Alexander, K. L., 311
Alexander, P., 4, 23, 73, 424, 431
Allen-Fletcher, C., 64
Allington, R. L., 51, 54, 82, 112, 179, 275, 311, 314, 346
Al Otaiba, S., 242, 252
Altamura, L., 209, 210
Alvarez, L., 428
Alvarez, W., 428
Alves, A., 487
Amendum, S. J., 191
Ames, C., 91
Anders, B., 497
Anderson, E., 390
Anderson, R. C., 2, 11, 21, 46, 62, 106, 201, 207, 295, 311, 315, 344, 346, 379, 424, 446
Anning, M., 63, 64
Anson, C., 481
Arias, M. B., 517
Armbruster, B. B., 201
Artley, A., 192
Askov, E., 45
Atteberry, A., 311
August, D., 344, 375, 515, 517, 535
Au, K. H., 396, 447
Au, W., 136, 137
Avalos, M. A., 538
Aydarova, O., 31, 50

B

Bacon, F., 470, 477
Baildon, M., 211–213
Baker, S., 196, 197, 425, 515, 534
Balu, R., 127, 138
Barone, D. M., 152
Barrett, S., 141
Barrett, T. S., 327
Barr, R., 130
Bartlett, F. C., 381
Barzilai, S., 464
Bassok, D., 223, 295
Bates, C. C., 335
Baumann, J., 65, 300, 344, 356, 360, 365
Baumann, J. F., 122
Baz, J., 503
Beach, R., 481
Beam, A. P., 503
Bear, D. R., 293
Beaver, J., 146
Becker, W. C., 344
Beck, I., 422, 425, 429, 446, 447
Beck, I. L., 120, 188, 197, 203, 205, 244, 247, 273, 281, 282, 284, 286–288, 290–292, 298, 301, 344, 348, 369, 398, 399, 410, 521, 537
Beck, M. E., 244, 281, 282, 284, 286–288, 290–292, 298, 301, 537
Beecher, Ann, 521, 522
Beers, K., 477
Begeny, J. C., 184
Beishuizen, M., 440, 443
Bell, T., 136
Bender, C., 191
Bender, E. M., 34
Benedetto, S., 456
Benjamin, R. G., 184
Bennett-Armistead, V. S., 441
Bennett, R. E., 147
Berliner, D. C., 46, 54
Berne, E. C., 165
Bernhardt, E., 524
Betts, B., 480
Betts, E., 168
Biancarosa, G., 460
Biddle, B. J., 46
Biddle, W. B., 446
Biemiller, A., 328, 346
Bisaillon, J., 428
Blachowicz, C. L. Z., 364, 367
Black, P., 56, 140, 147
Blake, W., 500
Blevins, W., 281
Bloodgood, J. W., 219
Blythe, T., 62, 392
Blything, L. P., 409
Boaler, J., 90
Boersma, A., 427, 496
Bogaerds-Hazenberg, S., 57, 381, 414, 433, 434, 440, 477, 493
Boggs, G. L., 494
Boggs, J., 494
Bogner, K., 51, 92, 93, 102
Bond, G., 45
Bond, G. L., 281
Bond, M., 217
Bone, E., 11
Bowers, P. N., 360
Box, G. E. P., 14
Boyles, N., 24
Brady, S., 283
Branch, T., 540
Branigan, C., 485
Bransford, J. D., 379
Braten, I., 458
Brenner, D., 36, 295, 313, 331, 374
Brindle, M., 470
Bronte, E., 404
Brooks, C., 24
Brophy, J., 102
Brophy, J. E., 52, 55
Brown, A., 46, 438, 439, 449–451
Brown, A. L., 382, 385, 392
Brown, J. S., 60
Brown, L., 130, 326, 327
Brown, M. W., 304
Bruck, M., 228
Bruner, J., 392, 425
Bruner, J. S., 196
Bryant, P. E., 226
Burkhauser, M. A., 427
Burr, V., 17
Bus, A. G., 179
Bush, G. H. W., 2, 3
Bush, G. W., 2, 3, 47, 137
Buttner, G., 444

C

Cabell, S., 63
Cabell, S. Q., 209, 252
Cain, K., 386, 400
Caldwell, J. S., 146
Calet, N., 310
Calkins, L., 67
Callahan, R. E., 135, 136
Campbell, D., 173
Canney, G., 476
Cao, Y., 155
Capin, P., 382, 447
Carberry, D., 499
Carlisle, J. F., 50, 70, 119, 413
Carlson, N., 499, 531
Carol, J. B., 277
Carr, E., 463
Carroll, J., 470
Carter, J., 3
Cartwright, K. B., 4, 14, 15, 21, 27, 378
Castek, J., 384
Castles, A., 67, 378, 386
Castrano, E., 13
Caulfield, M., 458
Cazden, C., 493
Ceci, S. J., 312
Cervetti, G. N., 4, 41, 43, 46, 345, 362, 425
Chall, J., 45, 184, 192, 196, 223, 271, 281, 309, 323
Chang, W. C., 477
Chappuis, J., 146
Cheung, A., 515
Chinn, C., 464
Chisholm, S., 83
Cho, B-Y., 22, 457, 460, 462
Chomsky, C., 327, 328
Christie, F., 392, 490
Christ, T. J., 371, 471
Cimino, C., 35
Cipriano, C., 96
Cisneros, S., 72
Clark, C., 73, 76, 312
Clark, K. F., 407
Clay, M., 130, 168, 301
Clemens, N. H., 226, 242
Clemente, R., 29, 524
Clinton, B., 2, 3
Cobb, L., 41
Cofer, J. O., 318
Cohen, E. G., 60, 90
Cohen, P.A., 530
Coiro, J., 384
Cole, D., 319
Coleman, A., 106, 206
Coleman, D., 48, 49, 413, 417, 517
Coleman, J., 2
Collinge, J., 26, 187, 374
Collinge, S., 393, 394, 481
Colon-Vila, L., 522, 523
Compton, D. L., 184
Compton-Lily, C., 515
Connor, C., 108, 109, 115, 116, 119, 122, 126, 129, 150, 242, 252, 272, 274, 281, 439
Connor, C. M., 32, 52, 67
Conradi, K., 101
Conway, A. R. A., 438
Cooke, C., 506

Cooper Borkenhagen, M., 281, 283, 286, 287, 301
Cooper, F., 191
Cope, B., 210, 213
Corio, J., 211, 212, 457, 459, 460, 463, 464
Costantino-Lane, T., 251
Coulter, D., 496
Coyne, M., 49
Coyne, M . D., 128, 226, 242
Craig, S., 233
Cremin, L., 41
Cremin, T., 314
Cress, J., 249
Crews, D., 289
Cross, D. R., 382
Crowe, E. C., 116
Crystal, D., 500
Csikszentmihalyi, M., 88
Cuban, L., 44, 503
Culham, R., 510
Cullinan, B. E., 78
Cummins, J., 86, 517, 540
Cunningham, J. W., 193, 194
Cunningham, P. M., 280, 291, 292
Curie, M., 494
Curtis, C. P., 379, 394, 396, 401
Cutchins, J., 442

D

Dale, E., 181, 184
Daniels, H., 61, 416, 417
Darling-Hammond, L., 4, 136
David, Y. M., 450
Davila, C., 318
Dawson, M. R., 200
Day, J. D., 385
de Bore, H., 383
Deci, E. L., 90
Degen, B., 29
de Glopper, K., 356
Delpit, L., 106, 476, 520
Demarest, A. J., 43
Dennison, R. S., 84
Deno, S. L., 143, 337
Derewianka, B., 490, 491, 497
DeStefano, D., 456
De Temple, J., 346
Dewey, J., 136, 138, 283
Dewitz, P., 17, 22, 23, 28, 34, 43, 47–49, 54, 62, 67, 69, 70, 78, 83, 108, 110, 122, 169, 170, 187, 199, 208, 209, 219, 220, 222, 234, 236, 252, 256, 275, 299, 317, 357, 374, 383, 385, 387, 391, 399, 401–403, 415, 424, 437, 439, 440, 442, 454, 455, 477, 484, 489, 491, 498, 523
Dickinson, D. K., 15
Dignath, C., 444
Doan, S., 67
Dobbs, A. P., 428
Dobler, E., 457, 459, 463, 464
Dolch, E. W., 277
Dole, J. A., 439
Dolezal, S. E., 51, 92, 102
Donaldson, A. I. M., 485
Donovan, C. A., 232, 233
Dorfman, L. R., 210
Dorn, L. J., 473
Dove, R., 391
Draper, N. R., 14
Dreher, M. J., 399
Drimmer, S. W., 479
Driscoll, C., 494
Duda, E., 428
Duffy, G. G., 59
Duin, A. H., 369, 370
Duke, N. K., 4, 14, 15, 21, 27, 34, 50, 190, 196, 230, 265, 357, 378, 381, 424, 440, 441, 457, 460, 462, 464, 540, 541
Durrell, D. D., 296
Dykstra, R., 41, 45, 281
Dymock, S., 381

E

Eakins, T., 391
Echevarria, J., 532
Edmonds, M. S., 129
Eeds, M., 447
Ehri, L. C., 119, 186, 221, 222, 228, 251, 270, 271, 281, 292, 295, 296, 298, 306
Eisenhower, D. D., 2
Elbow, P., 478
Elbro, C., 380, 402, 466
EL Education (Open Up Resources), 391
Elkerton, A., 29
Elleman, A. M., 27, 57, 118, 265, 378, 386, 400
Ellington, A. J., 503
Ellman, A. M., 168
Elrod, T., 79
Elson, W. H., 192
Emig, J., 487
Enayeh, A., 496
Engel, T., 428
Englert, C. S., 490
Engle, R. W., 438
Ericson, L., 244

F

Farr, R. C., 120
Fawson, P. C., 152
Fernald, A., 344
Fetterman, D. M., 164
Filderman, M. J., 383, 444
Finn, J. D., 174
Fisher, D., 24, 54, 58, 189, 237, 413
Fisher, P. J., 364, 367
Fishman, B., 116
Fitzgerald, F. S., 396
Fitzgerald, J., 412, 541
Flanagan, M., 12
Flesch, R., 45, 192
Fluhler, S. K., 154
Fong, P., 231
Foorman, B., 251, 252, 281, 303
Forbes, E., 34
Ford, M. P., 142
Fountas, I. C., 49, 67, 68, 113, 119, 185, 189, 272, 392, 412, 413
Fountoukidis, D., 184
Franklin, B., 515
Frankweiler, B. E., 380
Frayer, D., 351
Freeman, D., 356
Freeman, M. E., 121
Frey, N., 58, 189, 413
Frith, U., 270, 271
Frost, R., 24, 391
Fry, E. B., 181, 183, 184, 277
Frye, N., 24, 232
Fuchs, D., 126
Fuchs, L. S., 126, 143
Fukkink, R. G., 356

G

Gaesser, B., 188
Gallagher, M. C., 46, 57, 147, 405
Gambrell, L. B., 75
Gamse, B., 47, 138
Gardner, H., 16
Garzon, D., 35
Gaskins, I. W., 271, 293, 296, 298
Gates, A., 43
Gearin, B., 106, 107
Gehrig, L., 543
Gellert, K., 466
Gersten, R., 143, 454, 515, 524, 534, 539
Get Thee to a Punnery (Lederer), 368
Gilbert, J. B., 427
Gildea, P. M., 361
Gillespie-Rouse, A., 470
Goldenberg, C., 106, 107, 122, 222, 344, 375, 416, 417, 484, 515, 517, 519
Gomez, S., 457
Goodman, K., 45, 46, 49, 75
Goodman, Y. M., 168
Good, R. H., 146
Good, T. L., 52, 55
Goodwin, A. P., 200, 358
Gottlieb, I., 191
Goudvis, A., 434
Goudvis, S., 199
Gough, P. B., 14, 150, 230, 265, 270, 272
Goulet, V., 191
Graesser, A. C., 379, 438
Graham, S., 470–472, 476, 477, 483, 487, 490
Grant, U. S., 118
Gratz, A., 353, 395
Graves, B., 86, 98, 448, 485
Graves, D. H., 205, 487, 505, 506
Graves, M. F., 19, 22, 24, 28, 33, 34, 41, 56, 62, 122, 169, 234, 344, 349–352, 355–358, 360, 361, 363, 364, 367, 369, 370, 383, 385, 405, 407, 412, 439, 440, 477, 541, 547
Gray, W. S., 43, 192
Greenberg, M. T., 97, 102
Greenleaf, C. L., 201
Grey, W. S., 43
Griffin, C., 481
Griffith, A., 460
Grigorenko, E. L., 106
Grimes, A., 63
Grønli, K. S., 128, 300
Guinee, K., 233
Gushiken, M., 319
Guskey, T. R., 167
Guthrie, J. T., 73, 74, 90, 91, 124, 173, 174, 390, 440
Gutierrez, K., 418
Gutierrez, R., 29

H

Hacker, D. J., 450
Haidt, J., 320, 500
Haley, A., 99
Halliday, M. A. K., 490
Hall, K., 423
Hall, S. L., 127, 128
Hamm, D., 135
Hamm, D. N., 465
Handford, E., 281, 392
Hanford, E., 4, 39, 49, 67
Hanna, A., 34
Hanna, C., 366
Hanson, J., 380
Hare, V. C., 385
Harris, K., 470, 483
Harris, Z. S., 213
Hart, B., 106, 344, 345
Harter, D., 534
Hartig, J., 466
Harvey, S., 199, 434
Harwayne, S., 497
Hasbrouck, J., 50, 337, 338
Hathaway, N., 207
Hattan, C., 21, 33, 232, 379, 397, 429, 431
Hattie, J., 300
Hayden, T., 521
Heath, S. B., 75, 230, 521
Hebert, M., 381, 432, 435, 470, 476, 481, 493
Heckelman, R. G., 130, 326
Heibert, E. H., 36
Heimlich, J. E., 352
Heins-Israelson, M. H., 335, 337
Henderson, N., 63
Henry, L. A., 211, 384
Henry, M., 500
Heubach, K. M., 330, 331, 334
Hidi, S., 84
Hiebert, E. H., 4, 13, 54, 108, 115, 130, 148, 180, 186, 187, 193, 194, 201, 218, 223, 229, 252, 295, 309, 313, 329, 331, 344, 355, 374, 425
Hiebert, F., 115, 215
Higham, J., 515
Hill, L. A., 462
Hindley, J., 472, 473
Hirsch, E. D., 391, 424
Hjetland, H. N., 226, 228, 229
Hoffman, J. V., 46, 51, 76, 82, 120, 178, 186
Hoover, W. A., 14, 150, 169, 230, 265
Hopping, L. J., 240
Hornof, M. M., 173, 174
Howell, P., 503
Hudson, A. K., 391
Hudson, M., 196
Huey, E. B., 378
Hughes, E., 29
Hulme, C., 3
Hurley, K., 428
Hutchison, A.C., 456

Hwang, H., 196, 201, 231, 252, 345, 379, 396, 424

I

Ihnot, C., 131
Invernizzi, M., 105
Irwin, V., 35
Israelson, M. H., 336
Iversen, S., 130
Ivey, G., 54

J

Jabr, F., 12
Jackson, K. B., 496
Jang, B. G., 101
Jenkins, J. R., 143, 194
Jennings, L., 61
Jensen, M., 49
Johanston, S., 271
Johns, J. L., 146
Johnson, D., 45, 60
Johnson, D. D., 352, 441, 479
Johnson, D. W., 90, 213
Johnson, F., 194
Johnson, L. B., 2, 412
Johnson, M. K., 379
Johnson, N. S., 398
Johnson, R., 60
Johnson, R. T., 90
Johnston, P. H., 51, 87
Jones, J., 67, 122, 209, 455
Joseph, L., 57, 385, 406, 446
Juel, C., 13, 115, 126, 178, 227–229, 264, 265, 272, 295, 298
Juel, J., 82
Juliebo, M. F., 244
Jungeblut, A., 12
Jurkowski, S., 60, 90

K

Kabourck, M., 111
Kaefer, T., 397
Kalantzis, M., 210, 213
Kambach, A., 15, 128
Kamil, M., 524
Kaminski, R., 138
Karchmer, R., 500
Kaufman, G., 12
Kearns, D. M., 194, 266, 283, 287, 295, 298
Keenan, J. M., 146
Kenavey, K., 49
Kendeou, P., 119, 379, 380
Kennedy, K., 98
Kidd, C., 13
Kieffer, M. J., 360
Kim, J. S., 21, 33, 44, 49, 131, 155, 201, 225, 312, 321, 336, 344, 352, 379, 392, 424–427, 440, 455
King, G., 205
King, Jr., Martin Luther, 170, 171, 396, 397, 412, 494, 540
King, S., 504
Kinney, J., 30, 77, 179, 317, 319
Kintsch, E., 386
Kintsch, W., 14, 19, 20, 378, 379, 386, 414, 429, 471
Kinzer, C. K., 211, 384
Kirby, J. R., 14, 360
Kirsch, I. S., 12
Klassen, C., 418
Klingbell, D. A., 142
Klingner, J. K., 439, 450, 453
Kohnen, A., 211
Kois, D., 312
Konopka, E., 54
Koretz, D., 136, 139, 171–173
Kosmyna, N., 35
Kote, G., 319
Kraft, M. A., 111
Krashen, S., 91
Kubiny, L., 30
Kuhn, D., 380
Kuhn, M., 18, 33
Kuhn, M. R., 129, 309, 310, 329, 330, 332, 334, 337
Kusin, Pritchard, C., 191
Ku, Y.M., 477
Kwon, J., 99

L

Labaree, D. F., 136
Labbo, L. D., 346
LaBerge, D., 18, 310, 323
Lane, B., 504
Langer, J. A., 414
Lawrence, C., 101
Lazer, D., 423
Leatherdale, M. B., 63
Lederer, R., 367
Lee, H., 147
Lee, H. V., 428
LeFevre, J.-A., 456
Leibfreund, M. B., 425
Lenski, S., 526
Lepore, J., 2
Lesaux, N. K., 360, 526
Leu, D. J., 12, 22, 211, 381, 383, 384, 456, 460
Levesque, K. C., 358
Lewin, T., 190, 412
Liben, D., 348
Lincoln, A., 118
Link, P. D., 167
Lipnevich, A., 55
Logan, J. A. R., 224
Lonigan, C. J., 224
Lorenz, T. N., 428
Lovett, M. W., 127
Loweke, K., 84
Lundblom, E., 151
Lupo, S., 33, 379
Lupo, S. M., 201, 207–209

M

MacArthur, C., 35
MacDonald, M., 64, 65
MacGinitie, W. H., 370, 546
Madden, M., 456
Maehr, M. L., 91
Malenfant, I., 98
Mandinach, E. B., 145
Mandler, J. M., 398
Mangen, A., 456
Mann, H., 42
Manyak, P., 345, 359, 402, 403
Manyuk, P., 300
Marieswari, R., 530
Marsh, G., 271
Martin, L. A., 193, 194
Martin, R., 196
Marulis, E., 345
Marzano, R. J., 166
Massaro, D.W., 346
Masters, N., 93, 94
Mather, N., 306
Mathes, P. G., 128, 129, 275, 302
Matisse, H., 494
May, C., 206
Mazzoni, S. A., 75
McAdams, D. P., 13
McAuliffe, C., 134
McCarthy, K. S., 379
McClay, J. K., 506
McClintock, B., 494
McClure, A., 81
McEachin, A., 311
McGill-Franzen, A., 48, 311
McGuffey, W. H., 43
McKenna, M. C., 100, 101, 133
McKeown, M. G., 62, 344, 346, 348, 369, 398, 399, 410, 446, 447
McMaster, K. L., 409
McNair, J. C., 317
McNamara, D. S., 120, 208, 383
McNeil, L. M., 171
McQuillian, J., 345, 355
Medina, A. V., 535
Meister, C., 392, 439, 450, 477
Menand, L., 414
Mendoza, M., 63
Menon, S., 194
Merke, A., 311
Mesmer, H. A., 15
Mesmer, H. E. A., 128, 180, 244, 283, 287, 288, 290
Messick, S., 139
Meyer, B. J. F., 432
Meyer, J. P., 101
Meyers, J., 191
Midgley, C., 91
Miguéns, M. A., 63
Miller, G. A., 361
Milliot, J., 11
Mills, H., 61
Minden-Cupp, C., 82, 115, 151, 272, 295, 298
Minter, D., 496
Mitchell, J., 543
Mitchell, M., 319, 470
Moat, L. C., 278
Moats, L., 37
Mohan, L., 92, 102
Mohr, K. A. J., 327
Moll, L. C., 85, 381
Mol, S. E., 179, 311
Monaghan, E. J., 2
Monroe, M., 192
Moore, D. W., 424
Mora, A., 534
Morais, J., 242
Mora, P., 318
Morgan, P. L., 413
Morris, I., 366
Morrison, F. J., 115, 116, 126, 151
Morrison, T., 396
Morrow, L., 380
Morrow, L. M., 260, 286
Mullis, I. V. S., 7
Muñoz Ryan, P., 353
Murphy, P. K., 410, 415, 416
Murray, B. A., 269
Murray, L., 418, 419

N

Nagy, W., 425
Nagy, W. E., 56, 65, 295, 344, 358, 364
Najarro, I., 515
Nation, K., 65, 264
National Commission on Excellence in Education, 2, 46
Neugebauer, S. R., 363
Neuman, S. B., 15, 31, 345, 374
Newton, I., 544
Nicholson, T., 265, 272
Nietzel, A., 70
Nitko, A. J., 166, 172
Novack, R., 382, 383
Novicoff, J., 111

O

Oakhill, J., 386, 388, 400
Obama, B., 2, 3, 137, 166, 428
O'Brien, E., 380
Ochoa, E., 86, 524
O'Connor, B., 393
O'Connor, C., 49
O'Connor, R. E., 120, 127
O'Donnell, A., 355
Ogle, D., 431, 463
Ogle, D. M., 256
Ong, W. J., 200
Ophir, E., 18
Orme, H., 428
Oslund, E. L., 168, 265, 378
Otaiba, S., 116
Otto, W., 45

P

Paige, D. D., 333
Palian, V., 21
Palincsar, A., 46, 382, 392, 438, 439, 449–451
Panadero, E., 55
Papadakis, S., 131
Paré, A., 439
Paris, A., 399
Paris, S. G., 14, 27, 132, 136, 160, 229, 382, 399, 433
Park, C., 99
Parks, R., 171, 208
Pearson, P. D., 21, 41, 43, 45, 46, 50, 57, 62, 70, 94, 102, 108, 135, 147, 188, 332, 352, 371, 379, 381, 405, 424, 465, 466, 471
Peng, P., 383, 384, 438, 439
Perfetti, C. A., 18, 265
Perkins, D., 62, 63, 392
Petruccio, S. J., 534
Piasta, S. B., 35, 67, 70, 108, 128, 219, 229, 246, 247, 301

Picton, I., 312
Pilgrim, J., 210–212
Pimentel, S., 48, 49, 413
Pinnell, G. S., 49, 67, 68, 113, 119, 185, 189, 272, 392, 412, 413
Pintrich, P. R., 84
Pippins, A., 98
Pittelman, S. D., 352
Player, M., 534
Poindexter, C.A., 479
Polk, J. K., 184
Popham, J., 139, 147, 171
Portalupi, J., 473, 504
Prema, K., 530
Pressley, M., 49, 51, 67, 92, 93, 102, 272, 315, 378, 381, 438, 444
Priddy, R., 497
Probst, R., 477
Proctor, C. P., 460
Prose, F., 504
Pugh, K., 54
Pugh, K. C., 120, 194
Purcell-Gates, V., 232, 264, 441
Puzio, K., 52

Q

Quinn, D. M., 321, 336
Quiocho, A., 380

R

Rabi, I., 447
Rampe, D., 517
Rand, M. K., 218, 242, 250
Ransom, J. C., 24
Raphael, L., 92, 102
Raphael, T., 385
Rapinoe, M., 120
Rasinski, T. V., 18, 325, 338, 355, 363
Rauch, D., 466
Ravitch, D., 173
Read, C., 221
Reagan, R., 2, 136
Reinking, D., 4, 14, 67
Relyea, J. E., 427
Renkl, A., 429
Renninger, K. A., 84
Reutzel, D. R., 322, 418, 455
Reynold, R. E., 446
Reynolds, F., 200
Richards, I. A., 413
Richardson, J., 392
Rich, P., 427
Rinsky, L. A., 267, 268
Risley, T. R., 344, 345
Robbins, C., 298
Roberts, D., 319
Roberts, K., 381
Robertson, C., 305
Robinson, H. A., 26, 393
Robinson, J., 494
Rodriguez, K., 229
Roehrig, A., 92, 102
Rohmann, E., 496
Romeo, R., 11
Roper-Schneider, D., 178, 295
Rosenblatt, L., 24, 25
Rosenshine, B., 392, 439, 446, 450, 477
Roth, F. P., 233
Röthlisberger, S., 366
Routman, R., 470, 481, 486
Ruddell, M. R., 14
Rumelhart, D., 20
Rupp, A. A., 173, 174
Russo, M., 535
Ruth, B., 543
Ryan, P. M., 318, 414
Ryan, R. M., 90
Rylant, C., 161, 405, 406

S

Saenz, L., 530
Salmeron, L., 457
Salter, W., 305
Samuels, S. J., 18, 295, 309, 310, 323–326, 437
Santoro, L. E., 197
Saunders, W., 416, 484
Savage, R., 14
Scammacca, N. K., 129
Scanlon, D. M., 272
Scarborough, H. S., 14, 15, 27, 150, 230
Schaffner, E., 73, 84, 90, 100, 101
Scharping, N., 391
Schatschneider, C., 116
Scherer, E., 427
Schiefele, U., 73, 84, 90, 100, 101
Schildkamp, K., 145
Scholes, J., 314
Schraw, G., 84
Schunk, 22
Schwanenflugel, P. J., 18, 33, 332
Seidenberg, M. S., 19, 49, 56, 64, 65, 264, 269, 273, 275, 295, 303, 312
Selwyn, N., 423
Shahaeian, A., 196
Shanahan, C., 424
Shanahan, T., 32, 115, 129, 130, 137, 148, 186, 264, 274, 303, 309, 323, 346, 375, 412, 424, 471, 515, 535, 541
Shannon, D., 63
Shany, M. T., 328
Share, D. L., 12, 19, 64, 119, 224, 265, 270, 295, 301, 303
Shaw, G. B., 125
Sheinkin, S., 30
Shepard, L. A., 140, 141, 173
Short, K., 418
Siegel, L. S., 107, 298, 526
Silverman, S., 490
Simpson, D., 515
Singer, H., 258, 259, 399
Singer, L. M., 385
Skeers, L., 63
Skinner, B. F., 16
Slater, W. H., 350, 351
Slavin, R., 60, 515
Slavin, R. E., 31, 90
Smart, G., 439
Smith, F., 45, 49
Smith, L., 207
Smith, L. E., 127
Smith, N. B., 41
Smolkin, L. B., 233, 234
Snicket, L., 179
Snow, C. E., 3, 11, 14, 47, 49, 106, 108, 109, 178, 225, 228, 281, 344, 346, 414, 465
Snow, J., 63
Snowling, M. J., 3, 106
Socrates, 55
Soffos, C., 473
Solari, E., 49
Solari, E. J., 128
Song, M., 190
Sowell, J., 268, 360
Spache, G. D., 181
Spandel, V., 472
Sparks, S. D., 516
Spengler, B., 190
Spichtig, R., 10, 309
Squire, J., 45
Stahl, S. A., 309, 330, 331, 334, 344
Stanovich, K. E., 17, 25, 107, 108, 264, 272, 312
Starkey, D., 88
Starr, A., 191
Steacy, L. M., 298, 301
Steiss, J., 503
Stiggins, M., 146
Stilwell, S., 427
Stipek, D., 91
Stowe, H. B., 118
Strickland, D. S., 120
Sudyka, D., 63
Suggate, S. P., 223
Sulzby, E., 218
Sung, Y.-T., 336
Swift, T., 494
Swire-Thompson, B., 423

T

Tanner, D., 390
Tanner, L., 390
Taylor, B., 51, 70, 88, 313, 385, 445
Taylor, B. M., 108, 115, 118, 274, 301
Teague, M., 29
Teale, W. H., 218
Tegmark, M., 313, 314
Tenent, A., 450
Thayer, M., 531
Thomas, P.L., 515
Thompson, G. B., 271, 272
Thompson, M., 160
Thorndyke, P. W., 398
Tierney, R. J., 41, 50, 407, 471
Tiffany, L. C., 494
Timperley, H., 300
Tindal, G. A., 154, 337, 338
Tollefson, J. W., 515
Tolman, C. A., 278
Topping, K., 311
Torppa, M., 5, 311, 323
Tortelli, L. V., 186, 194
Toste, J. R., 73, 140, 152, 154, 168
Townsend, D., 425
Toyama, Y., 145, 146, 148
Tranin, G., 189
Treiman, R., 221, 228, 229
Troia, G., 473
Truckenmiller, A. J., 142, 148, 371
Trueman, M., 63
Trump, D., 4
Tuma, R., 391
Tunmer, W. E., 130, 265, 272
Turner, J. E., 126
Tvedt, J. N., 427
Twenge, J. M., 312
Tyner, A., 111

U

Ulanoff, S., 380
Unrau, N., 14
Usher, M., 503

V

Valdovinos, Jovita, 63
Valencia, S. W., 201
Valli, L., 140, 467
Van Bergen, E., 311
van den Broek, P., 189, 409, 439
Vandervelden, M. C., 298
van Hippel, P., 11
van Moort, M., 460, 462
Van Sickle, J. H., 43
Vasinda, S., 210
Vaughn, S., 301, 453
Veenendaal, N. J., 310
Vellutino, F., 107
Venezky, R. L., 286
Verhoeven, L., 131
Vinovskis, M., 3
von Gillern, S., 211
Vygotsky, L., 25, 61, 114, 415

W

Wagner, R. K., 219, 229, 246, 247
Walpole, S., 133, 413
Walsh-Moorman, E., 211
Wan, E., 240
Wang, D., 385
Wanzek, J., 127
Warren, R. P., 24
Washington, G., 205
Watts-Taffe, S., 344, 363, 364
Weaver, C., 49, 67
Webb, N., 57
Webster, J., 490
Webster, N., 42, 515
Wei, W. T. S., 320
Wells, D., 447
Welsch, J. G., 49, 414
Werderich, D. E., 483
Wertsch, J. V., 25
Westby, C., 445
Wexler, N., 252, 391
Wharton-McDonald, R., 51
Whitehead, A. N., 62
Whitehurst, G. J., 232, 346

White, T., 312, 321
White, T. G., 267, 268, 296, 344, 360, 373
Wigfield, A., 73, 74, 90, 91
Wijekumar, K., 434
Wilcox, B. R., 327
Wiliam, D., 56, 139, 147, 160
Wilkerson, T., 3
Williams, C., 489
Williams, G., 30, 490, 491
Williams, G. J., 240
Williams, J. P., 404, 434, 435, 437
Williams, K. J., 503
Williams, W. C., 391, 500, 501
Willingham, D. T., 62
Wineberg, S., 458
Winograd, P. N., 87
Wiske, M. S., 62
Wittrock, M. C., 87
Wood, D., 59, 407, 460
Woodruff, E., 481
Worcester, S., 43
Wright, T. S., 235, 345, 362, 374
Wylie, R. E., 296

Y

Yaden, D. B., 14
Yanagihara, A., 268, 360
Yokota, J., 107, 178
Yopp, H. K., 196, 220, 242, 258, 259
Yopp, R. H., 196, 220, 242

Z

Zang, S., 457, 460, 462
Zevenbergen, A. A., 346
Zhang, S., 211, 213, 460
Zheng, B., 35
Zickuhr, K., 456
Zimmerman, B. J., 22
Zusho, A., 84
Zwaan, R., 400

Subject Index

A

Ability grouping, 45
Academically relevant task, 54
Academic values, 86
Accelerated Reader, 72
Accuracy stage of reading development, 323
Active learning, 55
Active teaching, 54
Adaptability, of reading comprehension strategies, 382
Affixes, 267. *See also* Prefixes; Suffixes
AimsWebPlus, 138
Alliteration, 226
Alphabetic principle, 221–222
Alphabet recognition, 229
American College Testing Service (ACT), 179
Analogizing, 271
Analogy, decoding by, 272
Anchor charts, 78
Anticipation guides, 89
Application and outreach, 411
Art, 113
Articulation, 226
Artificial Intelligence (AI), 34, 35, 63, 209
Assessment, 134–176
  benchmark tests, 137
  commercial assessments, 141
  for English language learners, 544–547
  formative, 138, 140–141, 146
  high-stakes testing, 117, 137
  informal reading inventories (IRI), 141, 142, 168
  progress monitoring, 137–138, 143
  summative, 140–141
  universal screening tests, 126, 141–143
Attitudes, assessing student, 100
Attribution theory, 87
Audio-assisted repeated reading, 327–329
Authentic assessment, 61
Autobiographies, writing, 494
Automaticity, 18

B

Background knowledge, 16, 20, 274, 431
  activating, 129
  building, 380, 431–432
  cultural or experiential, 381
  domain and conceptual, 380–381
Basal readers, 43. *See also* Core reading programs
Basic skills, 54
Basic vocabulary, 347
Be a Mind Reader (game), 280
Benchmark tests, 137
Big books, 237
Bilingual books, 531
Biographies, writing, 494–495
Blending, 290
Book clubs, 53
Book leveling, 185–186
Book reviews, 77
Books
  making, 250
  predictable texts, 193
  selecting, 192–194, 199
Brainstorming, 478–479
Building knowledge, 3, 4, 33, 62, 425–437

C

Caring, creating sense of, 522–523
Challenges, appropriate, 88
Children's Choices list, 76
Choice, 23, 80
Choral reading, 332–333
Chunking words, 18
Clarifying, 22
Classroom assessment. *See* Assessment
Classroom climate, 80–81
Close reading, 24, 49, 391
Clustering. *See* Semantic mapping
Coaching, 300–302
Coarticulation, 226
Cognitive-constructivist view, 16–17
Cognitive modeling, 58–59
Cognitive psychology, 16
Coherence, 187–188
Collect-Interpret-Apply (C.I.A.), 393
Colonial period, 41
Common Core State Standards (CCSS), 3, 27, 28, 31, 40, 48, 179
Comprehension. *See* Reading comprehension
Comprehension curriculums, 390–394
Comprehension lesson, 594–607
Comprehension strategies, 21–23, 34, 381–386
Computers, 91, 107. *See also* Artificial Intelligence (AI); Digital text; Internet
Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI), 74
Conceptual knowledge, 380–381
Conferences, 53, 322
Considerate text, 201
Consolidated alphabetic phase of reading, 271
Consonants
  consonant blends, 282
  consonant digraphs, 282
  consonant-vowel-consonant-silent e (CVCe) words, 287
  consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) words, 266, 286
Consonant-vowel-vowel-consonant (CVVC) words, 293
Construction-integration process, 19–23
Constructivism, 17, 24, 57
Context, 272
Context clues, 355–358
Contextual guessing, 271
Contextualized meaning, 264
Cooperative group work, 85
Cooperative learning, 60, 61, 90
Core reading programs, 47–48, 67, 109, 208–209, 252, 334
Crisis in reading instruction, 2, 49
Criterion-referenced tests, 166
Critical thinking, 12, 34, 90, 521
Cultural knowledge, 381
Curriculum
  comprehension, 390–394
  cycle, 491
  literacy, 31–37
  thematic, 392–394
Curriculum-based measures (CBM), 126, 141, 143

D

Daily schedule, 237
Dale-Chall formula, 181, 184
Dale-Chall Readability Formula, 181, 183, 184
Decoding, 14, 18, 33, 45, 52, 107, 120, 271, 287, 290, 301, 537
  by analogy, 272
  multisyllabic words, 298–300
Department of Education, 4
Derivational suffixes, 267
Developmental sequence, 270–271
Dialogue journal, 482–483
DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills), 138, 141, 143, 167
Diction, 230, 364–365
Dictionary, 361–362
Differentiating instruction, 4, 52, 105, 114–125, 275, 375
  in core reading programs, 122
  for English language learners, 122
Digital text, 9, 11, 12, 34, 76, 100, 209–213, 335–336
Digraphs
  consonant, 282
  vowel, 282
Diphthongs, 282
Direct explanation, 58
Direct instruction, 4, 16, 32, 52, 57, 64–66, 119, 128
Directionality in print, 220
Discussion, 13, 17, 19, 31, 51, 60, 75, 86, 93, 101, 129, 140, 146, 160, 161, 230, 238, 302, 380, 392, 412, 415–419
  in Questioning the Author (QtA), 410, 606
Diversity, 85, 106
Domain knowledge, 380–381, 425
Double-entry journals, 485–486
Drafting, 488
Drama, 411
During-reading activities, 408–410
Dyad reading. *See* Partner reading
Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS). *See* DIBELS
Dyslexia, 107, 127

E

E-books. *See* Digital text
Economically disadvantaged students, 11, 13, 106, 520–524

Editing, 35, 488, 490
Efferent reading, 24
Efficacy, 23, 74, 87
Elkonin boxes, 244
Emergent literacy, 33, 217–260
  assessment of, 257–260
  and curriculum expectations, 222–224
Engagement, 73, 93, 102
English language learners (ELLs), 19, 35, 60, 80, 85, 106, 122, 194, 222, 514–547
  assessment for, 544–547
  booklists for, 79
  comprehension development, 539–544
  differentiating instruction for, 122, 375
  general instructional techniques for, 524–535
  reading proficiency of, 516
  word recognition for, 535–544
Established words, 344
Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), 3, 106, 137
Evidence, 127
Explicit instruction, 4, 31, 32, 40, 52, 57, 58, 64–66, 119, 128, 521
  in phonics, 49
  in word recognition, 265
Expressive instruction, 369–370
Extrinsic motivation, 73, 90
Extrinsic rewards, 91

F

Family, creating sense of, 522–523
Feedback, 40, 55–56, 128, 140, 147, 300–302, 336, 476
Fiction, 3, 13, 43, 186, 201, 378, 494
Figurative language, 188, 539
First 4,000 Words list, 349
Fluency, 4, 11, 14, 18, 32, 33, 49, 50, 64, 107, 120, 143, 148, 152, 154, 157, 194, 308–341
  assessment of, 337–340
  in core reading programs, 334
  individual approaches to, 323–329
  technology and, 334–337
  whole-class approaches to, 330–332
Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction (FORI), 331–332, 334
Formative assessment, 36, 56, 138, 140–141, 146–147
Fourth grade, 1, 5, 7, 9, 39, 43, 48, 49, 52, 53, 58, 83, 118, 124, 156–167, 182, 185, 255, 310, 357, 417, 440, 482, 516, 571
Free reading, 248
Fry Readability Formula, 183
Full alphabetic phase of reading, 271
Functional linguistics approach, 493

G

Genre, 14, 15, 33, 73, 76, 83, 201, 232, 233, 490–502
Genre approach to writing, 490–493
Genre knowledge, 15, 232, 381, 464
Goals, 3, 13, 21, 23, 36, 40, 51, 61, 74, 86, 88, 91, 122, 149, 163, 178, 199, 201, 213, 231, 273, 302, 322, 384–385, 416, 464
  of instruction, 186
  motivation and, 86
Grade-level equivalent (GLE), 172, 182
Gradual release of responsibility model, 46, 57–62, 147
Grammar, 15, 19, 46, 65, 113
Graphic organizers, 51, 59, 125, 436, 492, 495
Grouping, 45, 51, 82–83, 112, 150–151, 157, 160
  heterogeneous, 83
Guided practice, 58, 62, 129
Guided reading, 4, 49, 67, 112, 113, 392, 412–413

H

Heterogeneous grouping, 83
Higher-order thinking, 13, 34, 90
High-frequency words, 277–280
High-stakes testing, 4, 31, 40, 117, 137, 171–175
Home culture, honoring and respecting, 524
Home languages, 519–520

I

Implicit learning and instruction, 40, 56, 64–66
Independent reading, 24, 33, 68, 112–113, 314–323
Independent work, 54, 112–113
Individual differences, 106–109
Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), 138
Inert knowledge, 425, 429
Inferences, making, 16, 22, 57, 118, 159, 161, 169, 386–389, 400–403, 594–601
Inflectional suffixes, 267
Informal reading inventories (IRI), 141, 142, 146, 168
Informational text, 3, 7, 13, 24, 43, 63, 186, 201, 422–467
Instructional conversations, 416
Instructional principles, 40, 50–64, 518
Instructional routines, 59, 220, 284, 287
Integration, 19, 27, 458
Intellectual climate, 472
Intensive instruction, 369–370
Interactive oral reading, 346
Interactive read-alouds, 33, 197, 232–234
Interactive writing, 233
Interest, 4, 23, 73, 76, 84–85
Internet, 12, 34, 76, 209–214
Intrinsic motivation, 73
Invented spelling, 194, 221, 222, 227

J

Journals, 249, 481–486
  dialogue, 482–483
  double-entry, 485–486
  learning logs, 484–485
  reading logs, 483–484
Judicious review, 128

K

Key words, 12
Keywords, 296–298
Kindergarten, 13, 33, 47, 51, 61, 83, 107, 110, 127, 149, 192, 196, 218, 223, 227, 248, 251, 253–257, 489
Knowledge, 4, 12, 16, 18, 20–21, 23, 27, 32, 33, 40, 46, 49, 52, 62, 85, 106, 109, 149, 169, 186–187, 196, 232, 379–381, 425–437, 459–460, 471
K-W-L, 256, 431–432

L

Language development, 33, 230–231
Language-experience approach, 241
Leveled texts, 67, 105, 120, 185, 194
Lexile Framework for Reading, 182
Listening, 18, 65, 219, 263, 345
Literacy curriculum, 31–37
Literate environment, 75–82, 235–236
Literature-based approaches, 45–46
Literature circles, 61, 416–418

M

Main idea, 22, 43, 60, 114, 118, 440–445, 618
Making books, 250
Matthew Effect, 108
Metacognition, 15, 21, 34, 382–383
Metacognitive strategies. *See* Metacognition
Modeling, 33, 51, 54, 57–61, 75, 128, 238, 406, 472, 475, 492, 618
Models of reading, 14–17, 27, 139, 168
Morphemes, 27, 267
Motivation, 11, 13, 23, 27, 32–33, 50, 54, 61, 72–102, 129, 180, 199, 209, 316, 384
Multisyllabic words, 106, 269, 295–302

N

Narrative texts, 186, 377–420
National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 5–7, 10, 49, 192, 516
National Reading Panel (NRP), 3, 4, 31, 47, 296, 309, 311
Neurological impress, 130, 326–327
New Criticism, 24
New Literacies, 12
No Child Left Behind (NCLB), 3, 31, 106, 137
Non-English roots, 359
Nonfiction texts, 3, 7, 48, 51, 63, 113, 174, 186, 201–208, 234, 238
Note-taking, 477–478

O

Onsets, 222, 266
Oral language, 14, 18, 33, 196, 226, 230–231, 263
Oral reading, 53, 152–155, 331, 338
Orthographic mapping, 221, 271, 291
Orthography, 33, 64, 221, 265

P

Parents, 2, 91, 167, 320, 321, 528
Partner reading, 18, 326–327
Percentile scores, 172
Persuasive writing, 491
Phonemes, 21, 221, 225, 266
Phonemic awareness, 3, 4, 21, 32, 33, 47, 49, 50, 52, 64, 106, 112, 116, 119, 126, 128, 141, 143, 151, 194, 218, 221, 225–229, 236, 239, 242–244, 258, 274, 471
Phonics, 2–4, 7, 18, 31–33, 40, 45, 47, 49–50, 52, 64, 107, 110, 116, 119, 126, 128, 141, 143, 151, 192, 193, 229, 237, 281–295, 471, 521, 537
Phonogram, 267
Phonological awareness, 4, 15, 107, 225, 242–244
Physical education, 376, 423
Picture books, 17, 83, 197, 207, 211, 230–231, 429, 494
Play centers, 250
Poetry, 24, 51, 63, 82, 199, 201, 500–502
Post-reading activities, 410–412
Poverty, impact of, 4, 11, 35, 51, 106, 344
Practice, 40, 56, 128
Praise, 91
Predictable texts, 193
Predicting, 21, 382
Prefixes, 267, 358–361
Prereading activities, 380, 408

Prewriting, 488
Prior knowledge, 16, 21, 49, 129, 169, 186–187, 380, 397, 425, 429, 459–460
Process writing, 52, 487–490
Proficient readers, 6–7
Progress monitoring, 119, 126, 137–138, 143, 151–157, 160–162
Prosody, 18, 33, 310, 332–334
Publisher's Criteria, 48–49
Publishing, 35, 489, 506
Puns, 368
Purpose for reading, 15, 21, 23, 27, 33, 186, 199, 211, 324, 383–385, 396, 439, 440

Q

Qualitative factors, text, 186–190
Question Answer Relationships (QAR), 447–449
Questioning, 22, 161, 373, 382, 385, 446–449, 451
Questioning the Author (QtA), 410, 521, 601–607
Quickwriting, 478–479

R

Race to the Top (RTT), 3, 31
RAND Reading Study Group, 18, 26, 178, 465
Readability formulas, 181–185
Read-alouds, 19, 33, 63, 75, 110, 197, 237–240, 316
Reader-response theory, 24
Readers theater, 333–334
Reading aloud. *See* Read-alouds
Reading behavior, 10–11
Reading comprehension, 2, 7, 13–28, 33, 43, 46, 50, 62, 128, 146, 152, 155, 169–171, 180, 196, 230, 234, 272, 309, 310, 377–420, 465–467, 539
Reading instruction, 2–4, 31, 39–70
Reading logs, 483–484
Reading process, 13–28, 35, 471
Reading proficiency, 5–10, 516
Reading programs, 14, 42, 43, 47–48, 67, 113, 122, 192–194, 208–209, 251–252, 313, 391–394
Reading volume, 5, 11, 311–314
Reciprocal teaching, 46, 449–453
Reform in reading instruction, 2–4, 44
Reliability of assessments, 139, 147
Report of the National Reading Panel (NICHD), 3
Reports, writing, 495–498
Response to Intervention (RTI), 108, 126–127, 138
Rimes, 222, 266, 271, 295–298
Root words, 267

S

Scaffolding, 59–60, 128, 325, 407
Schema theory, 20
Science center, 111, 113, 236
Science of Reading (SOR), 3–4, 7, 11, 31–32, 39, 49–50, 109, 120, 193, 251, 265, 281
Self-correction, 153
Self-questioning, 22, 405–407
Self-regulated learning, 21, 462
Self-regulated reading, 464–465
Semantic mapping, 352–355, 479
Sentence structure, 188–189
Series books, 317–318
Shared background knowledge, 263–264
Shared reading, 68, 241, 521–522
Sight words, 15, 151, 194, 277–280, 305
Simple View of Reading, 14, 17, 149, 167
Simultaneous repeated reading, 326
Situational interest, 84
Small-group instruction, 4, 51, 52, 59, 60, 68, 82, 108, 112, 115, 123, 140, 151, 241–251, 274, 329–330, 332
Social and emotional learning (SEL), 72, 94–99
Social studies, 49, 63, 113, 187, 230, 238, 256, 313, 424, 427
Sociocultural theory, 17, 25, 57, 515
Spanish language, 340
Spelling, 33, 107, 194, 221–222, 225, 249, 273, 277, 278, 471, 488
Stages of reading development, 259, 270–271, 309–310
Standardized tests, 171–174, 257–258, 370–371
Standards for the English Language Arts, 20
Story grammar, 398
Story maps, 118, 398–400
Strategy instruction, 50, 52, 58, 128, 381–386, 392, 438–440
Struggling readers, 1, 36, 50, 106, 126–132, 312
Student portfolios, 133
Suffixes, 267, 358–359
Summarizing, 22, 58, 160, 382, 385, 445–446, 481
Summative assessment, 137, 140–141
Summer reading, 311–312, 321
Sustained silent reading, 311, 314

T

Teacher-made tests, 371–373
Teacher's Choice lists, 76
Teaching for transfer, 62
Teaching for understanding, 62–63
Technology, 34–35, 91, 131–132, 334–337, 503
Text
  complexity, 3, 180–191
  features, 433–434
  as a goal, 199–200
  sets, 207–208
  structure, 15, 26, 46, 118, 201, 232–233, 381, 398–400, 432–437
  as a tool, 199
Thematic curriculum, 392–394
Theme, 118, 124, 381, 400, 404
Theories of reading, 24–25
Tile Test, 123, 557–561
Time, for reading, 36, 40, 51, 68, 80, 108, 111–114, 129, 131, 194, 315, 526–527
Title I, 2
Topic knowledge, 380, 425
Transfer, 62
Triggered situational interest, 84
Trustworthiness, of websites, 12, 34, 212–213
Tutoring, 107, 127, 530
20 percent rule, 524–525

U

Unity, of text, 188
Universal screening assessments, 126, 141–143

V

Validity, of assessments, 139, 147
Venn diagrams, 479–480
Vocabulary, 4, 11, 14, 19, 31, 33, 43, 49, 50, 63, 65, 85, 106, 113, 122, 141, 143, 150, 151, 156, 187, 196, 200, 231, 238, 251, 265, 343–376, 471, 524, 539
Voice, of text, 188, 205
Vowels, 266, 286–289

W

Whole-class instruction, 53, 68, 111
Whole-language instruction, 45–46
Word banks, 277–278
Word Building Routine, 292
Word consciousness, 19, 345, 363–370
Word families, 267
Word-learning strategies, 19, 355–363
Word recognition, 11, 14, 18, 32, 33, 46, 50, 52, 64, 106, 107, 113, 116, 127, 141, 143, 146, 151, 152, 154, 168, 193, 194, 222, 230, 262–307, 535–544
Word sorts, 117, 293
Word walls, 65, 78, 247–248, 279, 280, 485
Writing, 345, 469–513
  assessing, 507–510
  to learn, 476–487
  process approach, 52, 487–490
  reading-writing connection, 470–471
Writing workshop, 67, 473–476

Z

Zone of proximal development, 61, 114