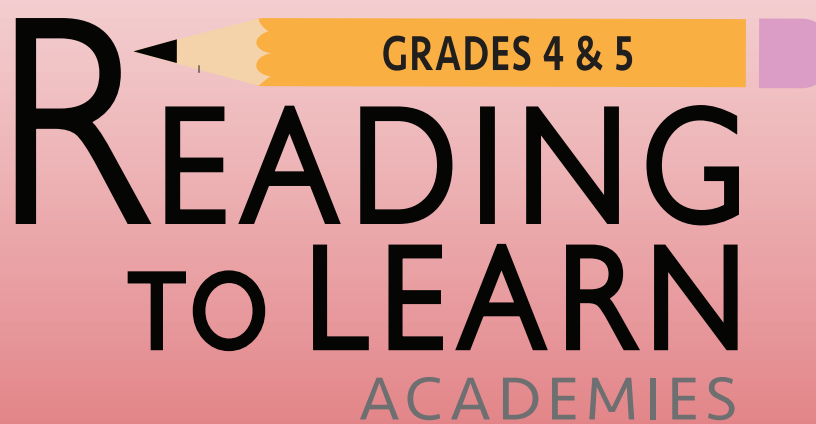




Presenter Guide



GRADE 4

Grade 4

Reading to Learn Academy



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Introduction

This section describes the features and activities in the Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy.

Presenter Materials

- Presenter Guide, including presenter notes, handouts, and presenter resources (participant activities, example lessons, and references)
- Flash drive with videos and electronic versions of print materials
- Ancillary materials

Participant Materials

- Participant Guide, including participant notes and handouts (activities, example lessons, blackline masters, and references)
- Participant-provided favorite narrative or expository children's book

Videos

Videos show teachers providing reading instruction that corresponds with the academy content. Designed to introduce, review, and support the content, the videos are an integral part of the academy. A careful preview is recommended.

Spanish Materials

Throughout the academy, strategies for English language learners and Spanish translations are provided.

Glossary

This academy not only provides teachers with specific instructional strategies, but also builds their background knowledge of reading and writing skills and processes. Often, such knowledge building requires developing new vocabulary. Therefore, a glossary is included in this introduction.

Recommended Reading

Each academy section stems from the findings of multiple research studies summarized in books, Institute of Education Sciences practice guides, and other national publications. A list of resources used throughout the academy is included on the references handout for each section. In addition, a list of recommended reading for each section is included in this introduction.

Children's Books

Certain activities require participants to use their favorite narrative or expository children's books to develop lessons and activities. Please display these books in a prominent location to give participants an opportunity to browse and identify books they may wish to add to their libraries.

Folders

Provide each participant with a folder to manage the handouts that are printed in only one section of the Participant Guide but then used several times throughout the academy.

Room Arrangement Considerations

Sessions include electronic slide presentations, small-group activities, partner activities, and video segments. Tables of five to six participants are ideal for facilitating small-group interactions (due to interactive activities, theater or classroom-style seating is not recommended). Also, allow for a sufficient number of tables to display participants' books.

Helpful Hints

- Monitor session time and closely follow the presenter notes.
- Follow the Texas Education Agency guidelines regarding the promotion and use of commercial programs, books, and materials.
- Establish guidelines to encourage punctuality (e.g., participants who miss more than 30 minutes of a session do not receive credit).
- Incorporate energizers to create active participation. (See next page.)

Energizers: Activities to Engage Participants (and Students)

Purpose: To provide additional opportunities to practice or review material and to “wake up” and actively engage students and participants

Dueling Chart

This is a quick way to energize participants while assessing their concerns or knowledge. Pose a question or topic and have participants stand. Have a participant throw a foam ball or beach ball to another participant as he or she comments and then sits. Scribes, two per sheet of chart paper (set up as a T-chart), record participants’ responses quickly.

SLANT

This is a behavior management and metacognitive strategy. When given a signal, participants **sit** up, **lean** forward, **activate** their thinking (What did they just learn? What comments, questions, or concerns do they have?), **name** key information (share aloud), and **track** the talker.

Ball Toss

The presenter asks a question then tosses a foam ball to a participant, who answers. This is a fun way to call on people to respond.

Rapid-Fire Verbal Rehearsal

Participants have a few minutes to memorize important items. Then they practice reciting the items with the whole group and with a partner.

Popsicle Sticks and Mystery Cups

Participants’ names are written on popsicle sticks. There is a cup within a cup. All sticks are placed in the smaller, inner cup. Once participants have been called on, their sticks are placed in the outer cup. A variation is to place sticks corresponding to participants you want to call on in the larger, outer cup.

Pinch Papers

On a sheet of paper, participants are directed to write responses (e.g., numbers, *yes* and *no*, letters, words) to questions you want to ask them. Everyone pinches the correct answer in response to a question. Learning looks (looking to another’s paper for support) are allowed. See the Vocabulary section in your academy binder for examples.

Pocket Participants (or Students)

The presenter (or teacher) has one card for each target participant in his or her pocket. On the card are skills the participant must practice (e.g., letter sounds, new vocabulary words, math facts). Throughout the session, during activities, the presenter works with different participants on these skills.

Sticky Board

Made from a plastic tablecloth sprayed with a temporary adhesive, this “magic” board enables presenters to display work, create movable word walls, model skills, etc. The participants can work at the sticky board in small groups.

Choral Responses With Signals

At a signal from the teacher, participants respond. This reduces the incidence of some participants blurting out answers while others are still thinking.

Partners

Whenever possible, allow participants to work with a partner when learning or practicing new skills. Teach the partners how to provide feedback to each other. Pair partners carefully so that one partner has slightly stronger skills than the other. Change partners regularly.

Team Responses

Place participants on teams and give each participant a number or a letter designation. Pose a question and have team members derive an answer together. Everyone in the team should feel confident answering the question. Then randomly call out a letter or number and have the person from each team who has that letter or number answer the question.

Look, Lean, Whisper

Have participants look at their partners, lean toward them, and whisper the answer.

Think, Turn, Talk

This is helpful to participants who need more thinking time or are insecure about providing answers. Allow participants a few seconds to think silently about a prompt and then have them turn to their partners and talk about it. Presenters can listen in and then call on participants who have the correct answer, focusing on participants who rarely participate.

Think-Aloud

This is a way for presenters to model metacognitive strategies, or to make their thinking visible. A think-aloud is useful, for example, when solving comprehension problems, thinking through operations in mathematics, or making a decision.

Cold Calling

Call on participants whether or not they have their hand raised. This will encourage participants to be ready to respond at any time. However, you must provide feedback in a constructive and positive manner so that all participants are comfortable responding.

Overhead Accountability or Document Camera Accountability

When presenting new materials to participants, have them discuss a question or provide examples with a partner. Roam the room, listening to discussions and writing appropriate

responses from participants. Use a document camera to share the responses as a review, recognizing the contributions of the participants whose responses you highlighted.

Whip Around or Pass

Participants rapidly respond with no intervening comments. When participants have no response, or if another participant has already voiced their response, they say “pass.”

Exit Tickets

Participants complete and turn in a quick accountability activity as they finish an activity or transition to a break.

3-2-1 Blastoff!

Participants write three things they learned, two questions they have, and one thing they will use.

Snowball Fight

Participants write on a sheet of paper one thing they learned and promise to use in their classrooms. Then they ball up the sheets of paper and, standing in a circle, throw them around. Each person retrieves one ball of paper and reads it aloud to the group.

Mix It Up

Participants roam around until they are signaled to stop and pair up with the nearest person, with whom they share their answers to the question prompt.

Nonstop Writes

Participants write for one minute or so about what they have learned, noticed, etc.

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Glossary

The following are definitions of terminology used throughout the academy. Corresponding Spanish terms, when applicable, are provided in italics.

accuracy [*exactitud*]

The percentage of words read correctly in a text

affix [*afijo*]

A morpheme or meaningful part of a word attached before or after a root or base word to modify its meaning; a category that includes prefixes and suffixes

affricate [*consonantes africadas*]

Consonant phoneme articulated as a stop before a fricative, such as /ch/ or /j/

alliteration [*aliteración*]

The use of words that begin with the same sound near one another in a phrase or sentence

alphabetic principle [*principio alfabético*]

The idea or concept that letters and letter combinations represent phonemes in an alphabetic print system

antonym [*antónimo*]

A word that means the opposite of another word

automaticity [*automaticidad*]

Fluent performance without conscious attention

background knowledge [*conocimientos y experiencia previa*]

Pre-existing knowledge of facts and ideas necessary to make inferences

base word [*palabra base*]

A free morpheme, one that can stand on its own, to which affixes can be added

bilabial [*bilabial*]

Consonant sound formed with the lips together (e.g., /b/, /m/, /p/)

blending [*unir*]

Combining sound structures (e.g., syllables, phonemes) to say or read a word

center (or workstation) [centro (o estación de trabajo)]

An instructional grouping arrangement in which students work cooperatively on specific learning activities

choral reading [lectura a coro (o lectura coral)]

Activity in which a group of students and possibly the teacher read a text aloud together

cipher [codificar]

Ability to map sounds to letters using a letter-sound correspondence system

clause [cláusula]

A group of words that contains both a subject and a predicate used to form a part of or a whole sentence

closed syllable [sílabla cerrada]

A syllable with a short vowel followed by one or more consonants (e.g., *shop*, *crack*, *fist*)

co-articulated [coarticuladas/os]

Spoken together so that separate segments are not easily detected

cohesive ties [enlaces textuales]

Specific linguistic devices by which a text hangs together, such as pronoun references, repeated phrases, or substitution of one phrase for another

connectives [conectivos]

Words or phrases that signal the logical relations between clauses and sentences (e.g., *before* to indicate a temporal relationship, *because* to indicate a causal relationship)

consonant [consonante]

A phoneme that is not a vowel and that is formed with obstruction of the flow of air with the teeth, lips, or tongue

consonant blend [grupos consonánticos]

In syllable structure, two or three adjacent consonant graphemes before or after a vowel

consonant cluster [grupo de sonidos consonánticos]

Adjacent consonant sounds within a syllable, before or after a vowel sound; oral language equivalent of the term *consonant blend*

consonant digraph [dígrafos consonánticos]

Written letter combination that corresponds to one speech sound but is not represented by either letter alone (e.g., *th*, *sh*)

continuant [*continuo*]

Speech sound that can be spoken uninterrupted until the speaker runs out of breath (e.g., /f/, /s/, /n/)

cooperative learning [*aprendizaje colaborativo*]

Instructional strategy in which students of mixed abilities work together to achieve a goal or engage in an activity

curriculum-based measure (CBM) [*evaluación basada en el curriculum*]

Standardized, researcher-created assessment that contains multiple probes for sampling curriculum across a year; often used for progress monitoring

decodable text [*texto decodificable*]

Text in which a large proportion of words comprise sound-symbol relationships that have already been taught; used to provide practice with specific decoding skills and to form a bridge between learning phonics and applying phonics in independent reading

decoding [*decodificar*]

Ability to translate a word from print to speech, usually by using knowledge of sound-symbol correspondences; the act of sounding out a new word

derivational morpheme [*morfema derivacional*]

A meaningful part, added to a root or base word, that modifies the word's meaning and often changes its part of speech (e.g., *-ion* added to *decide* to make *decision*, *-ly* added to *quick* to make *quickly*)

derivational suffix [*sufijo derivacional*]

A morpheme, added to a root or base word, that often changes the word's part of speech and that modifies its meaning

diagnostic assessment [*evaluación diagnóstica*]

A measure used to get in-depth information about the specific skills or concepts that a student has or has not mastered; typically used to identify specific learning gaps with students struggling to meet grade-level expectations on screening measures

differentiation [*diferenciación*]

A teaching method in which instructional delivery, activities, and/or materials are matched to students' specific needs and strengths

digraph [*dígrafo*]

A two-letter combination that spells one speech sound, such as *sh* in *wash*

diphthong [*diptongo*]

A vowel sound that has a glide and may feel as though it has two parts (e.g., /ow/, /oi/)

discourse [*discurso*]

Linguistic units larger than the single sentence

doublet

A double letter that represents one phoneme (e.g., *ff*, *ll*, *ss*, *zz*, *mm*, *bb*)

dyslexia [*dislexia*]

A neurobiological learning disability characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities; difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction; secondary consequences may include problems in reading comprehension and reduced reading experience that can impede growth of vocabulary and background knowledge

early alphabetic [*etapa alfabética temprana*]

A phase of reading development in which the alphabetic principle is first understood

echo reading [*lectura de eco*]

Activity in which an effective reader (often the teacher) reads a short text and then a less effective reader reads the same text

elaborative inferences [*actividad inferencial elaborativa*]

Associations and guesses about a text's contents and development that enrich the mental representation of the text; also called *gap-filling inferences*

encoding [*codificar*]

Ability to translate a word from speech to print; the act of spelling a word

etymologic [*etimología*]

Having to do with a word's history or where it comes from

explicit instruction [*instrucción explícita*]

Structured and direct approach to teaching skills and concepts

expository text [*expositivo*]

Text that reports factual information and the relationships among ideas

expression [*expresión*]

The way a reader varies the voice in volume, pitch, and tone to reflect the meaning of the text

feedback [retroalimentación]

Method of informing students about their current understanding, learning, or performance and about ways to improve

final stable syllable

A syllable pattern that represents the same set of sounds at the end of words (e.g., *puzzle*, *uncle*, *station*, *feature*)

five essential components [cinco componentes esenciales]

Effective reading components identified by the National Reading Panel (2000)—phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension

floss rule

A spelling convention that calls for doubling of *f*, *l*, *s*, and *z* after a short vowel in a syllable

fluency [fluidez]

The quality or state of being effortlessly smooth and flowing

fricative [fricativo]

A speech sound articulated with a hiss or friction of breath, producing a strong air flow (e.g., /z/ as in *zero*)

frustrational level [nivel de frustración]

Term used to describe a text in which a student reads less than 90 percent of the words accurately

glide [semiconsonante]

A consonant phoneme that glides immediately into a vowel (e.g., /w/, /h/)

global coherence inferences [actividad inferencial de coherencia global]

Inferences that make the text cohere; these inferences are required to produce a mental model, or schema, of a text and are determined by the mental model

grapheme [grafema]

A letter or letter combination that spells a single phoneme; in English, a grapheme may be one, two, three, or four letters (e.g., *a*, *ai*, *igh*, *eigh*)

grapheme tile [cuadros con grafemas]

Instructional material that has one grapheme written or printed on it (either a one-, two-, three-, or four-letter grapheme); used to spell and read words

graphophonemic knowledge [conocimiento grafofonémico]

Knowledge of letters and letter combinations and the sounds they represent

guided practice (“We do”) [práctica guiada (“Todos juntos”)]

Supported practice in which students work with the teacher and/or other students to master skills and concepts

hesitation [titubeo]

The act of pausing for more than three seconds while reading aloud, at which point the teacher provides the word

heterogeneous group (or mixed-ability group) [grupo heterogéneo (o grupo de habilidades mixtas)]

A group of students with varying abilities; used for cooperative learning, including centers

high-frequency word [palabras de uso frecuente]

A word that appears often in texts (not the same as a sight word or an irregular word)

homogeneous group (or same-ability group) [grupo homogéneo (o grupo de habilidades similares)]

A group of students with similar ability; created based on similar strengths or needs

independent level [nivel independiente]

Term used to describe a text in which a student reads at least 95 percent of the words accurately

independent practice (“You do”) [práctica independiente (“Tú solo”)]

Unsupported practice in which students apply skills and concept knowledge to develop proficiency, maintenance, and automaticity

inflectional ending [sufijos flexivos]

A morpheme that combines with base words to indicate tense, number, mood, person, or gender (e.g., *peaches*s, *walk*ing)

inflectional morpheme [morfemas flexivos]

A bound morpheme (cannot stand alone as a word) that combines with base words to indicate tense, number, mood, person, or gender (e.g., *grab*b*ed*, *cat*s, *smar*t*er*)

instructional level [nivel de instrucción]

Term used to describe a text in which a student reads between 90 percent and 95 percent of the words accurately

intonation [entonación]

The rise and fall of the voice while reading

irregular word [palabra irregular]

A word in which some letters do not represent their most commonly used sounds (not the same as a sight word or high-frequency word; e.g., *of*, *was*, *one*)

labial [labial]

A consonant sound articulated with the lips (e.g., the consonants *b*, *f*, *m*, *p*, *v*, *w*; vowels requiring rounded lips, such as *oo* in *moon*), including bilabials and labiodentals

labiodental [labiodental]

Consonant sound articulated with the lower lip and upper teeth (e.g., /f/, /v/)

later alphabetic [etapa alfabética tardía]

The stage of reading development characterized by full phonemic awareness and reasonable, complete mappings of phonemes to graphemes

letterbox [área de visualización de palabras]

Area in the brain that systematically activates when reading letters or words; also called the *visual word form area*

letter-sound correspondence [correspondencia letra-sonido]

Relationship between a letter (spelling) and a sound (pronunciation)

lexicon [diccionario mental]

The mental dictionary of a speaker; the part of linguistic memory that contains knowledge of words

linguistic base [base lingüística]

The part of a transformational grammar that consists of rules and a lexicon and generates the deep structures of a language

liquid [sonidos líquidos]

Speech sound in which air is obstructed but not enough to cause friction, such as the /l/ and /r/ sound of American English

literacy knowledge [conocimiento de la lengua impresa]

An understanding of the forms and functions of written language

manner of articulation [modo de articulación]

How a sound is made, or the production of airflow through the mouth

minimal pair [*pares mínimos*]

A pair of words that differ in only one phoneme or sound (e.g., *book* and *look*)

miscue [*error*]

A mistake

mispronunciation [*pronunciación incorrecta*]

Saying a sound or word incorrectly while reading

mixed-ability group (or heterogeneous group) [*grupo de habilidades mixtas (o grupo heterogéneo)*]

A group of students with varying abilities; created for cooperative learning purposes, including workstations (centers)

modeling (“I do”) [*demostrar (“Yo primero”)*]

Instructional method in which a teacher demonstrates a skill and describes it while performing the skill (the description is often called a think-aloud)

morpheme [*morfema*]

The smallest meaningful grammatical unit of language

morphology [*morfología*]

The study of meaningful units of language and how they are combined in word formation

multisyllabic (or polysyllabic) [*polisílabo*]

Having more than one syllable

narrative text [*texto narrativo*]

Text that tells about sequences of fictional or real events and is often contrasted with expository text

nasal [*nasal*]

Sound spoken with the air stream directed through the nasal cavity (e.g., /m/, /n/)

nasalization (or vowel nasalization) [*nasalización*]

When a vowel sound is directed through the nose because it is articulated immediately before a nasal consonant (e.g., *and*, *gang*, *bunk*)

neurobiological [*neurobiológico*]

Related to the anatomy, physiology, and pathology of the nervous system

object [objeto]

The noun or noun phrase following a verb that depicts action performed on or to something (e.g., The boy threw *the ball*.)

omission [omisión]

The act of leaving out a word or words while reading

onset

The part of a syllable before the vowel (e.g., *can*, *stop*); some syllables do not have onsets (e.g., *an*)

opaque orthography [ortografía opaca]

Writing system in which the relationship between sounds and symbols is irregular, somewhat obscure, or influenced by morpheme structure

open syllable [sílabo abierta]

A syllable with a long vowel at the end that is spelled with one vowel letter (e.g., *she*, *open*, *basic*)

oral reading fluency (ORF) [fluidez de lectura oral]

Ability to read a text aloud at an appropriate rate, smoothness, and prosody to support comprehension

orthographic convention [reglas ortográficas]

A spelling pattern or rule within a print system

orthographic mapping [mapeo ortográfico]

The mental process used to store words for immediate, effortless retrieval; the mechanism for sight-word learning; requires good phonemic awareness, letter-sound knowledge, and the alphabetic principle

orthographic pattern [patrón ortográfico]

Spelling regularity that follows specific conventions or rules

orthography [sistema de escritura]

A writing system

phoneme [fonema]

An individual speech sound that combines with others in a language system to make words

phonemic awareness [*conciencia fonémica*]

The conscious awareness that words are made up of individual speech sounds (i.e., phonemes) that are represented with letters in an alphabetic orthography; is often demonstrated by an ability to isolate, segment, blend, or manipulate phonemes in words

phoneme blending [*unión de fonemas*]

The act of putting single speech sounds together to say a whole word

phoneme deletion [*supresión de fonemas*]

The act of leaving out a sound in a word to make a new word

phoneme discrimination [*discriminación de fonemas*]

The ability to distinguish words that differ in only one phoneme

phoneme identification [*identificación de fonemas*]

The act of showing, by pointing to a picture, object, or symbol, which speech sound is in the beginning, middle, or end of a word

phoneme manipulation (also referred to as advanced phonemic awareness) [*manipulación fonética*]

Includes acts like phoneme deletion, substitution, and reversal

phoneme segmentation [*separación de palabras en fonemas*]

The act of separating a word into its component speech sounds

phoneme-grapheme mapping [*mapeo fonémico-gráfico*]

The act of connecting phonemes with graphemes

phonetic alphabet [*alfabeto fonético*]

An alphabet in which each speech sound has its own unique symbol

phonetics [*fonética*]

The study of linguistic speech sounds and how they are produced and perceived

phonics [*fonética y/o método fonético*]

The study of the relationships between letters and the sounds they represent; also used to describe reading instruction that teaches sound-symbol correspondences

phonological awareness [*conciencia fonológica*]

A conscious awareness (metalinguistic) of all levels of the speech sound system, including word boundaries, syllables, onset-rime units, and phonemes (a more encompassing term than *phonemic awareness*)

phonological processor [*procesador fonológico*]

A neural network in the frontal and temporal areas of the brain, usually the left cerebral hemisphere, that is specialized for speech-sound perception, memory, retrieval, and pronunciation

phonology [*fonología*]

The rule system within a language by which phonemes are sequenced and uttered to make words

phrase [*frase*]

A part of a sentence that is potentially larger than one word and that serves a grammatical function as a unit

phrasing [*fraseo*]

The way a reader groups words together to represent the meaningful units of language

place of articulation [*punto de articulación*]

Where a sound is made, or the position of the lips, teeth, and tongue in the front, middle, or back of the mouth when producing a sound

polysemous [*polisémico*]

Having multiple meanings

polysyllabic (or multisyllabic) [*polisílabo*]

Having more than one syllable

pragmatics [*pragmática*]

The system of rules and conventions for using language and related gestures in social contexts

prealphabetic [*etapa pre-alfabética*]

A stage of reading development characterized by a lack of awareness that letters represent speech sounds

predicate [*predicado*]

One of two main constituents of a sentence; contains the verb

predictable text [*texto predecible*]

Text with repetitive text structures and close picture-text matches to support a student in using syntax and semantics to guess unknown words

prefix [*prefijo*]

A morpheme that precedes a root or base word and that affects the meaning of a word

prepositional phrase [*frase preposicional*]

Word group in which a noun phrase is introduced by a preposition

preposition [*preposición*]

A function word that occurs first in a prepositional phrase

progress monitoring [*monitoreo del progreso*]

Method of consistently checking student progress on developing specific skills (e.g., every two weeks); usually uses curriculum-based measures

progress-monitoring assessment (or curriculum-based measure [CBM]) [*evaluación para el monitoreo del progreso*]

Measure used to check student progress on developing a specific skill across time

pronoun [*pronombre*]

A function word that is used as a substitute for a noun or noun phrase

prosody [*prosodia*]

How a reader's voice sounds while reading; includes the rhythm, intonation, and stress patterns of speech

rapid automatic naming (RAN) [*velocidad de denominación rápida*]

The task of naming a repeating sequence of objects, colors, numbers, or letters under timed conditions

r-controlled (or vowel-r)

Pertaining to a vowel immediately followed by the consonant *r*, such that its pronunciation is affected or even dominated by the *r*

reading by analogy [*lectura por analogía*]

A strategy for reading a word in which patterns within known words are used to read an unknown word with similar patterns

reading rate [*fluidez lectora*]

Speed of reading; usually represented by words correct per minute (WCPM)

referent [*referente*]

The entity referred to by a noun phrase

response opportunity [*oportunidades para responder*]

Occasion for students to say, write, and/or do something within an instructional lesson or activity

reversal [*inversión*]

The act of changing the order of two or more words while reading

rime

The part of a syllable that includes the vowel and what follows it (e.g., *can*, *stamp*)

root [*raíz*]

A morpheme, usually of Latin origin in English, that cannot stand alone and is used to form a family of words with related meanings

same-ability group (or homogeneous group) [*grupo de habilidades similares (o grupo homogéneo)*]

A group of students who have similar strengths or needs; used for small-group instruction

scaffolding [*andamiaje*]

Instructional support provided to allow a student to perform a task that cannot be done successfully otherwise

schema [*esquema mental*]

A mental model or conceptual framework for a specific topic or idea

schwa

A nondistinct vowel found in an unstressed syllable in English; the unaccented /ʊ/, which is represented by /ə/

screening assessment [*evaluación diagnóstica*]

Measure used to quickly assess student skills in specific areas at several time points (e.g., beginning, middle, and end of the year); used to identify students performing on grade level and those at risk for learning problems

segmenting [*segmentación*]

Breaking apart the sound structures (e.g., syllables, phonemes) in a word

semantic map [*mapa semántico*]

A graphic organizer used in vocabulary instruction to display connections between words and concepts

semantics [*semántica*]

The study of word and phrase meanings

sight word [*palabras leídas a golpe de vista*]

A word that is known as a whole and does not have to be sounded out to be recognized; eventually, almost all words should be sight words for a reader

small-group instruction [*instrucción en grupos pequeños*]

Method of grouping students according to specific strengths or needs and providing instruction targeted at those strengths or needs

spelling by analogy [*ortografía por analogía*]

A strategy for spelling a word in which patterns within known words are used to spell an unknown word with similar patterns

stop [*oclusivo*]

Consonant speech sound that is articulated with a stop of the air stream (e.g., /b/, /t/)

stress [*intensidad*]

The emphasis a reader places on particular words (louder tone)

stressed [*sílaba con más entonación*]

Accented syllable articulated with greater loudness, duration, or pitch

structural analysis [*análisis estructural*]

The study of affixes, base words, and roots

subject [*sujeto*]

The grammatical role of a noun or noun phrase that acts as the “who” or “what” of a clause; one of two necessary parts of a sentence

substitution [*sustitución*]

Saying another sound or word in place of the written text

suffix [*sufijo*]

A morpheme added to the end of a root or base word that modifies the word’s meaning and often changes its part of speech

syllable [*sílaba*]

Unit of pronunciation within a word that is organized around a vowel sound

syllable type [*tipo de sílaba*]

One of six orthographic patterns in English used to build words—closed, open, vowel-consonant-silent-*e*, *r*-controlled vowel, vowel digraphs and diphthongs, and final stable

synonym [sinónimo]

A word that means the same or almost the same thing as another word

syntax [sintaxis]

The rule system governing sentence formation

systematic [sistemático]

Methodical; carried out using step-by-step procedures

think-aloud [pensando en voz alta]

Instructional method for describing what is being done or thought about during teacher modeling within a lesson

transparent orthography [ortografía transparente]

A writing system in which there is a direct, consistent relationship between sound and symbol

trigraph

A three-letter combination that stands for one speech sound, such as *tch* in *watch*

unvoiced [sordo]

A speech sound that's spoken with no vocal vibration; also called *voiceless*

verbal reasoning [razonamiento verbal]

The ability to understand, interpret, and evaluate discourse; to incorporate discourse with one's knowledge base and beliefs; to create new understandings; to seek out and solve problems; to communicate; and to monitor one's own comprehension, reasoning, and habits of mind

vocabulary [vocabulario]

Knowledge of words and word meanings both orally and in print

voiced [sonoro]

A speech sound articulated with vibrating vocal cords

vowel [vocal]

An open, voiced phoneme that is the nucleus of every syllable; can be long or short

vowel-consonant-e (VCe) syllable

A syllable with a long vowel sound spelled with a vowel-consonant-silent-*e* pattern

vowel digraph

A vowel grapheme or spelling that uses two or more letters for a single speech sound

vowel nasalization (also called nasalization) [*nasalización de un sonido vocal*]

When a vowel sound is directed through the nose because it is articulated immediately before a nasal consonant

vowel-*r* (or *r*-controlled)

Pertaining to a vowel immediately followed by the consonant *r*, such that its pronunciation is affected or even dominated by the *r*

vowel team [*par de vocales*]

A vowel grapheme or spelling that uses two or more letters for a single speech sound

whisper phone [*audífono para la lectura*]

An instructional tool into which one can whisper read to hear one's own voice amplified

word study [*estudio de palabras*]

A careful examination or analysis of the relationships among the phonological, orthographic, and morphological aspects of a written or printed character or combination of characters representing a spoken word

workstation (or center) [*estación de trabajo (o centro de trabajo)*]

An instructional grouping arrangement in which students work cooperatively on specific learning activities

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The Reading Rope

U.S. psychologist and literacy expert Dr. Hollis Scarborough originally created a reading-rope metaphor for talks with parents. According to Scarborough, skilled reading is like a rope woven of many strands. At the top are multiple language comprehension strands—background knowledge, vocabulary, grammar, semantics, verbal reasoning, and knowledge about literacy itself (e.g., how a book is organized; the difference between fiction and nonfiction, formal and informal writing, and a letter and an advertisement).

At the bottom of Scarborough's rope are word recognition strands—phonological awareness (awareness of the sound structure of words), decoding (the idea that letters represent sounds, knowledge of which letters and patterns correspond to particular sounds), and sight recognition (recognition of familiar words). Word recognition and language comprehension twist together to form the two main strands of the rope.

If any strand is weak or not tight enough, the entire rope is weakened—affecting students' ability to comprehend text.

Recommended Reading by Section

Here are a few resources for presenters to read in relation to each academy section.

Overview

Kamil, M. L., Borman, G. D., Dole, J., Kral, C. C., Salinger, T., & Torgesen J. (2008). *Improving adolescent literacy: Effective classroom and intervention practices: A practice guide* (NCEE 2008-4027). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc>

Moats, L. C. (2010). *Speech to print: Language essentials for teachers*. Baltimore, MA: Paul H. Brookes.

Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin & Children's Learning Institute. (2012). *ELAR/SLAR TEKS handbook*. Austin, TX: The University of Texas System & Texas Education Agency.

English Language Learners

Baker, S., Lesaux, N., Jayanthi, M., Dimino, J., Proctor, C. P., Morris, J., . . . Newman-Gonchar, R. (2014). *Teaching academic content and literacy to English learners in elementary and middle school* (NCEE 2014-4012). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/publications_reviews.aspx

Gersten, R., Baker, S. K., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades: A practice guide* (NCEE 2007-4011). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee>

Differentiation and the Features of Effective Instruction

Archer, A., & Hughes, C. (2011). *Explicit instruction: Effective and efficient teaching*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Gersten, R., Baker, S. K., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades: A practice guide* (NCEE 2007-4011). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.

The IRIS Center. (2010). *Differentiated instruction: Maximizing the learning of all students*. Retrieved from www.iris.peabody.Vanderbilt.edu/module/di/

Word Study and Recognition

- Bear, D. R., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (2015). *Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary, and spelling instruction* (5th ed.). Columbus, OH: Pearson.
- Grace, K. E. S. (2007). *Phonics and spelling through phoneme-grapheme mapping*. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.
- Henry, M. K. (2010). *Unlocking literacy: Effective decoding and spelling instruction* (2nd ed.). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.

Fluency

- Hasbrouck, J. E., & Tindal, G. A. (2006). Oral reading fluency norms: A valuable assessment tool for reading teachers. *The Reading Teacher*, 59(7), 636–644.
- Rasinski, T., Blachowicz, C., & Lems, K. (Eds.). (2012). *Fluency instruction: Research-based best practices* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Vocabulary

- Beck, I., McKeown, M., & Kucan, L. (2013). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. E. (2006). *Teaching word meanings*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Comprehension

- Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2006). *Improving comprehension with questioning the author: A fresh and expanded view of a powerful approach*. New York, NY: Scholastic.
- Carlisle, J. R., & Rice, M. S. (2002). *Improving reading comprehension: Research-based principles and practices*. Baltimore, MD: York Press.
- Klingner, J., Vaughn, S., Boardman, A., & Swanson, E. (2012). *Now we get it! Boosting comprehension with Collaborative Strategic Reading*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Oakhill, J., Cain, K., & Elbro, C. (2015). *Understanding and teaching reading comprehension: A handbook*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Writing

- Graham, S., Bollinger, A., Booth Olson, C., D'Aoust, C., MacArthur, C., McCutchen, D., & Olinghouse, N. (2012). *Teaching elementary school students to be effective writers: A practice guide* (NCEE 2012-4058). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance. Retrieved from www.ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/publications_reviews.aspx#pubsearch
- Harris, K., Graham, S., Mason, L., & Friedlander, B. (2008). *Powerful writing strategies for all students*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.

Using Assessment Data

Farrall, M. L. (2012). *Reading assessment: Linking language, literacy, and cognition*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

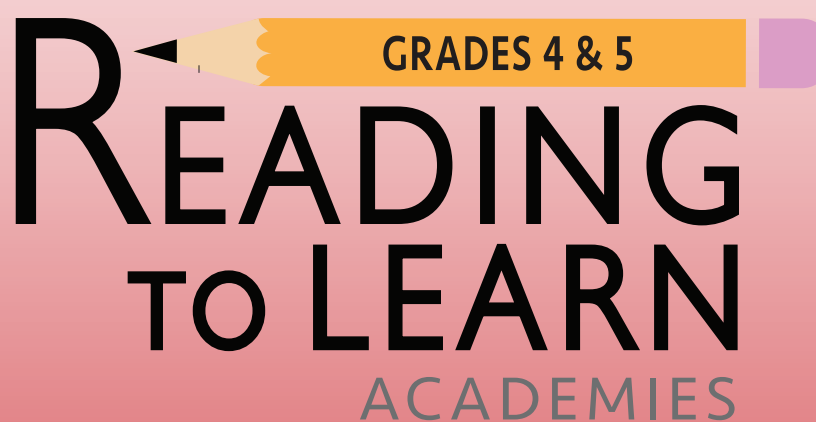
Fisher, D., Frey, N., & Hattie, J. (2016). *Visible learning for literacy: Implementing the practices that work best to accelerate student learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Kilpatrick, D. A. (2015). *Essentials of assessing, preventing, and overcoming reading difficulties*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.



Introduction: Academy Presenter

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Introduction: Academy Presenter

Slide 1—Title Slide

(0:00–1:00)

Good morning! Welcome to the training-of-trainers session for the Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy.

Introduce yourself and your co-presenter.

Please locate this presentation in your presenter binder. You can find it behind the Introduction tab.

Using an almost-empty presenter binder, show the Introduction tab.

This Introduction section is included only to support you as a Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy presenter. You will not present this brief Introduction section to your academy participants.

Welcome!

- Thank you for helping to lead the Reading to Learn Academies.
- We will review the materials you will use during your presentation of the Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy.



Slide 2—Welcome!

(1:00–1:15)

Thank you for your leadership in this statewide initiative.

Before we get started with the content of this academy, let's familiarize ourselves with the materials provided to support you as an academy presenter.

Presenter Materials



- Presenter notes
- Presenter resources
- Materials for modeling lessons and activities



Slide 3—Presenter Materials

(1:15–2:00)

As a presenter, you will receive materials that the teacher participants will not have. These materials include the presenter notes and presenter resources, which you will receive at the end of each day and then place into your presenter binder behind the appropriate tabs.

Show an example of a shrink-wrapped set of presenter notes and resources.

You also have materials for modeling lessons and activities in your supply bag, which your participants will not receive.

Quickly show the supply bag with activity materials for presenters only.

Front Materials



- Introduction
- Energizers: Activities to Engage Participants (and Students)
- Glossary
- The Reading Rope
- Recommended Reading by Section



Slide 4—Front Materials

(2:00—4:00)

Hold up your sample presenter binder and show the front matter section before the Introduction tab.

In these front materials, you will find an introduction that describes the academy materials. Next are suggestions related to room arrangement and delivering the academy, including close adherence to the time allocations and speaker notes provided in each session.

In the next section, you will find a list of energizers. We will model how to use a few of these throughout the academy, but you may prefer to use other energizers on the list when you deliver the training. This list also includes engaging activities that can later be used with students in the classroom.

The next resource is a glossary of literacy terms. This resource ensures that we have a common understanding of the precise terms that will be used during the academy.

The next section includes background information on the reading rope graphic that will be used throughout the academy to assist participants in understanding how the content of the academy supports learning to read and reading to learn.

The last section is a list of recommended resources for you to become familiar with as you prepare for your delivery of the academy. It includes the most comprehensive resources we used to write each academy section.

Participants will also receive these front materials.

Presenter Resources

- Answer sheets are provided that include sample responses for some activities.
- Sample responses support participant work within the section.
- Answer sheets are not included in the participant materials.



Slide 5—Presenter Resources

(4:00—4:30)

Throughout the academy, you and the participants will engage in many activities and model lessons. For some of these activities, we have provided presenter resources—answer sheets with possible correct answers. Presenter resources appear after the handouts. As a reminder, your academy participants will not have these answer sheets.

Publications



- *English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills Handbook*
- *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*
- *The Dyslexia Handbook—Revised 2014: Procedures Concerning Dyslexia and Related Disorders*



Slide 6—Publications

(4:30–5:00)

You will model using several publications during the academies.

Show each publication as you mention it.

These include the *English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills Handbook*, the *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*, and the *Dyslexia Handbook—Revised 2014: Procedures Concerning Dyslexia and Related Disorders*. Your participants will refer to these publications throughout the academy as well.

Other Presenter Materials



- Handouts, including references
- Supplies and activity materials



Slide 7—Other Presenter Materials

(5:00–5:45)

You will also receive all of the materials that participants will have, which we will spend the next three days using. These materials include the handouts, resources, and other materials for planning and participating in model lessons and activities.

Show the participant binder and a supply bag with the activity materials for participants.

Agenda

Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy

DAY 1	DAY 2	DAY 3
MORNING		
Academy Overview	Vocabulary	Writing
Supporting All Learners	Comprehension	
AFTERNOON		
Word Study and Recognition	Comprehension (continued)	Motivating and Engaging Students
Fluency		Using Assessment Data
		Putting It All Together



Slide 8—Agenda

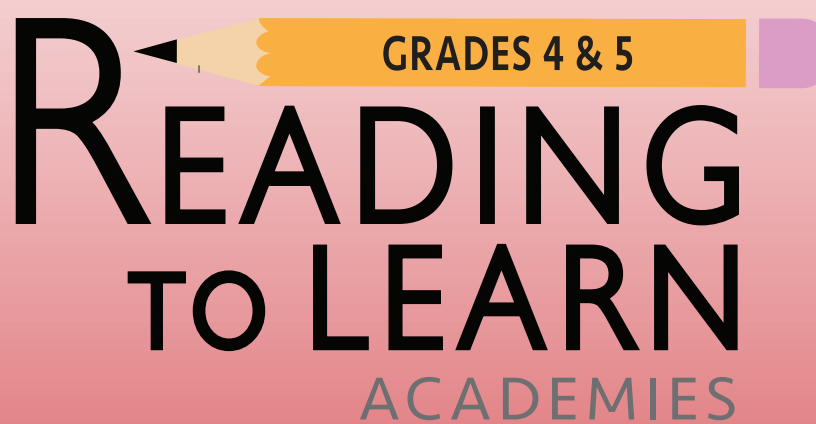
(5:45–6:00)

Here is the agenda for the next three days. Now, we will begin the academy.



Overview

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Document camera
- Folder
- Cardstock to model making a name tent
- Marker
- Laser pointer
- Glossary (in Introductory Materials)
- Texas Education Agency publications: *English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills Handbook* and *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*

Participant Materials

- Participant Guide
- Folder
- Grade 4 Literacy Block handout (in folder)
- Supply pouch
- *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*
- Cardstock for name tent

Materials to Provide Each Table

- Guiding Questions document (two per table)
- Markers
- *English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills Handbook*



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Overview

Slide 1—Title Slide

(0:00–2:00)

Welcome to the Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy!

This academy provides you with professional development to enhance the literacy instruction you provide to your students.

Introduce yourself and your co-presenter and quickly cover housekeeping topics (silence and put away cell phones, location of rest rooms, etc.).

Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy

- Enhance your knowledge of effective instructional practices
- Examine research-based practices for teaching all students



Slide 2—Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy

(2:00–3:30)

This Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy is built on the foundation of the original Fourth Grade Teacher Reading Academy of 2000. Since then, additional research has added new information about instructional practices and underscored the importance of providing effective literacy instruction in all elementary grades.

In the next three days, we will highlight instructional practices that support the reading-to-learn process. The term “reading to learn” refers to instruction on skills and concepts such as using background knowledge, using verbal reasoning, and building literacy knowledge. This type of instruction enables students to learn new content from increasingly complex texts across a wide range of genres and topics. Both learning to read and reading to learn should occur across all grade levels—with increasing focus on reading to learn once students have solidified their basic word-recognition skills.

Participant Materials



- Participant notes
- Handouts, which include resources, activities, lesson ideas, and references
- Agenda
- Grade 4 Literacy Block handout
- English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide
- Supply pouch
- *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*
- Glossary
- Cardstock for name tent



Slide 3—Participant Materials

(3:30–9:30)

Let's begin by looking at the materials we will use.

Your binder, the Participant Guide, has the information you will use during the academy. The tabs divide the content by the academy's different sections.

Behind each section's tab you will find participant note-taking pages with three presentation slides printed per page. The note-taking pages are followed by handouts, including example lessons, resources, and references. As we begin each section, you may want to remove the materials from behind the corresponding tab in your binder and secure them with the rings found on your table.

During the academy, you will move some materials from your binder to the folder you have been given.

Hold up your folder to show the participants.

Notes continue on the next page.

This will help you quickly locate handouts that you will use more than once.

Your folder already has three separate handouts inside it—the Agenda, which shows the topics within each section along with the time for each topic specific to each grade level; the Grade 4 Literacy Block, which we will use throughout the academy; and the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide.

In addition to the binder and folder, we have provided you with a supply pouch. Inside that pouch, you'll find sticky tabs you can use to mark academy resources you would like to examine more thoroughly once we're done.

You also received a copy of the *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*, which we will use during the academy.

And for your reference any time, a glossary is located at the end of the Introductory Materials in your binder. Please take a moment to remove the glossary from your binder and place it in your folder with the other three handouts for your reference throughout the academy.

Pause for participants to place the glossary in their folder.

Activity

Before moving on, let's create one more item—your name tent! Find the piece of cardstock in your materials. Please use it and the markers at your table to create a name tent.

Allow one minute for this activity.

Throughout the academy, you will work with your tablemates or with a partner. Please take three minutes to get to know the people at your table. Share with each other one thing you hope to take away from this training.

Allow three minutes for introductions and sharing.

Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy Guiding Questions



- How would this instruction benefit your English language learners (ELLs)?
- How would this instruction benefit your struggling students?
- How would this instruction benefit your gifted students?



Slide 4—Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy Guiding Questions





(9:30–11:00)

On your table you will find a sheet of colored cardstock with guiding questions.

Hold up an example of the guiding questions document to show participants.

These questions are to guide your thinking throughout the academy on ways to differentiate the literacy strategies and activities you will learn to reach all students. Take a moment to read the questions on the slide.

Pause for participants to read the questions.

Slide Icons Key	
Icon	What It Means
	Additional resource
	Handout
	Group activity
	Video



Slide 5—Slide Icons Key

(11:00–12:00)

As we move through the academy, you will notice these icons on various slides.

When you see one of these icons on a slide...

Use a laser pointer to point to the additional resource and handout icons.

...that is your clue that you will be accessing one of the additional resources we have provided or a handout from your binder.

Also, you will know when you will be asked to participate with a partner or in a group activity.

Point to the group activity icon.

And you will know when you are about to watch a video.

Point to the video icon.

Agenda

Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy

DAY 1	DAY 2	DAY 3
MORNING		
Academy Overview	Vocabulary	Writing
Supporting All Learners	Comprehension	
AFTERNOON		
Word Study and Recognition	Comprehension (continued)	Motivating and Engaging Students
Fluency		Using Assessment Data
		Putting It All Together



Slide 6—Agenda

(12:00–13:00)

Here is our agenda for the next three days.

This academy is divided into half-day sessions. Each one of these sessions supports the overarching goals for the Reading to Learn Academy—first, to enhance your knowledge of effective instructional practices that promote reading and writing success and, second, to provide you with research-based practices for teaching all students to read and write.

For a more detailed breakdown of what we will cover in each section, consult the agenda provided in your folder. This agenda provides a time frame for particular topics in each section along with the materials you will use for activities.

This agenda is not intended to suggest that the instructional day in your classroom follow this sequence.

Latest Scores for Grade 4 Reading

- 2015 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP):
69 percent below or at basic
- 2016 State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR):
25 percent unsatisfactory (Level 1)



Slide 7—Latest Scores for Grade 4 Reading

(13:00–16:00)

We will begin our morning by studying some big-picture student achievement reading data.

Every two years, fourth-grade students across the country take the National Assessment of Educational Progress, or NAEP. The 2015 scores show that only 31 percent, or approximately one-third, of Texas fourth-grade students performed at or above the proficient level, meaning that 69 percent read at or below the basic level.

This score has not changed significantly from 2013 and is lower than the scores in 29 other states!

In Texas, African American children, Hispanic children, and children identified as low socioeconomic status, or SES, scored more than 30 points below white students.

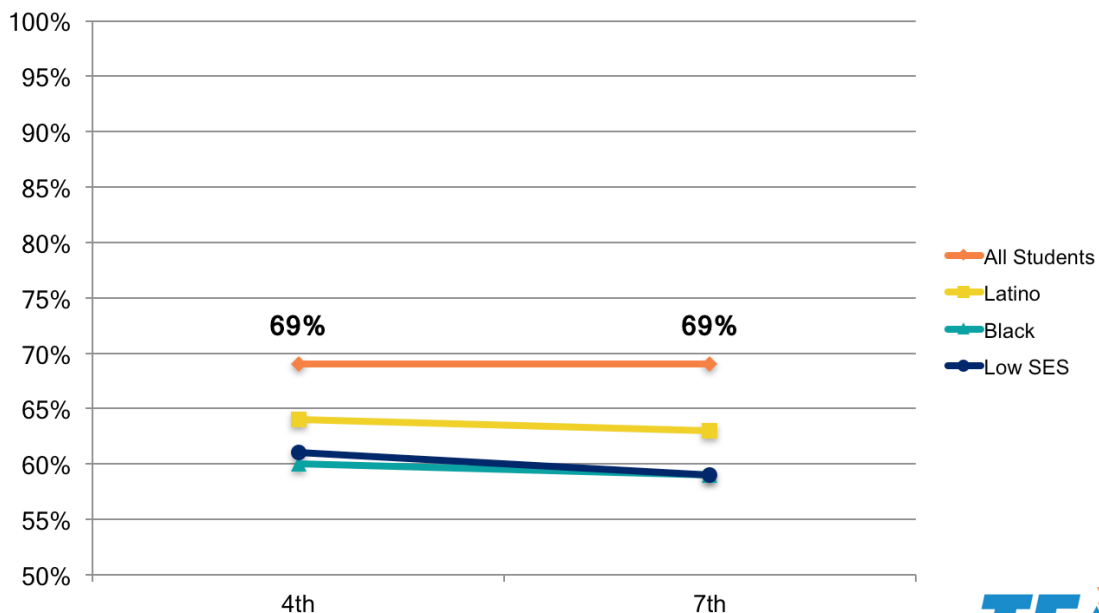
Fourth-grade students performing below the basic level showed significant difficulty in locating relevant information, making simple inferences, or using their understanding of the text to identify details that support a given interpretation or conclusion. They also struggled greatly with identifying a problem in a story and identifying the main purpose or main idea of an informative text.

On the 2016 STAAR, 75 percent of fourth-grade students scored at a satisfactory level and 25 percent scored at Level 1 (unsatisfactory).

References

Texas Education Agency, 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2015

2016 STAAR Writing: Grades 4 and 7 (Satisfactory Level)



Slide 8—2016 STAAR Writing: Grades 4 and 7 (Satisfactory Level)

(16:00–19:00)

Here are the 2016 STAAR writing data for fourth and seventh grades. These data show that student achievement levels in writing are even worse than achievement levels in reading. Again, Latino students, black students, and students from low-income backgrounds fall far below where they need to be. None of these groups had even two-thirds of students at the satisfactory level.

Activity

What are the implications of these scores for you as a teacher of reading and writing? Write your ideas for implications on a sticky note and then discuss your ideas with your table. You have one minute.

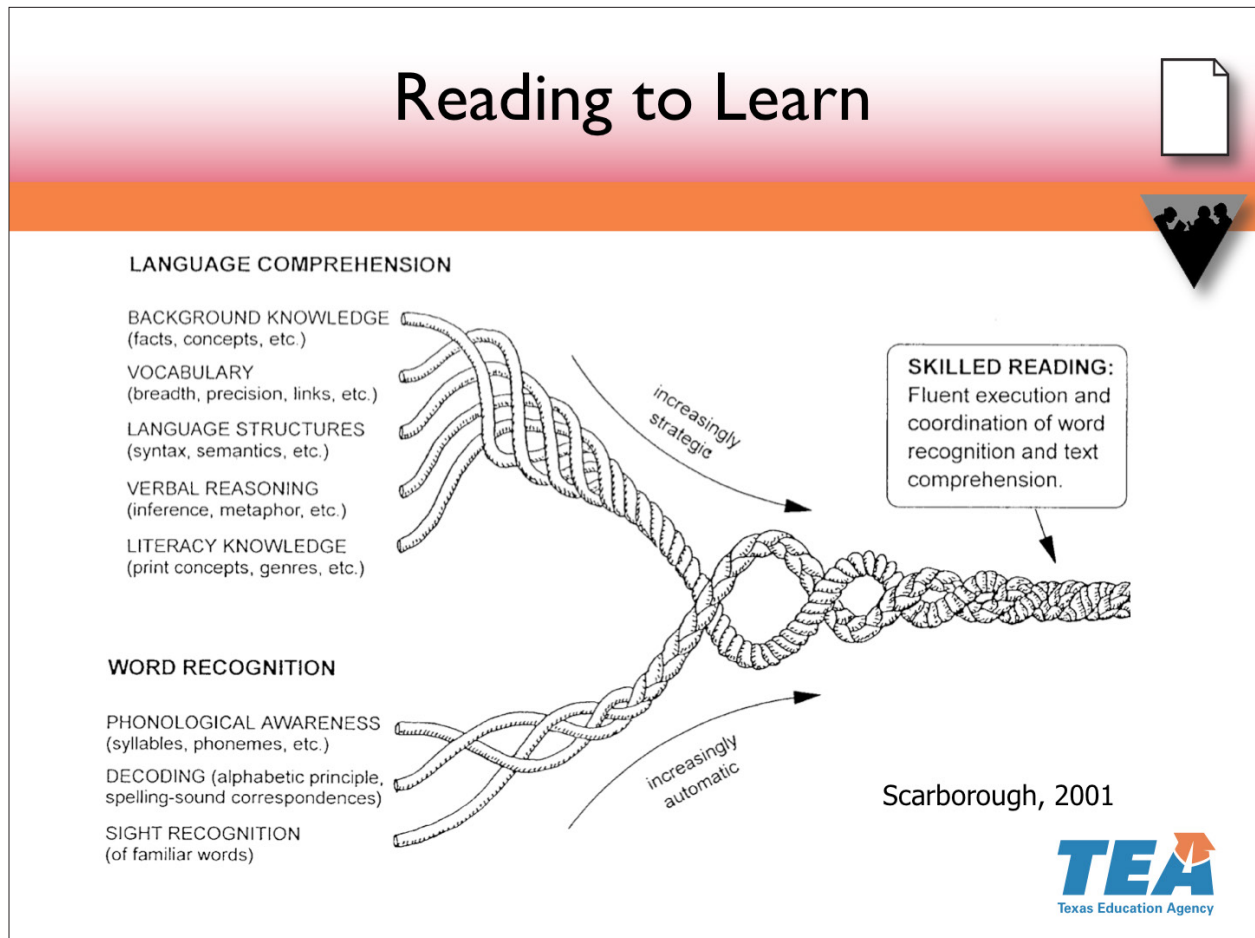
Allow one minute for discussion.

Too many of our Texas students do not read at a level needed to succeed in future educational endeavors or occupations. We can do better. We must do better.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2015

Reading to Learn



Slide 9—Reading to Learn

(19:00–25:00)

The reading skills we teach in the elementary grades are critical for students' later academic success. You will learn research-based strategies and practices to help students learn to read. These strategies are related to understanding vocabulary, recognizing the sounds of language, developing advanced orthographic knowledge, decoding, connecting background knowledge to new ideas, reading with fluency, and comprehending what is read.

Find **Handout 1: The Reading Rope**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

Hollis Scarborough created this graphic to illustrate the complexity of the reading process. Notice all of the threads that science shows must be established early and that later come together to create effective, skilled reading. Also notice that within each of the larger strands are even smaller strands. For example, within language structures, you can see syntax, semantics, and then the abbreviation *etc.*, meaning even more skills are within that overarching component.

When young readers are missing even one of these threads—a large one or a small one—it affects their reading development. That is why we have to ensure that not one of these strands is missing for any student. That is a huge task!

Activity

Take a moment to examine the handout. Put a star next to the two components that you feel you are strongest at teaching. Then, circle the two components that you would like to strengthen.

Pause while participants work.

Now, share with your tablemates your strengths and the areas that you would like to strengthen. You will have four minutes for this discussion activity.

Allow four minutes for this activity.

This academy will provide information on how to strengthen the domains of word recognition and language comprehension for your students as they continue to develop skilled, fluent reading and use this knowledge to read to learn.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills



Organization:

- Strands
- Taglines
- Student expectations
- Comprehension Skills (Figure 19)



Slide 10—Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills

(25:00–30:00)

Are the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills, or TEKS, based on the research that the reading rope model represents? Let's find out.

Find the TEKS Handbook on your table. This academy is based on these standards.

Use the document camera to display the handbook.

Currently, the TEKS are organized around major topic categories called strands, similar to those in the reading rope model. The English TEKS are organized within the yellow tabs, and the Spanish TEKS, which parallel the English TEKS, are organized within the red tabs. The structure of the strands reflects the major topic areas of the 2000 National Reading Panel report and the scientific research on which the reading rope model is based.

This handbook also contains the English Language Proficiency Standards (blue section) and the College and Career Readiness Standards (salmon section).

Note to Presenter

The TEKS are under revision. Current publications remain in effect until all revisions receive final approval and are released by the Texas State Board of Education.

Handout 2: Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment provides an alignment of the reading, writing, listening, speaking, oral and written conventions, and research expectations for grades 3 through 6.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

Looking at Handout 2, you will see the larger strands are divided into subcategories. For example, the Listening, Speaking, and Oral and Written Conventions section is divided into Listening and Speaking and Grammar and Syntax. The Written Conventions section is divided into Handwriting, Capitalization, and Punctuation. Next to each of these subcategories are the student expectations and the grade levels to which they apply. Take a moment to familiarize yourself with this handout because we will use it in an activity in just a moment.

Allow one minute for participants to examine the handout.

Handout 3: Comprehension Skills (2009 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS, Figure 19) shows the expectations in Comprehension Skills (Figure 19) for kindergarten to grade 5 in English and Spanish. Take a moment to familiarize yourself with this handout.

Pause for participants to examine the handout.

We will use these handouts in a moment so please keep them out.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2009

Components of Literacy and the TEKS



- Using Handouts 2 and 3, match the threads of the reading rope with the TEKS.
- Write your answers on Handout 4.



Slide 11—Components of Literacy and the TEKS (30:00–42:00)

Let's see how the TEKS align with the research-based components of the reading rope. We will use Handouts 2 and 3 and **Handout 4: Aligning the Reading Rope, TEKS, and ELPS** for this activity.

Put your copy on the document camera to model the activity.

In the table on Handout 4, the first column lists the components of the reading rope. In the second column, we will match subcategories from the English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS that align with the reading rope components. I will model with the first one. The first column reads “background knowledge,” so I will decide which of the TEKS subcategories fit within that component.

Model thinking aloud as you look through the TEKS.

Let's look at Handout 2, the TEKS alignment handout. On page 6, I see the subcategory Independent Reading, and I know that one way for students to

develop background knowledge is to read independently. So on Handout 4, I will write “independent reading” in the first row, second column.

Write “independent reading” in the box.

I also notice that on pages 6, 7, and 8 of the TEKS alignment, students should read a wide variety of genres. This is another way to develop background knowledge. Instead of writing all of those genre names, I will just write “reading across genres.”

Write “reading across genres” in the box.

Let’s do the second one together—vocabulary. Looking at pages 1 and 5 of Handout 2, which subcategories might we write?

Ask participants for responses. Example responses include listening and speaking and morphology and word relationships. Write participants’ answers on your chart.

Note to Presenter

Presenter Resource 1 provides possible answers for this activity and the next one.

Activity

Throughout this academy, we will use what is known as the “I do,” “We do,” “You do” model. Now that I have modeled for you (“I do”) and we have done an example together (“We do”), you will work at your tables to fill in the rest of the second column (“You do”). Be sure to complete the column on both sides of Handout 4. Use your TEKS Handbook as a guide while completing this handout.

Allow six minutes for the activity.

If you show participants the example responses on Presenter Resource 1, cover the third column, which shows possible answers for the next activity.

As you can see, the TEKS are based on the same research findings depicted in the reading rope model. These expectations are the threads of reading and writing that, when developed and woven together, create literate individuals.

As a culminating activity to each section, we will create our own model of the reading rope. You may have noticed that our agenda aligns closely to the components of the rope, allowing us to dive deeper into each strand. As we complete each section, we will add another strand to our model rope and deepen

Notes continue on the next page.

our understanding of instructional practices necessary to create fluent, skilled readers.

Put Handouts 1, 2 and 3 in your folder. We will use them again later in the academy. Keep Handout 4 out to complete another activity in this section.

Pause for participants to put Handouts 1, 2 and 3 in their folders.

References

National Reading Panel, 2000; Scarborough, 2001; Texas Education Agency, 2009; Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin & Children's Learning Institute, 2012

English Language Proficiency Standards

- The ELPS are language development standards that must be implemented as an integral part of instruction in the TEKS.
- Student expectations are grouped under the four domains of language development: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
- Planning linguistically accommodated instruction that addresses the ELPS allows English language learners to develop English while meeting the TEKS.



Slide 12—English Language Proficiency Standards (42:00–44:00)

The English Language Proficiency Standards, or ELPS, are language development standards that are implemented as an integral part of instruction in the TEKS. The ELPS guide the English literacy instruction provided to English language learners and are grouped in the four domains of language development: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Planning linguistically accommodated instruction that addresses the ELPS allows English language learners to develop English in these four domains while meeting the TEKS at the same time.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2012

Components of Literacy and the ELPS

- Using the *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*, match the threads of the reading rope with the ELPS expectations.
- Write your answers on Handout 4.



Slide 13—Components of Literacy and the ELPS (44:00–54:00)

Please locate the *ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*.

Pause for participants to locate the guide.

We can use this guide and Handout 4 to examine how the ELPS align with the reading rope and the English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS.

Put your copy of Handout 4 on the document camera to model the activity.

I'll model with the first one again—background knowledge. I will look through the ELPS expectations across listening, speaking, reading, and writing for grade 4 to see whether I can find one that relates to background knowledge.

Model thinking aloud as you look through the ELPS.

Under Reading, I found student expectation E. It says, “Read linguistically accommodated content area materials with a decreasing need for linguistic accommodations as more English is learned.” As English language learners gain

English vocabulary and develop background knowledge through reading, they can comprehend English with fewer linguistic accommodations. So I will write “Reading E.”

Write “Reading E” in the box.

I also see background knowledge mentioned in student expectation F, so I will write that one, too. Letters G and H also discuss reading across content areas and reading independently, so I also will write those.

Write “F, G, H” in the box.

Let’s do the next one together. Using your *ELPS Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide*, find expectations that align with vocabulary.

Ask participants for responses. Example responses include Listening C and D and Speaking B, D, and F. Write participants’ answers on your chart.

Activity

Now that we have done an “I do” and a “We do,” work at your tables to fill in the rest of the third column, “You do.” Remember to complete both sides of Handout 4.

Allow six minutes for the activity.

You may show the example responses on Presenter Resource 1.

This activity shows us that the ELPS expectations align closely with research on language and literacy and with the TEKS.

Please put the *ELPS Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide* in your folder. We will use it later in the academy.

Pause for participants to put the guide in their folders.

References

Scarborough, 2001; Texas Education Agency, 2012

The Challenge



“Teaching reading really is rocket science.”

— Moats, 1999



Slide 14—The Challenge

(54:00–1:00:00)

As we can see from the reading rope model, the TEKS, and the ELPS, developing students’ various language and literacy skills is complex. There are so many areas where gaps can form or difficulties can arise. As Louisa Moats says, “Teaching reading really is rocket science.”

So how do we do it? That is what we will learn during the next three days. We will look across the literacy landscape to explore the components and skills that you can use in your classrooms. As you engage in the activities and work with the resources throughout this academy, take time to reflect on how they can complement and enhance your literacy curriculum when you return to your campus.

To help you synthesize and summarize the information as we go along, we have created a resource for you to use, Grade 4 Literacy Block. It is in your folder. Please locate that resource now.

As participants find the resource, put your copy on the document camera.

This resource provides the components to be taught in a core literacy classroom. Notice the approximate times provided for each component. Please note that these times are approximations and that the time you spend in each component may vary from day to day.

Each section of the chart is a literacy component to address daily. In each section of this academy, you will learn instructional strategies, lessons, workstation ideas, and specific methods to differentiate your instruction and support all learners. Throughout each section, you will use this resource to summarize the instructional ideas you learned and apply them to your specific district expectations and structures. At the end of the third day, the entire chart will be filled in, and you can use it to plan instruction across the components when you go back to your campus.

Because we will use it throughout the next three days, this resource should go back in your folder.

Pause for participants to put the resource back in their folders.

Now we are ready to begin our next section, Supporting All Learners.


Reference

Moats, 1999



Overview

Handouts

A graphic of a yellow pencil with a black eraser and a pink eraser, positioned horizontally across the middle of the text.

READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

The Reading Rope

The Many Strands That are Woven Into Skilled Reading

LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE
(facts, concepts, etc.)

VOCABULARY
(breadth, precision, links, etc.)

LANGUAGE STRUCTURES
(syntax, semantics, etc.)

VERBAL REASONING
(inference, metaphor, etc.)

LITERACY KNOWLEDGE
(print concepts, genres, etc.)

*increasingly
strategic*

WORD RECOGNITION

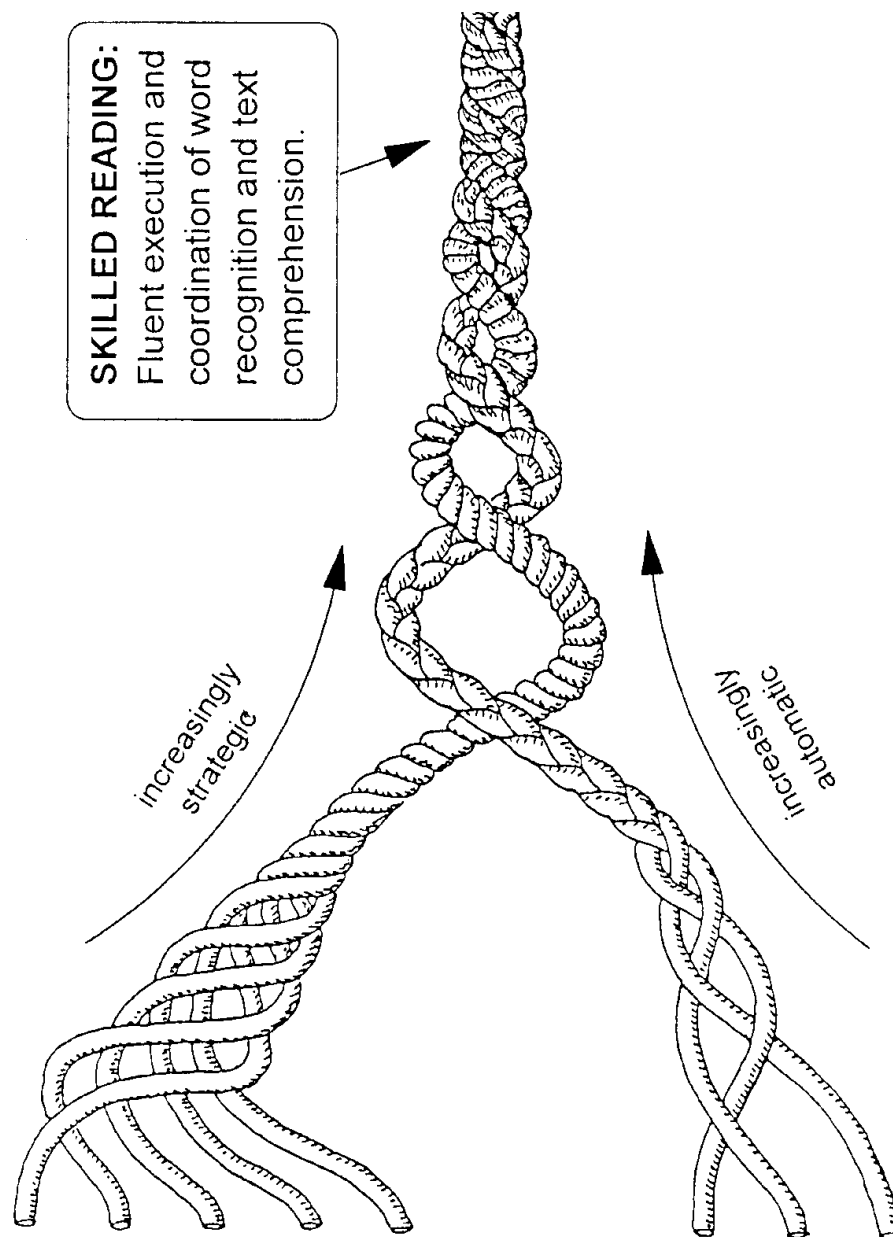
PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS
(syllables, phonemes, etc.)

DECODING (alphabetic principle,
spelling-sound correspondences)

SIGHT RECOGNITION
(of familiar words)

*increasingly
automatic*

SKILLED READING:
Fluent execution and
coordination of word
recognition and text
comprehension.



Adapted from Scarborough, 2001.

Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment

Excerpted and adapted from Texas Administrative Code (TAC), Title 19, Part II, Chapter 110, Subchapter A. Elementary

LISTENING, SPEAKING, AND ORAL/Written CONVENTIONS	Grammar and Syntax	Differentiate between active and passive voice and know how to use both				
		Use complete simple and compound sentences with correct subject-verb agreement				6
LISTENING, SPEAKING, AND ORAL/Written CONVENTIONS	Grammar and Syntax	Use the complete subject and complete predicate in a sentence				
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Transition words (time-order = G3–G4; conclusion = G4; related to text's organization = G6)				
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Coordinating conjunctions (G3), correlative conjunctions (G4), subordinating conjunctions (G5–G6)				
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Pronouns (possessive = G3; reflexive = G4; indefinite = G5–G6)	3			
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Prepositions and prepositional phrases (to convey location, time, direction, or detail)				
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Adverbs (time = G3; manner = G3; frequency = G4–G5; intensity = G4–G5; conjunctive = G6)	3			
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Adjectives (descriptive, including purpose = G4, origins = G5, predicate = G6; comparative/superlative forms = G4–G6)		4	5	6
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Adjectives (articles/limiting)				
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Nouns (singular/plural, common/proper = G3–G4; collective = G5; noncount = G6)				
		Understand and use in reading, writing, and speaking: Verbs (past, present, and future = G3; irregular verbs = G4; active voice = G5–G6; passive voice = G6)	3	4		
	Listening and Speaking	Participate in student-led discussions by eliciting and considering suggestions from other group members and by identifying points of agreement and disagreement			5	6
		Participate in teacher- and student-led discussions by posing and answering questions with appropriate detail and by providing suggestions that build upon the ideas of others	3	4		
		Give organized presentation (with specific point of view = G6) using eye contact, speaking rate, volume, enunciation, natural gestures, and language conventions			5	6
		Express an opinion supported by accurate information using eye contact, speaking rate, volume, enunciation, and language conventions to communicate ideas effectively		4		
		Speak coherently about topic under discussion using eye contact, speaking rate, volume, enunciation, and language conventions to communicate ideas effectively	3			
		Paraphrase the major ideas and supporting evidence in formal and informal presentations				6
		Determine both main and supporting ideas in the speaker's message				
		Follow, restate (G5), and give oral instructions that include multiple action steps			5	6
		Follow, restate, and give oral instructions that involve a series of related sequences of action	3	4		
		Listen to and interpret a speaker's messages (both verbal and nonverbal) and ask questions to clarify the speaker's purpose or perspective			5	6
		Listen attentively to speakers, ask relevant questions, and make pertinent comments	3	4		

WRITING	Literary (Stories)	Write imaginative stories that include dialogue that develops the story				
		Write imaginative stories that include a specific, believable setting created through the use of sensory details				
		Write imaginative stories that include a clearly defined focus, plot, and point of view			5	6
		Write imaginative stories that build the plot to a climax and contain details about the characters and setting	3			
	Writing Process	Revise final draft in response to feedback from peers and teacher and publish written work for a specific audience (G4) or appropriate audience (G5–G6)		4	5	6
		Publish written work for a specific audience	3			
		Edit drafts for grammar, mechanics, and spelling			5	6
		Edit drafts for grammar, mechanics, and spelling using a teacher-developed rubric	3	4		
		Revise drafts to clarify meaning, enhance style, include simple and compound sentences, and improve transitions by adding, deleting, combining, and rearranging sentences or larger text units after rethinking how well questions of purpose, audience, and genre have been addressed			5	6
		Revise drafts for coherence, organization, use of simple/compound sentences, and audience	3	4		
		Develop drafts by choosing an appropriate organizational strategy and building on ideas to create a focused, organized, and coherent piece of writing			5	6
		Develop drafts by categorizing ideas and organizing them into paragraphs	3	4		
		Plan a first draft by selecting a genre appropriate for conveying the intended meaning to an audience, determining appropriate topics through a range of strategies, and developing a thesis/controlling idea			5	6
		Plan a first draft by selecting a genre appropriate for conveying the intended meaning to an audience and generating ideas through a range of strategies		4		
	Punctuation	Use correct mechanics, including paragraph indentations (G3), italics and underlining for titles and emphasis (G5), and book titles (G6)	3		5	
		Recognize and use parentheses, brackets, and ellipses				
		Recognize and use proper punctuation and spacing for quotations			5	6
		Recognize and use quotation marks				
		Recognize and use commas (in series and dates = G3; in compound sentences = G4–G6)		4	5	6
		Recognize and use apostrophes in contractions and possessives	3			
WRITTEN CONVENTIONS	Capitalization	Use capitalization for abbreviations, initials and acronyms, and organizations			5	6
		Use capitalization for historical events and documents; titles of books, stories, and essays; and languages, races, and nationalities		4		
		Use capitalization for official titles of people, geographical names and places, and historical periods	3			
	Handwriting	Write legibly by selecting cursive or manuscript printing as appropriate		4		
		Write legibly in cursive script with spacing between words and sentences	3			

RESEARCH	Plan	Generate a research plan for gathering relevant information about the research question	3	4		
		Brainstorm, consult with others, decide upon a topic, and formulate open-ended questions to address the major research topic			5	6
Persuasive		Generate research topics from personal interests or by brainstorming with others, narrow to one topic, and formulate open-ended questions about the research topic	3	4		
		Write persuasive essays for appropriate audiences that establish a position and include sound reasoning, detailed and relevant evidence, and consideration of alternatives			5	6
Expository and Procedural		Write persuasive essays for appropriate audiences that establish a position and use supporting details	3	4		
		Produce a multimedia presentation involving text and graphics using available technology				
Literary (Poems and Personal Narratives)		Write responses to literary or expository texts and provide evidence from the text to demonstrate understanding		4	5	6
		Write responses to literary or expository texts that show an understanding of the text	3			
Writing (Continued)		Write formal (G5) and informal (G5–G6) letters that convey ideas, include important information, demonstrate a sense of closure, and use appropriate conventions			5	6
		Write letters whose language is tailored to the audience and purpose and that use appropriate conventions	3	4		
Writing (Continued)		Create multiparagraph essays about a topic that use a variety of sentence structures and transitions to link paragraphs				
		Create multiparagraph essays about a topic that include specific facts, details, and examples in an appropriately organized structure				
Writing (Continued)		Create multiparagraph essays about a topic that guide and inform the reader's understanding of key ideas and evidence				
		Create multiparagraph essays about a topic that present effective introductions and concluding paragraphs			5	6
Writing (Continued)		Create brief compositions that include supporting sentences with simple facts, details, and explanations				
		Create brief compositions that contain a concluding statement				
Writing (Continued)		Create brief compositions that establish a central idea in a topic sentence	3	4		
		Write a personal narrative that has a clearly defined focus and communicates the importance of or reasons for actions and/or consequences				6
Writing (Continued)		Write a personal narrative that conveys thoughts and feelings about an experience			5	
		Write about important personal experiences	3	4		
Writing (Continued)		Write poems using graphic elements (e.g., capital letters, line length)				
		Write poems using figurative language (e.g., similes, metaphors)				
Writing (Continued)		Write poems using poetic techniques (e.g., alliteration, onomatopoeia)			5	6
		Write poems that convey sensory details using the conventions of poetry (e.g., rhyme, meter, patterns of verse)	3	4		

RESEARCH (CONTINUED)	PHONICS, DECODING, AND SPELLING			
	Phonics and Decoding	Spelling		
	Monitor accuracy of decoding	Spell advanced patterns: Consonant changes (e.g., /t/ to /sh/ in <i>select/selection</i>); vowel changes (e.g., long to short in <i>crime/criminal</i>); and silent and sounded consonants (e.g., <i>haste/hasten</i> , <i>sign/signal</i>)		5
	Identify and read contractions	Spell advanced patterns: Double consonants, plural rules, irregular plurals, ways to spell /sh/, silent letters	4	
	Use syllable patterns to decode: Closed, open, final stable, VCe, vowel teams, vowel-r	Spell advanced patterns: Complex consonants, double consonants, consonant doubling/dropping final e/changing y to i when adding an ending, abstract vowels		
	Decode spelling patterns: Using knowledge of common prefixes and suffixes and of derivational affixes	Use knowledge of letter sounds, word parts, word segmentation, and syllables to spell		
	Decode spelling patterns: Dropping final e, doubling final consonants, and changing final y to i when adding inflectional endings			
	Decode multisyllabic words in context and isolation by applying common spelling patterns		3	
	Use quotations to support ideas and an appropriate form of documentation to acknowledge sources			
	Present findings in a consistent format			5
	Draw conclusions through a brief written explanation and create works-cited page		3	4
	Develop a topic sentence, summarize findings, and use evidence to support conclusions			
	Compile important information from multiple sources			
	Evaluate the relevance, validity, and reliability of sources for the research			
	Refine the major research question, if necessary, guided by the answers to a secondary set of questions			5
	Improve focus of research as a result of consulting expert sources			6
	Differentiate between paraphrasing and plagiarism and identify the importance of citing valid and reliable sources		3	4
	Identify the source of notes and record bibliographic information concerning those sources according to a standard format			5
	Identify the author, title, publisher, and publication year of sources		3	4
	Record data using available technology to see the relationships between ideas and convert graphic or visual data into written notes			5
	Take simple notes and sort evidence into provided categories or an organizer		3	4
	Differentiate between primary and secondary sources			5
	Use skimming or scanning techniques to identify data by looking at text features		3	4
	Follow a research plan to collect data from a range of print and electronic resources and data from experts			5
	Follow a research plan to collect information from multiple sources of information (e.g., surveys; inspections; interviews; data from experts, texts, online searches)		3	4

PHONICS, DECODING, & SPELLING (CONT.)	FLUENCY	VOCABULARY						
		Fluency	Morphology	Context Clues	Word Relationships			
	Spelling (continued)	Adjust fluency when reading aloud grade-level text based on reading purpose and nature of the text					6	
		Read aloud grade-level text with fluency (rate, accuracy, expression, appropriate phrasing) and comprehension	3	4				
		Know how to use the spell-check function in word-processing while understanding its limitations						
		Use spelling patterns and rules and print and electronic resources to determine and check correct spellings		4			5	
		Use print and electronic resources to find and check correct spellings	3					
		Differentiate between commonly confused terms (e.g., <i>its/it's</i> , <i>affect/effect</i>)					5	
		Spell single-syllable homophones (G3) and commonly used homophones (G4)		4				
		Spell complex contractions (e.g., <i>should've</i> , <i>won't</i>)						
		Spell high-frequency words from a commonly used list	3					
		Spell words with Greek roots, Latin roots, Greek suffixes, and Latin-derived suffixes					5	
	Spell base words and roots with affixes		4					
	Spell compound words and words with common syllable patterns	3						
	Language	Identify and apply playful uses of language	3					
		Identify the meaning of common idioms		4				
		Identify and explain the meanings of common idioms, adages, and other sayings					5	
		Explain the meanings of foreign words and phrases commonly used in written English					6	
		Dictionary Use	Alphabetize a series of words to the third letter and use a dictionary to determine the meanings, syllabication, and pronunciation of unknown words	3				
			Use a dictionary or glossary to determine the meanings, syllabication, and pronunciation of unknown words		4			
			Use a dictionary, glossary, or thesaurus (print or electronic) to determine the meanings, syllabication, pronunciations, alternate word choices, and parts of speech of words					5
								6
		Word Relationships	Identify and use antonyms, synonyms, homographs, and homophones	3				
			Complete analogies using knowledge of antonyms and synonyms		4			
	Produce analogies with known antonyms and synonyms						5	
	Complete analogies that describe part to whole or whole to part						6	
	Context Clues	Use context to determine the relevant meaning of unfamiliar words or distinguish among multiple-meaning words and homographs	3					
		Use the context of the sentence to determine or clarify (G5) the meaning of unfamiliar words or multiple-meaning words		4			5	
		Use context (e.g., organizational text structures) to determine or clarify the meaning of unfamiliar or multiple-meaning words					6	
	Morphology	Identify the meaning of common prefixes and suffixes and know how they change the meaning of roots	3					
Determine the meaning of grade-level academic English words derived from Latin, Greek, or other linguistic roots and affixes			4			5		
Fluency						6		

READING COMPREHENSION	Literary Texts: Fiction	Describe different forms of point of view, including first- and third-person				6
		Explain different forms of third-person point of view in stories			5	
		Identify whether the narrator or speaker of a story is first or third person	3	4		
		Recognize dialect and conversational voice and explain how authors use dialect to convey character				6
		Explain characters' roles/functions in various plots, including relationships/conflicts			5	
		Describe characters' interactions, including relationships and changes they undergo	3	4		
		Summarize elements of plot development (e.g., rising action) in various fictional works				6
		Describe incidents that advance the story or novel, explaining how each gives rise to or foreshadows future events			5	
		Sequence and summarize the plot's main events and explain their influence on future events	3	4		
	Literary Texts: Theme/Genre	Compare and contrast the historical and cultural settings of two literary works				6
		Explain the effect of a historical event or movement on the theme of a work of literature			5	
		Analyze the function of stylistic elements in traditional and classical literature from various cultures				6
		Describe the phenomena explained in origin myths from various cultures			5	
		Compare and contrast the adventures or exploits of characters in traditional and classical literature		4		
		Compare and contrast the settings in myths and traditional folktales	3			
		Infer the implicit theme of a fictional work, distinguishing theme from topic				6
		Compare and contrast the themes or moral lessons of several works of fiction from various cultures			5	
		Summarize and explain the lesson or message of a work of fiction as its theme		4		
	Sensory Language	Paraphrase themes and supporting details of fables, legends, myths, or stories	3			
		Explain how authors create meaning through stylistic elements and figurative language, emphasizing the use of personification, hyperbole, and refrains				6
		Evaluate the impact of sensory details, imagery, and figurative language in literary text			5	
		Identify the author's use of similes and metaphors to produce imagery		4		
		Identify language that creates a graphic, visual experience and appeals to the senses				
	BEG. READING STRATEGIES	Establish purpose for reading selected texts and monitor comprehension, making corrections and adjustments when that understanding breaks down (e.g., identifying clues, using background knowledge, generating questions, rereading)				
		Ask relevant questions, seek clarification, and locate facts and details about stories and other texts and support answers with evidence from text				
		Use ideas (e.g., illustrations, titles, key words) to make and confirm predictions				
	INDEP. READING	Read independently for a sustained period of time and paraphrase (G3–G5) or summarize (G5) what the reading was about, maintaining meaning and logical order	3	4	5	

READING COMPREHENSION (CONTINUED)	Expository Texts	Synthesize and make logical connections between ideas within text and across two or three texts representing similar or different genres				6
		Use multiple text features to gain an overview of a text and to locate information		4	5	
		Use text features to locate information and to make and verify predictions about the text	3			
		Explain how different organizational patterns develop the main idea and author's viewpoint				6
		Analyze how the organizational pattern of a text influences relationships among ideas			5	
		Describe explicit and implicit relationships among ideas in texts organized by cause-and-effect, sequence, or comparison		4		
		Identify explicit cause-and-effect relationships among ideas in texts	3			
		Explain whether facts included in an argument are used for or against an issue				6
		Determine facts in text and verify them through established methods			5	
		Distinguish fact from opinion in a text and explain how to verify what is a fact		4		
		Draw conclusions from the facts presented in text and support those assertions with textual evidence	3			
		Summarize the main idea and supporting details in text, demonstrating an understanding that a summary does not include opinions				6
		Summarize the main idea and supporting details in text in ways that maintain meaning (G4–G5) and logical order (G5)		4	5	
		Identify the details and facts that support the main idea	3			
	Informational Purpose	Compare and contrast stated or implied purposes of different authors writing on the same topic				6
		Draw conclusions from the information presented by an author and evaluate how well the author's purpose was achieved			5	
		Explain the difference between a stated and an implied purpose for an expository text		4		
		Identify the topic and locate the author's stated purposes in writing the text	3			
	Literary Nonfiction	Identify literary language and devices used in memoirs and personal narratives and compare their characteristics with those of an autobiography				6
		Identify literary language and devices used in biographies and autobiographies, including how authors present major events in a person's life			5	
		Identify similarities and differences between events and characters' experiences in a fictional work and the actual events and experiences in a biography or autobiography		4		
		Explain the difference in point of view between a biography and autobiography	3			
	Drama	Explain similarities and differences in the setting, characters, and plot of a play and those in film based upon the same story line				6
		Analyze similarities and differences between an original text and its dramatic adaptation			5	
		Describe the structural elements particular to dramatic literature		4		
		Explain the elements of plot and character as presented through dialogue in scripts that are read, viewed, written, or performed	3			
	Poetry	Explain how figurative language contributes to the meaning of a poem				6
		Analyze how poets use sound effects (e.g., alliteration) to reinforce meaning in poems			5	
		Explain how the structural elements of poetry relate to form		4		
		Describe the characteristics of various forms of poetry and how they create imagery	3			

READING COMPREHENSION (CONTINUED)	Media Literacy	Analyze various digital media venues for levels of formality and informality			5	6
		Compare various written conventions used for digital media	3	4		
		Recognize how various techniques influence viewers' emotions				6
		Identify the point of view of media presentations			5	
		Critique persuasive techniques used in media messages				6
		Consider difference in techniques used in media			5	
		Explain how various design techniques used in media influence the message	3	4		
		Explain messages conveyed in various forms of media				6
		Explain how messages conveyed in various forms of media are presented differently			5	
		Explain the positive and negative impacts of advertisement techniques used in various genres of media to affect consumer behavior		4		
		Understand how communication changes when moving from one media genre to another	3			
	Procedural Texts	Interpret factual (G5–G6), quantitative (G5–G6), or technical (G6) information presented in maps, charts, illustrations, graphs, timelines, tables, and diagrams			5	6
		Explain factual information presented graphically		4		
		Locate and use specific information in graphic features of text	3			
		Follow multitask instructions to complete a task, solve a problem, or perform procedures				6
		Interpret details from procedural text to complete a task, solve a problem, or perform procedures			5	
		Determine the sequence of activities needed to carry out a procedure		4		
		Follow and explain written multistep directions	3			
	Persuasive	Identify faulty reasoning used in persuasive texts				6
		Recognize exaggerated, contradictory, or misleading statements in text			5	
		Compare and contrast structure and viewpoints of two different authors writing for same purpose, noting the stated claim and supporting evidence				6
		Identify an author's viewpoint or position and explain basic relationships among ideas in the argument			5	
		Explain how an author uses language to present information to influence what the reader thinks or does		4		
		Identify what the author is trying to persuade the reader to think or do	3			

Comprehension Skills (2009 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS, Figure 19)

Figure: 19 TAC §110.10(b)

19 TAC Chapter 110. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for English Language Arts and Reading
Subchapter A. Elementary
Reading/Comprehension Skills §110.11 - §110.16

Kindergarten (§110.11 English Language Arts and Reading)	First Grade (§110.12 English Language Arts and Reading)	Second Grade (§110.13 English Language Arts and Reading)	Third Grade (§110.14 English Language Arts and Reading)	Fourth Grade (§110.15 English Language Arts and Reading)	Fifth Grade (§110.16 English Language Arts and Reading)
Reading/Comprehension Skills. Students use a flexible range of metacognitive reading skills in both assigned and independent reading to understand an author's message. Students will continue to apply earlier standards with greater depth in increasingly more complex texts as they become self-directed, critical readers. The student is expected to:	Reading/Comprehension Skills. Students use a flexible range of metacognitive reading skills in both assigned and independent reading to understand an author's message. Students will continue to apply earlier standards with greater depth in increasingly more complex texts as they become self-directed, critical readers. The student is expected to:	Reading/Comprehension Skills. Students use a flexible range of metacognitive reading skills in both assigned and independent reading to understand an author's message. Students will continue to apply earlier standards with greater depth in increasingly more complex texts as they become self-directed, critical readers. The student is expected to:	Reading/Comprehension Skills. Students use a flexible range of metacognitive reading skills in both assigned and independent reading to understand an author's message. Students will continue to apply earlier standards with greater depth in increasingly more complex texts as they become self-directed, critical readers. The student is expected to:	Reading/Comprehension Skills. Students use a flexible range of metacognitive reading skills in both assigned and independent reading to understand an author's message. Students will continue to apply earlier standards with greater depth in increasingly more complex texts as they become self-directed, critical readers. The student is expected to:	Reading/Comprehension Skills. Students use a flexible range of metacognitive reading skills in both assigned and independent reading to understand an author's message. Students will continue to apply earlier standards with greater depth in increasingly more complex texts as they become self-directed, critical readers. The student is expected to:
(A) discuss the purposes for reading and listening to various texts (e.g., to become involved in real and imagined events, settings, actions, and to enjoy language); (B) ask and respond to questions about text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon content to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon own or others' desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal, interpretive, and evaluative questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon own or others' desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal, interpretive, and evaluative questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon own or others' desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal, interpretive, evaluative, and universal questions of text;

Figure: 19 TAC §110.10(b)
 19 TAC Chapter 110. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for English Language Arts and Reading
 Subchapter A. Elementary
 Reading/Comprehension Skills §110.11 - §110.16

Kindergarten (§110.11 <i>English Language Arts and Reading</i>)	First Grade (§110.12 <i>English Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Second Grade (§110.13 <i>English Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Third Grade (§110.14 <i>English Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Fourth Grade (§110.15 <i>English Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Fifth Grade (§110.16 <i>English Language Arts and Reading</i>)
(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);
(D) make inferences based on the cover, title, illustrations, and plot;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text using textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;
(E) retell or act out important events in stories; and	(E) retell or act out important events in stories in logical order; and	(E) retell important events in stories in logical order; and	(E) summarize information in text, maintaining meaning and logical order; and	(E) summarize information in text, maintaining meaning and logical order; and	(E) summarize and paraphrase texts in ways that maintain meaning and logical order within a text and across texts; and
(F) make connections to own experiences, to ideas in other texts, and to the larger community and discuss textual evidence.	(F) make connections to own experiences, to ideas in other texts, and to the larger community and discuss textual evidence.	(F) make connections to own experiences, to ideas in other texts, and to the larger community and discuss textual evidence.	(F) make connections (e.g., thematic links, author analysis) between literary and informational texts with similar ideas and provide textual evidence.	(F) make connections (e.g., thematic links, author analysis) between literary and informational texts with similar ideas and provide textual evidence.	(F) make connections (e.g., thematic links, author analysis) between and across multiple texts of various genres and provide textual evidence.

Comprehension Skills (2009 Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS, Figure 19)

Figure: 19 TAC §128.10(b)

19 TAC Chapter 128. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Spanish Language Arts and Reading and English as a Second Language Subchapter A. Elementary
Reading/Comprehension Skills §128.11 - §128.16

Kindergarten (§128.11 Spanish Language Arts and Reading)	First Grade (§128.12 Spanish Language Arts and Reading)	Second Grade (§128.13 Spanish Language Arts and Reading)	Third Grade (§128.14 Spanish Language Arts and Reading)	Fourth Grade (§128.15 Spanish Language Arts and Reading)	Fifth Grade (§128.16 Spanish Language Arts and Reading)
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(A) discuss the purposes for reading and listening to various texts (e.g., to become involved in real and imagined events, settings, actions, and to enjoy language); (B) ask and respond to questions about text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon content to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon own or others' desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal, interpretive, and evaluative questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon own or others' desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal, interpretive, and evaluative questions of text;	(A) establish purposes for reading selected texts based upon own or others' desired outcome to enhance comprehension; (B) ask literal, interpretive, evaluative, and universal questions of text;

Figure: 19 TAC §128.10(b)

19 TAC Chapter 128. Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for Spanish Language Arts and Reading and English as a Second Language
 Subchapter A. Elementary
 Reading/Comprehension Skills §128.11 - §128.16

Kindergarten (§128.11 <i>Spanish Language Arts and Reading</i>)	First Grade (§128.12 <i>Spanish Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Second Grade (§128.13 <i>Spanish Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Third Grade (§128.14 <i>Spanish Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Fourth Grade (§128.15 <i>Spanish Language Arts and Reading</i>)	Fifth Grade (§128.16 <i>Spanish Language Arts and Reading</i>)
(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);	(C) monitor and adjust comprehension (e.g., using background knowledge, creating sensory images, re-reading a portion aloud, generating questions);
(D) make inferences based on the cover, title, illustrations, and plot;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text using textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;	(D) make inferences about text and use textual evidence to support understanding;
(E) retell or act out important events in stories; and	(E) retell or act out important events in stories in logical order; and	(E) retell important events in stories in logical order; and	(E) summarize information in text, maintaining meaning and logical order; and	(E) summarize information in text, maintaining meaning and logical order; and	(E) summarize and paraphrase texts in ways that maintain meaning and logical order within a text and across texts; and
(F) make connections to own experiences, to ideas in other texts, and to the larger community and discuss textual evidence.	(F) make connections to own experiences, to ideas in other texts, and to the larger community and discuss textual evidence.	(F) make connections to own experiences, to ideas in other texts, and to the larger community and discuss textual evidence.	(F) make connections (e.g., thematic links, author analysis) between literary and informational texts with similar ideas and provide textual evidence.	(F) make connections (e.g., thematic links, author analysis) between literary and informational texts with similar ideas and provide textual evidence.	(F) make connections (e.g., thematic links, author analysis) between and across multiple texts of various genres and provide textual evidence.

Aligning the Reading Rope, TEKS, and ELPS

Components of the Reading Rope	English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS Subcategories	ELPS Language Domain(s)
LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION		
Background knowledge (facts, concepts, etc.)		
Vocabulary (breadth, precision, links, etc.)		
Language structures (syntax, semantics, etc.)		
Verbal reasoning (inferences, metaphors, etc.)		
Literacy knowledge (print concepts, genres, etc.)		
Increasingly strategic		

Components of the Reading Rope	English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS Subcategories	ELPS Language Domain(s)
WORD RECOGNITION		
Phonological awareness (syllables, phonemes, etc.)		
Decoding (alphabetic principle, spelling-sound correspondences)		
Sight Recognition (of familiar words)		
Increasingly automatic		

Adapted from Scarborough, 2001.

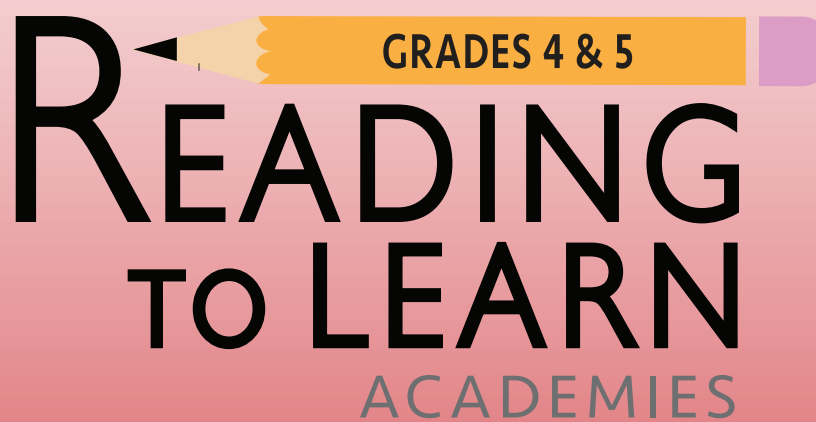
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Overview

Presenter Resource



GRADE 4

Possible Answers for Participant Activity

Aligning the Reading Rope, TEKS, and ELPS

Components of the Reading Rope	English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS Subcategories	ELPS Language Domain(s)
LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION		
Background knowledge (facts, concepts, etc.)	Independent reading Reading across genres	Reading E, F, G, H
Vocabulary (breadth, precision, links, etc.)	Listening and speaking Morphology Context clues Word relationships Language Dictionary use	Listening C, D Speaking B, D, F Reading C, F Writing B
Language structures (syntax, semantics, etc.)	Listening and speaking Grammar and syntax Capitalization Punctuation Morphology	Reading E, F, G, H
Verbal reasoning (inferences, metaphors, etc.)	Language Sensory language Literary texts: Theme/genre Comprehension Skills (Figure 19)	Listening G, H Reading I, J, K
Literacy knowledge (print concepts, genres, etc.)	Handwriting Writing process Writing across genres Literary texts: Theme/genre Reading across genres	Reading B, D, F Writing F, G
Increasingly strategic	Beginning reading strategies Comprehension Skills (Figure 19)	Listening I Speaking I Reading D, F, G, I, J, K


Components of the Reading Rope	English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS Subcategories	ELPS Language Domain(s)
WORD RECOGNITION		
Phonological awareness (syllables, phonemes, etc.)	Spelling	Listening A, B Speaking A
Decoding (alphabetic principle, spelling-sound correspondences)	Phonics and decoding Spelling Handwriting Morphology	Reading A Writing A, C
Sight Recognition (of familiar words)	Phonics and decoding Spelling Fluency	Reading C Writing B, C
Increasingly automatic	Phonics and decoding Spelling Fluency	Reading A, C Writing A, B, C

Adapted from Scarborough, 2001.



Supporting All Learners

Presenter Notes

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black lead tip, positioned horizontally behind the text "READING TO LEARN".
**READING
TO LEARN**
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Document camera
- Cup-in-a-cup with popsicle sticks
- *The Dyslexia Handbook—Revised 2014: Procedures Concerning Dyslexia and Related Disorders*
- Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary
- Video: Students With Dyslexia
- Video: Teaching Cognates

Participant Materials

- Participant Guide
- ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide
- Set of vocabulary skill cards for activity
- Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary

Materials to Provide Each Table

- Guiding Questions document (two per table)
- *The Dyslexia Handbook—Revised 2014: Procedures Concerning Dyslexia and Related Disorders*



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Supporting All Learners

Slide I—Title Slide

(0:00–0:30)

In this section, we will examine effective instructional practices that promote reading and writing success for **all** students.

Section Objectives

This two-hour section will enhance your knowledge of the following:

- The strengths and needs of students with dyslexia
- Support for English language learners through the stages of language development
- The features of effective instruction to support all learners
- Differentiated instruction for efficient student learning



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:30–1:30)

We will first discuss the strengths and needs of students with dyslexia. Then, we will examine instructional support for English language learners, the features of effective instruction, and differentiated instruction related to literacy. These objectives should guide your learning for this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.



SUPPORTING ALL LEARNERS

Students With Dyslexia

SECTION—Students With Dyslexia

(1:30–13:30)

**Slide 3—Supporting All Learners:
Students With Dyslexia**

(1:30–2:00)

Let's begin by discussing students with dyslexia.

What Is Dyslexia?



“Dyslexia means a disorder of constitutional origin manifested by a difficulty in learning to read, write, or spell, despite conventional instruction, adequate intelligence, and sociocultural opportunity.”

—Texas Education Agency, 2014, p. 8



Slide 4—What Is Dyslexia?

(2:00–7:00)

Consider the reading rope and how all the strands come together to create effective, skilled reading. Dyslexia is a deficit in the word-recognition strand.

This definition of dyslexia comes from Texas law, Education Code §38.003, and is referenced on page 8 of *The Dyslexia Handbook—Revised 2014: Procedures Concerning Dyslexia and Related Disorders*. The handbook provides state-level guidance for dyslexia and related disorders.

Video: Students With Dyslexia

We will now watch a video discussion of dyslexia with Dr. Jack Fletcher. As you watch, reflect on the instructional implications for students with dyslexia and write your thoughts on a sticky note.

Play the video.

Take one minute to discuss your reflections with your tablemates.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2014, p. 8

Dyslexia Facts

IS	IS NOT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A collection of language-based difficulties • A neurobiological difference • At all intellectual and socioeconomic levels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeing letters backward • Due to lack of motivation • Caused by laziness • Identified only in third grade or later • Limited to English speakers • Untreatable



Slide 5—Dyslexia Facts

(7:00–8:00)

Students with dyslexia process language, written and spoken, differently from most children.

Dyslexia is not seeing letters backward. It is not caused by hearing or vision problems. It is a language-based problem.

Dyslexia is a neurobiological difference affecting the ability to process phonological information and use this sound information to read.

The good news is that with the appropriate instruction beginning in the earliest grades, students with dyslexia can learn to read and write. However, the longer that specialized instruction is delayed, the more difficult it is for students to learn to read competently.

Identify Dyslexia Early!

Students can be identified for dyslexia by the middle of kindergarten, if not earlier.

**“It is important that the school district
NOT delay identification and intervention
processes until second or third grade.”**

— Texas Education Agency, 2014, p. 13



Slide 6—Identify Dyslexia Early!

(8:00–8:30)

The *Dyslexia Handbook—Revised 2014: Procedures Concerning Dyslexia and Related Disorders* states that students can be identified as early as the middle of kindergarten.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2014, p. 13

Common Risk Factors



At your table, read aloud the common risk factors associated with dyslexia on page 10 of *The Dyslexia Handbook—Revised 2014*.

- Volunteer one: Read second and third grades.
- Volunteer two: Read fourth through sixth grades.



Slide 7—Common Risk Factors

(8:30–10:30)

Activity

Find the table copy of *The Dyslexia Handbook* and turn to page 10.

Pause for participants to locate the resource.

Two volunteers at each table will read to your small group. Volunteer one at each table, please raise your hand. You will read the second- and third-grade common risk factors. Volunteer two, please raise your hand. You will read the common risk factors for fourth through sixth grades.

Pause for participants to read.

Researchers estimate that between 5 percent and 17 percent of all students have characteristics of dyslexia, ranging from very severe to relatively mild. So, whether you recognized it or not, you have had children with dyslexia in your classes.

Instruction for Students With Dyslexia



- Each school must provide an identified student an instructional program.
- The essential components of reading must be addressed.
- The intervention must include the following:
 - Multisensory instruction
 - Systematic, cumulative, explicit instruction
 - Synthetic and analytic instruction



Slide 8—Instruction for Students With Dyslexia

(10:30–12:30)

Activity

Please locate **Handout 1: Instruction for Students With Dyslexia**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides information on effective literacy instruction for students with dyslexia. It includes the critical, evidence-based components of dyslexia instruction and the principles of effective intervention for students with dyslexia. Take one minute to review the handout and highlight the critical components of dyslexia instruction.

Allow one minute for participants to review and highlight.

In this academy, we will address many of these critical components.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2014

Highest-Impact Practices

- Provide explicit and systematic instruction.
- Provide more time and practice opportunities.
- Target knowledge and skills that have the highest impact on learning to read.
- Provide instruction in small, same-ability groups.
- Maximize students' engagement and participation.



Slide 9—Highest-Impact Practices

(12:30–13:30)

Read the slide silently.

Pause while participants read.

In this section and throughout the academy, we also will address these instructional practices, which promote reading and writing success for all students, including those most at risk.

References

Foorman & Torgesen, 2001; National Reading Panel, 2000; Vellutino & Scanlon, 2001



SUPPORTING ALL LEARNERS

English Language Learners

SECTION—English Language Learners (13:30–49:00)

**Slide 10—Supporting All Learners:
English Language Learners (13:30–14:00)**

We will now discuss the strengths and needs of English language learners, or ELLs.

Language Diversity

All students acquire language in the contexts of their homes and communities, which are within a variety of cultural and linguistic settings.



Slide 11—Language Diversity

(14:00–15:00)

Most students come to school as experienced users of language. All students acquire language in the contexts of their homes and communities, which are within a variety of cultural and linguistic settings.

Our fourth-grade students come from different ethnic groups and social classes. Some speak a language other than English. Some students may speak dialects of English. Knowing the diverse backgrounds and needs of the students we teach helps us provide effective instruction, especially in literacy, which is language based.

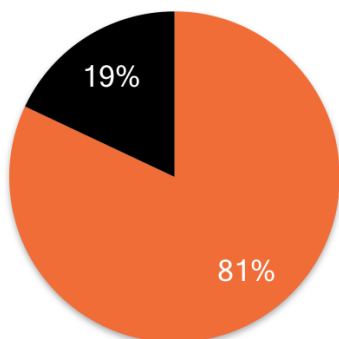
It is important to learn as much as possible about each student and family, including cultures, traditions, and ways of communicating. Avoid making assumptions based on ethnic group affiliations. Students are eager to learn a new language or language form when they feel they are welcome and their backgrounds are respected.

References

Goldenberg et al., 2006; Jimenez & Rose, 2010

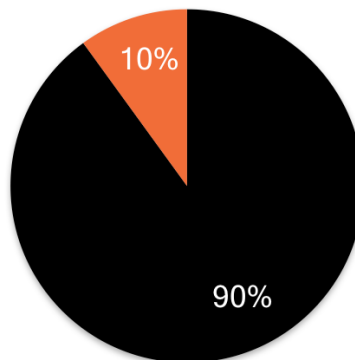
Texas ELLs: Demographics

**Texas Student
Population, 2015–2016**



■ Native English Speakers
■ ELLs

**Languages
ELLs Speak**



■ Spanish
■ 129 Other Languages

Other languages:

- 1.64% Vietnamese
- 1.09% Arabic
- 0.49% Urdu
- 0.45% Mandarin
- 0.37% Burmese

Source: Texas Education Agency (TEA), 2016



Slide 12—Texas ELLs: Demographics

(15:00–16:00)

Let's take a closer look at the cultural and linguistic diversity of the students in our Texas schools today.

Almost 20 percent of all Texas students, close to 1 million students, have been identified as coming from language backgrounds other than English.

The great majority of Texas ELLs speak Spanish as their native language. Our students also speak many other languages, such as Vietnamese and Arabic.

At some point, nearly every teacher in Texas can expect to teach ELLs.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2016

School Settings for ELLs

Bilingual classrooms

- Transitional/early-exit
- Transitional/late-exit
- Two-way dual-language

English as a second language classrooms

- Instruction typically in English
- Teacher supports English development throughout the day

Mainstream classrooms

Literacy instruction in English



Slide 13—School Settings for ELLs

(16:00–17:30)

There are several school settings for ELLs in Texas.

Research indicates that strong native-language instruction has a positive impact on later English literacy development. Bilingual classrooms provide native-language instruction to ELLs. In Texas, bilingual classrooms serve more than 50 percent of ELLs. Different models of bilingual programs include the following.

In **transitional/early-exit bilingual classrooms**, students initially receive native-language literacy instruction and then, around second grade, transition into English-only literacy instruction.

In **transitional/late-exit bilingual classrooms**, students initially receive native-language literacy instruction; then, this instruction continues along with English literacy instruction to promote full academic proficiency in both languages.

In **two-way dual-language classrooms**, instruction is provided in both languages to monolingual English speakers and speakers of other languages.

English as a second language teachers provide instruction in English while supporting English language development with specific strategies. Approximately 44 percent of ELLs are placed in English as a second language classrooms.

In mainstream or regular programs, literacy instruction is provided in English. Around 5 percent of ELLs attend regular classrooms.

References

Goldenberg, 2008; Slavin et al., 2011; Texas Education Agency, n.d.; Umansky & Readon, 2014

Who Are Our ELLs?

“‘Student of limited English proficiency’ means a student whose primary language is other than English and whose English language skills are such that the student has difficulty performing ordinary classwork in English.”

—Texas Education Code §29.052

ELLs are a diverse group who come from many different socioeconomic, cultural, and language backgrounds.



Slide 14—Who Are Our ELLs?

(17:30–18:30)

According to Texas law, Education Code §29.052, “‘Student of limited English proficiency’ means a student whose primary language is other than English and whose English language skills are such that the student has difficulty performing ordinary classwork in English.”

Keep in mind that not all students whose home language is other than English struggle with basic English skills; some of these students are proficient English speakers.

ELLs might have conversational English skills but lack mastery of academic English.

ELLs are quite diverse in home language, socioeconomic status, cultural background, country of origin, and other factors.

Reference

Capps et al., 2005

Social and Cultural Factors



Classification as an ELL Does Not Tell the Whole Story

Early Immigrants	Recent Immigrants	U.S.-Born ELLs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrive before age 7 • May have had prior schooling • May need up to five years to fully develop academic English 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrive at school age • May have had prior schooling • May have literacy skills in their native language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Born in the United States • May have little literacy in native language • Exposure to English may vary



Slide 15—Social and Cultural Factors

(18:30–22:30)

To better serve our ELLs, consider the social and cultural factors that influence literacy and language development.

Use laser pointer.

Early immigrants, or children who come to the United States before age 7, may or may not have had prior educational experiences in their home country. These children may need up to five years to fully develop academic proficiency in English.

Recent immigrants, many of whom come to the United States at school age, may have had prior schooling and may have developed some literacy skills in their home language. For some, learning in English means connecting what they have already learned with what they are learning in English.

Notes continue on the next page.

U.S.-born ELLs are a diverse group. Some come to school with little literacy or limited exposure to English. Others may have a lot of exposure to English in the home through parents or older siblings who are English proficient.

Activity

Based on these differences, we can affirm that the ELL classification doesn't tell the whole story. Think about the ELLs in your school. How can you use this knowledge to guide your instruction or analyze their performance? Think for a few seconds and then discuss your ideas with your tablemates. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to discuss.

References

Capps et al., 2005; Snow & Katz, 2010

Different Needs



ELLs have different needs based on the following:

- The extent and type of literacy practices at home
- The development of literacy skills and prior formal schooling in their native language
- The instruction or formal schooling in English they have received

ELLs have strengths and proficiencies in their native language that may be invisible to teachers.



Slide 16—Different Needs

(22:30–26:00)

Read the slide.

We should learn as much as possible about our students' educational, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds. We need to consider each student's unique knowledge. To learn about a student's prior literacy experiences in English and in their native language, you can connect with parents or conduct assessments.

Activity

What are some ways that teachers can get to know their students and families to learn more about their cultural and linguistic backgrounds? Think for a few seconds and then discuss with your tablemates. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to discuss.

References

Cummins, 2003; Jimenez & Rose, 2010; Snow & Katz, 2010

Second-Language Development

- Second-language development is a gradual and complex process.
- ELLs of all language groups develop their second language similarly.
- ELLs vary in how quickly they become proficient in English.

The route of acquisition is consistent for ELLs with different native languages, but the rate of progress can vary considerably.



Slide 17—Second-Language Development

(26:00–27:30)

ELLs are immersed in the challenging process of developing literacy skills in the classroom while at the same time acquiring a new language. Second-language development is a multifaceted, gradual, and complex process.

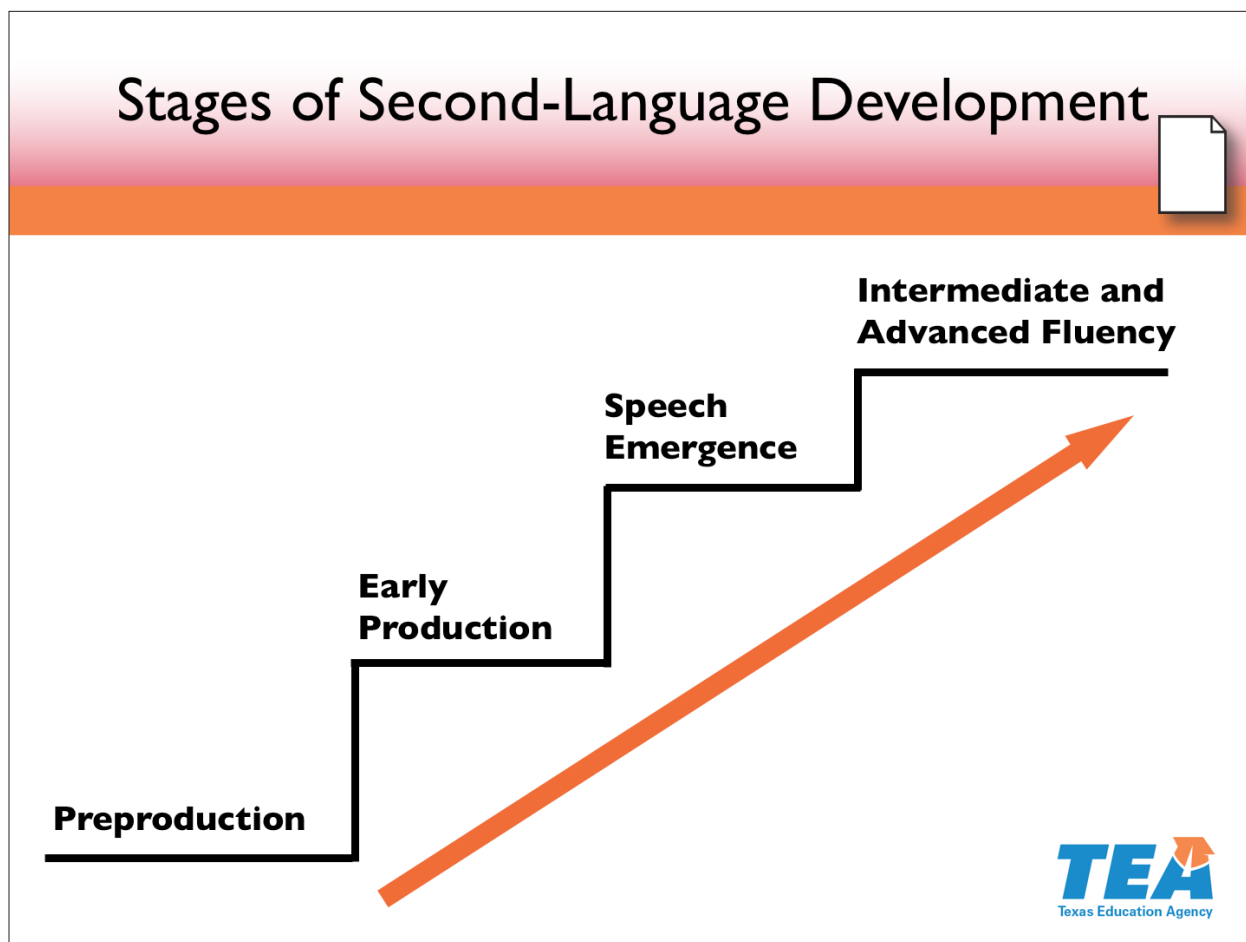
ELLs develop their second language similarly to their first language. ELLs of all language backgrounds tend to follow the same patterns of English development.

Often, teachers become concerned when a student seems to lag behind his or her peers in grasping instruction in English. But it is essential to remember the variability in the time it takes ELLs to become proficient in English.

The route of acquisition is consistent for ELLs with different native languages, but the rate of progress can vary considerably. Understanding this idea will help you support learning while showing respect for the process of learning a new language.

References

Cummins, 2003; Saunders & O'Brien, 2006; Snow & Katz, 2010



Slide 18—Stages of Second-Language Development (27:30–30:00)

ELLs typically follow these stages of second-language development.

During the preproduction phase, ELLs enter a “quiet” period, in which they avoid speaking, except to speakers of their native language. This period can last up to several months. ELLs listen and gather information about the new language. Although they are silent, they may use nonverbal forms of communication, such as pointing or gesturing.

Research has shown that receptive language—listening and reading—tends to develop more quickly than expressive language—speaking and writing. As ELLs develop receptive language, they may begin to understand oral directions and read-alouds.

Then they enter the early production stage, in which they begin to speak in their second language. They often use telegraphic speech, or one- to two-word phrases,

Notes continue on the next page.

to communicate ideas. For example, a child at this stage might point to a ball and simply say, “ball,” rather than a full sentence, “Please give me the ball.”

The speech emergence phase is a time of growth of English language usage. ELLs begin to use their new vocabulary words and their growing knowledge of grammar to build longer sentences. At this stage, children continue to understand more than they can produce orally.

When ELLs enter the intermediate and advanced fluency stages, they can use vocabulary and grammar structures comparable to their non-ELL peers.

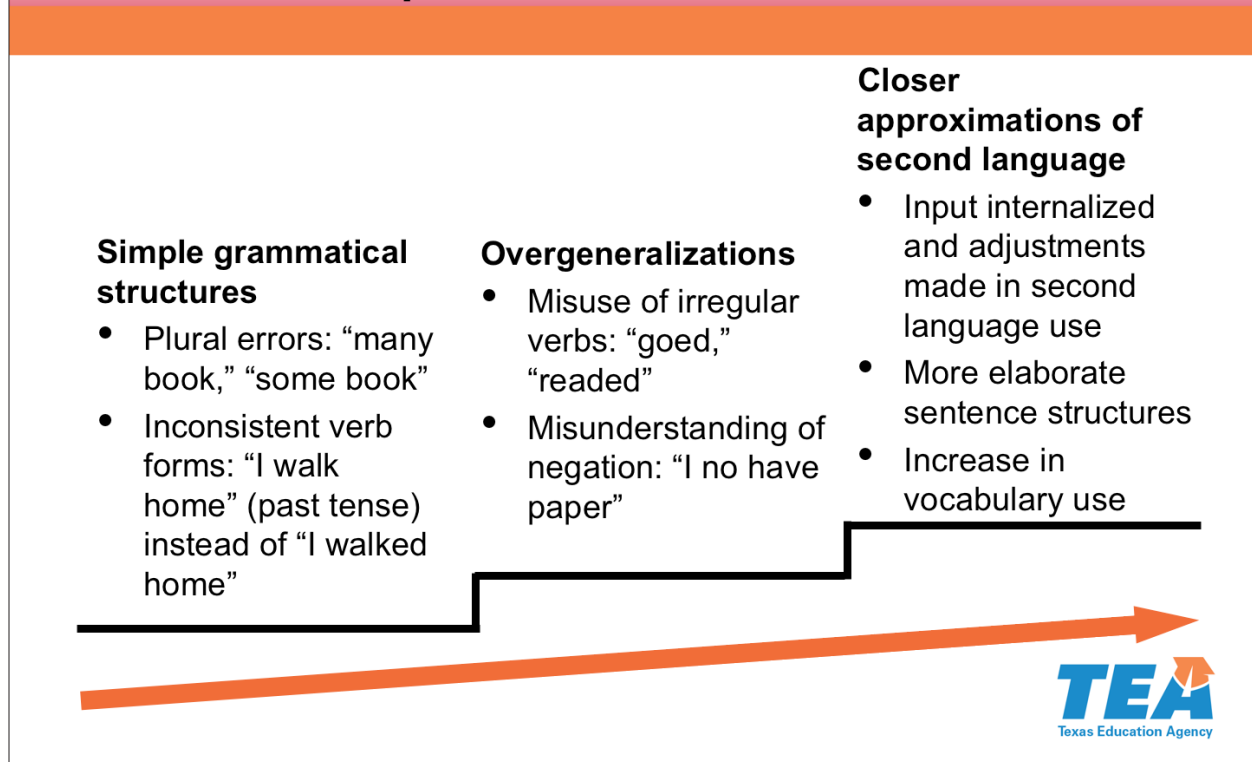
Please locate and review **Handout 2: Stages of Second-Language Development**. This handout presents the stages of second-language development and suggests ways to match instruction to ELLs’ levels of English proficiency. You have one minute.

Provide one minute for participants to read the handout.

References

Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Lake & Pappamihel, 2003; Gibson et al., 2012

Development of Second-Language Speech Production



Slide 19—Development of Second-Language Speech Production

(30:00–31:30)

Remember that although the route of acquisition is typically the same for different students, the rate can vary considerably. In developing spoken language, ELLs first use simple grammatical structures. They often make plural errors, as in “I have many book” or confuse past-tense endings, saying “Yesterday, I walk home.”

Gradually, as ELLs acquire some of these conventions of English, they begin to overgeneralize. They may apply the past-tense *-ed* to irregular verbs, such as “I goed to the store” or “I readed a book.” Forming negatives is another skill that may remain misunderstood: “I no have paper.”

Over time, ELLs make closer approximations to correct language usage. As they receive consistent feedback and have more exposure to their second language, they begin to internalize the language structures and adjust their spoken language. They begin to use more complex sentence structures and increase their vocabulary.

Reference

August, McCardle, & Shanahan, 2014

Developing Academic English

- The social or casual register is used in daily social interactions; the academic register is needed to navigate school successfully.
- Proficiency in academic English is important in predicting the academic success of ELLs.

	At Home	Beginning of School	Later in School
English-Only Speakers	First register: Casual English	Second register: Academic English Refined academic English	
ELLs	First register: Casual native language	Second register: Casual English	Third register: Academic English



Slide 20—Developing Academic English

(31:30–34:00)

When we acquire a first or second language, we go through demanding linguistic and cognitive tasks to develop different language registers. A register is a form of language used for a particular purpose. For example, there are social and academic registers in English and in other languages.

The social or casual register is used in daily social interactions, and academic English is needed to navigate school successfully. Research shows that proficiency in academic English predicts ELLs' future success.

Unfortunately, the path to developing academic English for many ELLs can be a long and complex journey.

English-only speakers tend first to learn a casual English language register at home and build their second register—academic English—when they enter school.

ELLs first develop a casual native language register at home. Then ELLs usually develop casual English—what they need for daily social interactions—when they

first enter school. ELLs develop casual English as their second register, but it is the first English register they develop.

By the time ELLs start developing their third register, academic English, their native-English-speaking classmates are ahead in the process, refining their academic English. ELLs will eventually develop academic English, but they may be below the performance levels of native English speakers.

When ELLs develop their native and second languages, they acquire more language registers than their English-only peers. Research has shown that being bilingual has cognitive benefits such as better attentional control, memory skills, and problem-solving abilities. Learning about the process of language development will allow teachers to support bilingual students in their efforts to develop strong literacy skills.

References

Baker et al., 2014; Francis et al., 2006; Gibbons, 2002; Johnson, 2009; Mohr, 2004; Wiseheart, Viswanathan, & Bialystok, 2016

Reflect on Language Development



- As you watch the video, think about how ELLs learn new English vocabulary and how you can use native language to support English learning.
- After watching, jot down some ideas and discuss with your partner.



Slide 21—Reflect on Language Development

(34:00–40:00)

Video: Teaching Cognates

Let's watch how a teacher uses native language as a resource to develop academic English through cognates.

As you watch, think about how ELLs learn new English vocabulary. Reflect on the ways you can use native language as a resource in your grade level and write your thoughts on a sticky note.

Play the video.

Please take one minute to share some of your ideas with your tablemates.

Provide one minute for participants to discuss.

ELLs and English Literacy



- English literacy development is an important and concurrent element of second-language acquisition.
- Effective literacy instruction for ELLs is
 - academically sound,
 - culturally responsive, and
 - linguistically accommodated.



Slide 22—ELLs and English Literacy

(40:00–44:00)

As we mentioned before, acquiring a new language involves developing skills in four domains: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. English literacy development is an important and concurrent element of second-language acquisition.

Ensure adequate opportunities for developing literacy skills—including language—and content. In other words, although you are primarily responsible for teaching the content (the TEKS), you also should directly teach and support language using the ELPS. As often as possible, design activities that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

As you provide literacy instruction, remember that you are contributing directly to ELLs' second-language development. Effective literacy instruction for ELLs is academically sound, culturally responsive, and linguistically accommodated.

Notes continue on the next page.

Find **Handout 3: Effective Instruction for English Language Learners**. We will review these three main characteristics of effective instruction for ELLs.

Allow time for participants to locate the handout. Refer to the handout as you proceed.

Ensure that instruction is academically sound, challenging, grade-level appropriate, and of high quality. ELLs will flourish in an academically challenging environment.

Effective instruction for ELLs is also culturally responsive. Teachers ground instruction in the knowledge of ELLs' cultural background and prior experiences. These teachers promote school-community partnerships and create a caring and supportive language environment.

Finally, effective instruction for ELLs is linguistically accommodated. Effective linguistically accommodated instruction takes into account native and second-language development to differentiate instructional materials, strategies, and tasks. Linguistically accommodated instruction facilitates comprehension and content learning.

Take one minute to review the handout. As you do so, place a check mark next to strategies you incorporate often with your ELLs and a star by those you will incorporate into your literacy instruction moving forward.

Allow one minute for participants to review the handout.

References

August & Shanahan, 2006; Cary, 1997; Echevarría et al., 2008; Francis et al., 2006; Gay, 2002; Gersten et al., 2007; Gibbons, 2002; Giroir et al., 2015; Goldenberg, 2008, 2010; Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006; Lucas et al., 2008; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Richards-Tutor, Baker, Gersten, Baker, & Smith, 2016; Umansky & Readon, 2014; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Walqui, 2006

Planning Scaffolded Instruction for ELLs



- Examine ELLs' proficiency data.
- Analyze lessons in terms of the following:
 - Required language and reading skills
 - Content and background knowledge needed
 - Instructional activities to be used
- Select and implement appropriate instructional and language scaffolds.



Slide 23—Planning Scaffolded Instruction for ELLs (44:00–48:00)

Effective instruction for ELLs is scaffolded, linguistically accommodated, and carefully planned and delivered. When planning a literacy lesson for a group of students that includes ELLs, teachers can follow three important steps.

First, they examine ELLs' data to find out previously learned skills and specific needs. Then, they analyze the lesson in terms of the required language and literacy skills, the content and background knowledge needed, and the instructional activities to be used. Finally, they select and plan appropriate instructional and language scaffolds.

Locate **Handout 4: Planning Scaffolded Instruction for English Language Learners**, which summarizes these three steps.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

As participants locate the handout, place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Look at step 1. Teachers should examine and analyze ELLs' literacy and English language development data to understand the strengths and needs of specific students. In other words, we must learn about ELLs' English language and literacy development to adapt instruction to their specific skills. You have one minute to read step 1 and look at the data sources that can be used. Place a check mark by those you use regularly.

Provide one minute for participants to read step 1 and reflect.

Step 2 is to analyze three components of the lesson being planned. The first component is to identify the language and literacy skills required to successfully participate in the lesson. The second component is to review the lesson content and materials that will be used to support the lesson. The third component is to analyze the instructional activities that will be incorporated into the lesson. You have one minute to review step 2 and these three components.

Provide one minute for participants to review step 2.

After reflecting on strengths, needs, and lesson demands, teachers can now select and implement the language and instructional scaffolds. Take one minute to read step 3 and think of other scaffolds that can be added to the list. You can refer back to Handout 3 to identify other scaffolds or your ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide.

Provide one minute for participants to read and reflect.

Locate the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide in your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the resource.

The first page of this guide is blank, and the second page is a completed version. This planning tool allows teachers to identify important information based on the lesson analysis you just reviewed in step 2 of Handout 4 and to determine the scaffolds to be implemented as part of step 3. Look at the completed example on the second page of this guide. This planning was for a lesson on inferring and answering explicit and implicit questions. Take a moment to read the analysis and discuss with your tablemates.

Provide three minutes for participants to read completed planning guide and discuss.

As you can see, teachers can provide effective linguistically accommodated instruction by carefully analyzing important elements of the lesson. Place this guide back into your folder. You will use it at the end of each section of this academy as you reflect on scaffolding instruction for your ELLs.

Reference

The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk, 2015

Remember

- ELLs do twice the cognitive work of native English speakers. ELLs acquire new conceptual knowledge while attending to the sounds, meanings, and structures of a new language.
- Learning a second language—and learning in a second language—is cognitively demanding.
- Consider ELLs' previous skills, knowledge, and specific linguistic and cultural backgrounds to plan and deliver instruction.



Slide 24—Remember

(48:00–49:00)

Here are some key takeaways about supporting ELLs in the classroom.



SUPPORTING ALL LEARNERS

Features of Effective Instruction

SECTION—Features of Effective Instruction (49:00–1:38:30)

**Slide 25—Supporting All Learners:
Features of Effective Instruction (49:00–49:30)**

We have discussed the strengths and needs of students with dyslexia and ELLs. Now we will consider features of effective instruction as we work to enhance the literacy instruction for all students.

Features of Effective Instruction

- Explicit instruction with modeling
- Systematic instruction with scaffolding
- Multiple opportunities to practice and respond
- Immediate and corrective feedback



Slide 26—Features of Effective Instruction

(49:30–51:00)

The four features that we will discuss today are

- **explicit instruction with modeling**—how teacher and peer modeling can enhance and make instruction specific,
- **systematic instruction with scaffolding**—how providing students with the level of assistance they require can help them succeed,
- **multiple opportunities to practice and respond**—how these opportunities can help students take ownership of their achievement and learning, and
- **immediate and corrective feedback**—how it can and should be used in teaching and learning.

Researchers have referred to specific features of effective instruction as being critical for student learning and necessary for mastery, understanding, and increased competency. By incorporating these features, we ensure that we differentiate our instruction to meet the needs of all of our students.

Explicit Instruction With Modeling

Explicit instruction with modeling is “the practice of deliberately demonstrating and bringing to learners’ conscious awareness those covert and invisible processes, understandings, knowledge, and skills over which they need to get control if they are to become effective readers.”

— Cambourne, 1999, p. 126



Slide 27—Explicit Instruction With Modeling

(51:00–52:00)

What does explicit instruction with modeling include and what does it look like? This slide shows just one definition, provided by Brian Cambourne in *The Reading Teacher*.

Allow 30 seconds for participants to read the definition.

Explicit instruction with modeling includes both the demonstration of tasks and skills and making the invisible visible. In some cases, this type of instruction requires the skillful redirection of learning until all students have achieved mastery.

Reference

Cambourne, 1999

Explicit Instruction

- Involves modeling and explaining concepts and skills in ways that
 - are **concrete and visible**,
 - include **clear language**, and
 - use **many examples**.
- Consists of overlap and similarity in instructional procedures by having
 - **predictable, clear, and consistent instructions**;
 - **known expectations**; and
 - **familiar routines**.



Slide 28—Explicit Instruction

(52:00–54:00)

To be deliberate about instruction and bring consciousness to learning, teachers have to provide explicit instruction. Research indicates that explicit instruction is a building block of success in teaching and learning.

When teachers explain concepts and skills through concrete, visible examples; provide clear, consistent routines; and maintain and communicate to students high expectations, levels of both teaching and learning increase.

A teacher who is explicit during instruction uses many examples to connect what students already know to what they are learning and uses instructional procedures that overlap across features of effective instruction; components of literacy; content areas; and days, weeks, and months of the school year.

We also need to establish and use instructional routines. If there is a void or gap in instruction, students will fill it. As we know, students often fill such gaps with undesired behaviors. To avoid this problem, we need to use appropriate pacing and tight transitions. All of these ideas are closely connected to our level of preparation.

Modeling

- Demonstrate the task aloud by following a step-by-step procedure.
- Speak clearly and use language specific to the demonstration of the skill.
- Check for understanding while modeling.



Slide 29—Modeling

(54:00–54:30)

Clear and ordered demonstrations of concepts and skills make learning visible. Student-friendly language that is specific to the demonstration aids student understanding. And it is important to check for student understanding while modeling and to correct misunderstandings. Ensure that you can see everyone and that everyone can see you at all times.

Some of you may be familiar with the “I do,” “We do,” “You do” model, in which the teacher first demonstrates the concept or skill, then leads students through a group practice, and finally has students apply the concept or skill on their own. This is one of many different modeling formats that are effective.

A Classroom With Explicit Instruction With Modeling



What you should hear:

- Stated instructional focus
- Clear instructions
- Verbal cues
- Consistent language
- Student talk
- Multiple examples

What you should see:

- Manipulatives
- Visual aids and cues
- Appropriate movement
- Multiple grouping formats
- Active engagement



Slide 30—A Classroom With Explicit Instruction With Modeling

(54:30–57:00)

This slide shows some examples of what to listen for related to explicit instruction with modeling, including the following:

- A clear learning focus or purpose for learning
- Clear, direct, and easy-to-follow instructions
- Verbal cues, such as “Ready?”
- Consistent language before, during, and after modeling
- Student talk, whether to provide answers or information, share, elaborate, or ask questions
- Multiple examples of the concept or skill that connect both to students’ current learning and prior knowledge

In addition to what should be heard during an explicit lesson with modeling, many things should be seen, including the following:

- Manipulatives—for example, dry-erase boards, markers, and erasers
- Visual aids—for example, anchor charts to support a comprehension strategy
- Movement that is appropriate and adds to learning and making connections
- Work in the whole group, in small groups, with partners, and in centers
- Active engagement in learning

Please locate **Handout 5: Observing Explicit Instruction With Modeling**.

Allow participants time to locate the handout.

This handout details additional ways that this feature can be observed within the five components of reading. As you review this handout, place a check mark next to the examples you use often in your classrooms. Then, place a star next to two examples in each literacy component that you plan to use in the future to enhance your literacy instruction. You will have two minutes to work.

Allow participants two minutes to review and mark up the handout.

Explicit Instruction With Modeling: Application Activity



Mrs. Ramirez has always taught vocabulary by having students look up words in the dictionary, write the definitions, and memorize what the words mean. This year, Mrs. Ramirez has noticed that her students can find the words in the dictionary and copy the definitions but do not understand the words in the definitions.

Mrs. Ramirez is looking for ways to be more explicit and include more modeling when teaching vocabulary to her class.

What suggestions would you give to her and why?



Slide 31—Explicit Instruction With Modeling: Application Activity

(57:00–1:03:00)

Activity

With a partner, read the scenario on the slide. Then, work together to list some ways to make the instruction more explicit, including modeling opportunities. You can use Handout 5 for support.

Allow four minutes for participants to work. After the four minutes, quickly share several examples.

Systematic Instruction With Scaffolding

Systematic instruction with scaffolding is “the systematic sequencing of prompted content, materials, tasks, and teacher and peer support to optimize learning.”

— Dickson, Chard, & Simmons, 1993, p. 12



Slide 32—Systematic Instruction With Scaffolding (1:03:00–1:04:00)

Now we will move to the next feature: systematic instruction with scaffolding.

The term *scaffolding* grew out of Lev Vygotsky’s work, which centered on social cognition and individual development. The idea of systematic instruction with scaffolding has since developed from writings by psychologist Jerome Bruner.

The quotation on the slide gives some insight into this feature of effective instruction and how we theoretically and operationally define it today.

Read the quotation to participants.

We will examine this definition more closely as we look at ways that educators can use systematic instruction with scaffolding as a building block for successful teaching and learning.

Reference

Dickson, Chard, & Simmons, 1993

Systematic Instruction

- Select appropriate tasks and goals.
- Carefully sequence instruction.
 - Move from easier to more difficult skills.
 - Begin with higher-utility skills.
 - Begin with what students already know.



Slide 33—Systematic Instruction

(1:04:00–1:05:30)

Systematic instruction takes the learner from one step to the next in an organized and sequential way through carefully planned and selected tasks and goals.

To be systematic, plan a lesson from start to finish. First, set and communicate an instructional focus in a clear and student-friendly way, thus reducing confusion about desired learning outcomes.

Then carefully and thoughtfully move students through the instruction. Begin with skills that are the easiest for students, that they have some prior knowledge of, and that they will use often across content areas and in life (known as high-utility skills). Tap into what students already know and help students make connections.

Then move to more difficult tasks and concepts, building knowledge until, eventually, students succeed.

Scaffolding

“The adult carefully monitors when enough instructional input has been provided to permit the child to make progress toward an academic goal, and thus the adult provides support only when the child needs it.”

— Pressley, 2005, pp. 97–98



Slide 34—Scaffolding

(1:05:30–1:07:00)

Please take a moment to read the definition on the slide.

Pause while participants read.

Scaffolding includes providing assistance as students work through a task, increasing support as students struggle and decreasing support as they advance. This technique improves students' internalization and independence by increasing their responsibility and diminishing prompts and models as students become more adept at the skill or task.

It is important to remember that scaffolding is temporary. The key is for students to perform tasks independently across content areas.

Some examples of scaffolds include

Notes continue on the next page.

- picture schedules, where students see examples of what they are to perform across the day or week;
- picture support for vocabulary;
- tape to highlight elements in text or writing;
- bookmarks, such as for tracking or a vocabulary resource;
- graphic organizers;
- manipulatives, such as pictures to sort; and
- sentence starters.

Reference

Pressley, 2005, pp. 97–98

Systematic Instruction With Scaffolding: Application Activity



- **Step 1:** Think about your most challenging student.
- **Step 2:** Order the concepts and skills.
- **Step 3:** Choose one concept or skill to scaffold.
- **Step 4:** Provide three scaffolds for your chosen concept or skill.



Slide 35—Systematic Instruction With Scaffolding: Application Activity

(1:07:00–1:15:00)

Activity

Let's practice systematic instruction with scaffolding. Please locate your set of vocabulary skill cards.

Display the set of cards.

The cards feature concepts or skills related to vocabulary instruction. Take a moment to spread the cards out and examine them.

Pause as participants examine the cards.

Notes continue on the next page.

We will use **Handout 6: Systematic Instruction With Scaffolding: Vocabulary Example** to complete this activity. You will see the four-step process on the handout.

Allow time for participants to locate the handout.

You will have one minute to complete step 1: Think about your most challenging student. Reflect on your most challenging student and decide which student you will use for this activity. Share your choice with your partner.

Allow partners one minute to reflect on their most challenging student.

Now, you will have two minutes to complete step 2: Order your concepts and skills. Each partner should set an order for his or her challenging student.

Allow participants two minutes to order their cards.

Please take one minute to write the concepts and skills in order on the handout in the boxes designated for step 2.

Allow participants one minute to write on the handout. Then model the next part of the activity using your copy of the handout under the document camera.

For step 3, I will choose and circle “using the word in a sentence.”

Circle this phrase on your copy of the handout.

Take 30 seconds to decide which skill you will focus on with your struggling student. Share your choice with your partner.

Pause for 30 seconds.

For step 4, I will provide a sentence starter for my student who is struggling. I will write “Provide a sentence starter” on my handout as scaffold 1 in step 4.

Write the scaffold on your copy of the handout.

Now you will decide on three scaffolds you might use to support your struggling student based on the activity you selected. Record these scaffolds in the three boxes under step 4. Then discuss your scaffolds with your partner. You have three minutes.

Allow three minutes for partners to complete their scaffolds and discuss.

Multiple Opportunities to Practice and Respond

Maximize student engagement and participation.

- Provide opportunities to practice new skills in a variety of ways.
- Practice related concepts and skills.
- Relate the skills to students' prior knowledge.
- Actively engage students in their learning.

Increase students' opportunities to respond.

- Provide more prepared items for practice.
- Use choral responses when feasible.
- Use the “think-pair-share” routine.



Slide 36—Multiple Opportunities to Practice and Respond (1:15:00–1:17:00)

Our next feature of effective instruction is multiple opportunities for students to practice and respond. Research shows that we need multiple exposures to master a new concept or skill.

Read and discuss the slide.

In addition to the examples on the slide, techniques for providing multiple opportunities to practice include the following.

Explain and elaborate on the following as necessary. You may want to show some of these response and practice ideas. Use your cup within a cup to model as needed.

- Strategic placement of students

Notes continue on the next page.

- Choral or echo reading
- Classroom signs and labels
- Workstations, collaborative work, and partner work
- Interactive materials for responding—whiteboards, response balls, thumbs-up and thumbs-down signals, and pinch cards
- Quick-writes to practice a specific comprehension skill
- Methods such as “cup-in-a-cup” that allow you to control who you call on to ensure that your struggling students get multiple opportunities to practice
- Decodable texts to relate phonics to connected-text reading
- Transition times—for example, lunch line, hallways, rest room line, going to the playground, picture day, and exiting and entering the classroom—to practice and extend previously taught skills
- Songs, chants, and discussions to connect concepts to other content areas and to real-world examples and experiences

Planning Instruction to Include Multiple Opportunities to Practice and Respond

- Practice each new skill multiple times.
- Practice after each step of instruction.
- Use multiple practice formats.
 - Guided practice (whole group, small groups)
 - Independent practice (workstations, individual work)



Slide 37—Planning Instruction to Include Multiple Opportunities to Practice and Respond (1:17:00–1:19:00)

It is important to structure our teaching to allow students multiple opportunities to practice a new skill or concept.

We should systematically plan to provide practice for each instructional step. This way, we can ensure understanding of the concept being taught as it is being taught. Practicing with students helps us know when and where to reteach or focus more instructional energy. Sometimes we show students what to do and then turn over the activity to them too soon. Instead, we need to practice with students before asking them to independently complete a task. This concept is key in the “I do, we do, you do” lesson cycle.

You can provide multiple opportunities to respond and practice in any grouping arrangement.

Quickly read each grouping example on the slide.

Multiple Opportunities to Practice and Respond: Application Activity



Mrs. Ramirez has always taught vocabulary by having students look up words in the dictionary, write the definitions, and memorize what the words mean. This year, Mrs. Ramirez has noticed that her students can find the words in the dictionary and copy the definitions but do not understand the words in the definitions.

Mrs. Ramirez is looking for ways to provide more opportunities for her students to practice and respond.

What suggestions would you give to her and why?



Slide 38—Multiple Opportunities to Practice and Respond: Application Activity (1:19:00–1:25:00)

Activity

You enhanced the instruction in the scenario on this slide during the discussion of explicit instruction with modeling. Now, work with your partner to identify practice opportunities that Mrs. Ramirez could provide to her students. Also, how can Mrs. Ramirez increase opportunities for her students to respond?

Provide three minutes for partners to work. After the three minutes, ask two partner pairs to share with the whole group.

Immediate and Corrective Feedback

Feedback: “When a teacher directly imparts his or her evaluation of a child, a child’s strategies and skills, or a child’s achievement (often in relation to goals), and provides information about that evaluation.”

— Askew, 2000



Slide 39—Immediate and Corrective Feedback (1:25:00–1:26:00)

Let’s look at our last feature of effective instruction: immediate and corrective feedback. The slide provides one research-based definition of feedback.

Allow time for participants to read the definition.

We will now explore two different types of feedback.

Reference

Askew, 2000

Evaluative Feedback

- Evaluative feedback is judgmental.
 - Giving rewards and punishments
 - Expressing approval and disapproval
- Examples of evaluative feedback include the following:
 - Saying, “Great job!” or “Way to go!”
 - Saying, “That’s it” or “No, that is not it.”
 - Giving a thumbs up or a thumbs down



Slide 40—Evaluative Feedback

(1:26:00–1:27:30)

The first type of feedback that we will discuss is evaluative feedback. This type of feedback is judgmental and, although it is immediate, it is not corrective. Evaluative feedback includes giving rewards and punishments or expressing approval or disapproval of student understanding. This type of feedback can be either positive or negative.

This slide shows some examples of this type of feedback.

Read the examples on the slide.

Evaluative feedback is both appropriate and necessary at times.

Formative Feedback



Formative feedback is descriptive.

- Telling students they are right or wrong
- Describing why an answer is correct or incorrect
- Telling students what they have and have not achieved
- Specifying or implying a better way
- Helping students develop ways to improve



Slide 41—Formative Feedback

(1:27:30–1:30:00)

The second type of feedback, formative feedback, is a more descriptive feedback style.

Formative feedback makes specific references to a student's achievement or competence. Research shows that this type of feedback is related to student improvement. This feedback style includes informing students whether their understanding is correct, describing why an answer is correct or incorrect, telling students what they have and have not achieved, specifying or implying a better way of doing something, and having students make suggestions about how they can improve their learning.

It is important for students to receive specific feedback while they are still mindful of the learning target. Also, ending every correction with the student providing or echoing the correct answer strengthens student performance.

Notes continue on the next page.

Please locate **Handout 7: Levels of Formative Feedback**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides more detail about the types of formative feedback we just discussed. There are five sections. Number off at your table, one to five. Read your section aloud to your tablemates in order.

Pause for participants to read the handout.

Feedback Delivery

- Varied feedback grouping:
 - Whole group
 - Small groups
 - Partners
 - Individuals
- Varied feedback forms:
 - Verbal
 - Nonverbal
 - Written



Slide 42—Feedback Delivery

(1:30:00–1:31:00)

Both evaluative and formative feedback can be delivered in multiple grouping formats and can be verbal, nonverbal, or written.

Immediate and Corrective Feedback: Application Activity



Mrs. Ramirez now needs help with immediate and corrective feedback. When asked to use their new vocabulary word, *solar*, in a sentence, one student said, “I have to solar my car to make it work.” How should Mrs. Ramirez respond?

Working with your partner, do the following:

- Provide an evaluative response to this literacy error.
- Provide a formative response to this literacy error.
- Discuss which response would be best and why.
- Discuss a scenario when the feedback form you didn’t choose would be most useful or helpful for students.



Slide 43—Immediate and Corrective Feedback: Application Activity

(1:31:00–1:37:30)

Activity

Please read the scenario and activity on the slide.

Pause for participants to read.

You will have four minutes to work. Refer to Handout 7 as needed.

Provide four minutes for participants to work. Share participant responses as time allows.

Remember

The Features of Effective Instruction

- Explicit instruction with modeling
- Systematic instruction with scaffolding
- Multiple opportunities to practice and respond
- Immediate and corrective feedback

Improve student learning

Incorporate instructional best practices

Guide quality delivery of standards-based instruction



Slide 44—Remember

(1:37:30–1:38:30)

Read and discuss the slide.

All of these features help us in supporting all learners.



SUPPORTING ALL LEARNERS

Differentiated Instruction

SECTION—Differentiated Instruction (1:38:30–2:00:00)

Slide 45—Supporting All Learners: Differentiated Instruction (1:38:30–1:39:00)

Our final topic is differentiated instruction.

Differentiated Instruction

“A teacher *proactively* plans varied approaches to what students need to learn, how they will learn it, and/or how they can express what they have learned in order to increase the likelihood that each student will learn as much as he or she can as *efficiently* as possible.”

— Tomlinson, 2003, p. 151



Slide 46—Differentiated Instruction

(1:39:00–1:41:00)

Research on differentiated instruction goes back several decades, initially emphasizing gifted-and-talented students in a mainstream heterogeneous grouping. During the last decade, the focus has shifted to include differentiating instruction for all learners in a heterogeneous setting, thereby reaching not just the gifted-and-talented students, but also those who struggle to learn. Additional focus has been placed on individual student differences, interests, and learning needs.

Ask participants to read the slide.

References

Tomlinson, 1995; 2003, p. 151

Three Elements to Differentiate

- **Content:** Knowledge and skills that we want students to learn; curricula (planning)
- **Process:** Activities, strategies, and methods that help students make meaning of content (teaching)
- **Product:** Outcomes of teaching and learning; students' demonstration of new knowledge of content (responses)



Slide 47—Three Elements to Differentiate

(1:41:00–1:43:00)

What has remained the same throughout the years is the underlying idea of varied approaches to three main elements.

- The **content** is what students need to learn. The comprehensive reading program often dictates the content, but it can be adapted and enhanced, as needed, according to data and individual students' needs.
- The **process** is how teachers will instruct and students will learn the content. The process includes the teacher's role in the execution of the lesson. Once the content has been planned, the process is how the teacher implements the lesson.
- The **product** is how students express what they have learned. The product can be observed by others, including something that is spoken, written, or demonstrated.

Differentiated Instruction

IS	IS NOT
Adapting curriculum and instruction to meet the needs of all students	Using a “one-size-fits-all” curriculum and instruction model
Providing a variety of ways to explore content and receive information	Making all tasks the same
Providing varied strategies for making meaning of ideas and information	“Getting through” or “covering” the required materials and information
Providing multiple options for demonstrating learning	Giving students extra problems or assignments as they finish their work
Planning specific and adaptive content, processes, and products	Grading students “harder” or “easier” than others



Slide 48—Differentiated Instruction

(1:43:00–1:45:00)

Please read this slide.

Pause for participants to read.

Which items apply to the concept of content? Discuss with your partner.

Pause for discussion.

The first point, which deals with curriculum and instruction, and the last one, which deals with adaptive content, apply to content.

Which items apply to the concept of process? Discuss with your partner.

Pause for discussion.

Notes continue on the next page.

The second one, which talks about providing varied methods to deliver content; the third one, which addresses making meaning of the concepts; and the last one, which specifically mentions processes, all relate to the concept of process.

Which items apply to the concept of product? Discuss with your partner.

Pause for discussion.

The fourth one, demonstrating learning, and last one, planning specific and adaptive products, relate to the concept of product.

Steps Toward Differentiating Instruction



- Assess students' strengths and areas of need.
- Consider that students differ in many variables, including the following:
 - Rates of learning
 - Expectations
 - Interests
 - Motivation
 - Literacy skills
 - Other abilities
 - Access to resources
 - Levels of parental support



Slide 49—Steps Toward Differentiating Instruction (1:45:00–1:48:00)

Now we will talk about the steps necessary for differentiating instruction.

Assessing students' knowledge is the first step. This information tells us where and when to differentiate to meet individual students' needs.

Also, the differences in multiple variables that students bring to the learning environment affect teaching and learning.

Activity

The slide does not show an exhaustive list of these variables. What other variables have had an impact on your teaching and your students' learning?

Ask participants to think about the question, turn to other participants, and talk about their answers. Provide one minute for this activity.

All of these variables require us to differentiate instruction for our students.

Steps Toward Differentiating Instruction (cont.)

- Plan instruction.
 - Determine what to teach.
 - Examine how to teach it.
- Establish daily instructional routines.
 - Set an instructional focus.
 - Align tasks and objectives with that focus.
- Consider materials.



Slide 50—Steps Toward Differentiating Instruction (cont.)

(1:48:00–1:50:00)

To differentiate instruction to meet the needs of all learners, we must plan our instruction. This planning should include the TEKS and any literacy program that our schools have adopted. It should also consider the needs of struggling learners, on-level students, and students who need enrichment.

Establishing the objectives is the next step. For example, as we move from one task to the next, we can inform our students about what they have completed and what will be expected of them next. We know the plan for the lesson, but students need to know the plan, too! Explaining the instructional focus to students strengthens our teaching and their learning. Aligning all lessons, tasks, and objectives with the instructional focus will provide you and your students with a blueprint for success.

Material selection is important, as we need the appropriate tools to differentiate for and meet the needs of all our students.

Steps Toward Differentiating Instruction (cont.)

- Manage instruction.
 - Organize the classroom.
 - Monitor and respond to student behavior.
 - Manage time.
- Hold everyone accountable.
 - Monitor and respond to student progress.
 - Examine your implementation of instruction.



Slide 51—Steps Toward Differentiating Instruction (cont.) (1:50:00–1:51:00)

As you know, your classroom management is structured around your expectations for classroom organization and procedures, students' behavior, and time. Of course, these expectations need to be reviewed and reinforced often and adapted as needed. Instruction can occur once these management systems are in place. Instruction flows easily in classrooms that have strong and clear management.

Another important component of differentiating instruction is accountability. This accountability is for teachers and students. Self-reflection allows us to examine our implementation of instruction. In other words, we look to see whether we planned the lesson well and aligned our tasks and objectives to carry out the instructional blueprint. In addition, we look to see whether our students are meeting the expectations that we established. Monitoring students' progress lets us know what types of differentiation are required.

Strategies for Differentiating Instruction



- Adjust instructional delivery.
- Raise the level of explicitness.
- Alter the features of the task.
- Integrate components of the lesson.
- Change the pacing of instruction.
- Regroup students as needed.



Slide 52—Strategies for Differentiating Instruction (1:51:00–1:54:00)

Please locate **Handout 8: Strategies for Differentiating Instruction**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout lists multiple ways in which you can differentiate instruction to meet individual students' needs. Review the handout now. You have two minutes.

Provide two minutes for participants to review the handout.

Now, place a check mark next to one strategy that you use often in your classroom.

Pause for participants to work.

Next, place a star by one strategy you will begin to use in your classroom.

Pause for participants to work.

Grouping for Differentiation



- Whole group
- Homogeneous small groups
- Heterogeneous small groups
- Partners or pairs
- Individualized or one-on-one



Slide 53—Grouping for Differentiation

(1:54:00–1:56:00)

Whether differentiating based on data, student strengths, areas of need, or “on-the-spot” teacher observations, there are multiple ways to group students.

Handout 9: Grouping Practices for Effective Differentiated Instruction

provides information about different grouping formats, including the formation of groups and group impact on instructional activities.

Quickly review the handout with participants.

Some grouping formats are more challenging to differentiate. Differentiating instruction can be especially challenging during whole-group and heterogeneous small-group instruction. Let’s talk about a few strategies within those two grouping formats that might make instruction easier and more effective.

Explain and provide examples for the following as necessary.

Notes continue on the next page.

The following strategies can help to differentiate and improve whole-group instruction:

- Differentiated questioning techniques
- Pinch cards
- Cup-in-a-cup
- Strategic partnering (especially beneficial for English language learners)
- Varied room arrangements and student placement

And the following strategies can help to differentiate and improve heterogeneous small-group instruction:

- Strategic grouping based on data
- Partnering
- Leveled materials
- Color-coding materials
- Purposeful, required interaction

Differentiated Instruction for All Students

- Differentiated instruction includes carefully planning the following:
 - Content
 - Processes
 - Products
- The features of effective instruction enhance differentiated instruction.
- Differentiation can improve instruction in all tiers and for all learners.



Slide 54—Differentiated Instruction for All Students

(1:56:00–1:58:00)

Differentiated instruction results from the determination to meet all students' needs. This determination affects every aspect of our instruction, including its content, processes, and products. The features of effective instruction strongly enhance and influence differentiated instruction.

Differentiation can improve instruction for all learners, making our literacy instructional efforts much more effective and efficient.

Supporting All Learners: Remember

Supporting all learners includes the following:

- Being cognizant of the strengths and needs of all students, including students with dyslexia and English language learners
- Using the features of effective instruction
- Providing differentiated instruction to meet the needs of all students




Slide 55—Supporting All Learners: Remember (1:58:00–2:00:00)

Close the session.



Supporting All Learners

Handouts

A graphic of a yellow pencil with a black eraser and a pink eraser, positioned horizontally. The pencil is pointing to the left, and its body is yellow with a black eraser and a pink eraser.

GRADES 4 & 5

READING TO LEARN

ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Instruction for Students With Dyslexia

“Although dyslexia affects individuals over the life span . . . , reading skills can be increased with the right early intervention and prevention programs.”

—Birsh, 2011

TEC §38.003(b) states, “In accordance with the program approved by the State Board of Education, the board of trustees of each school district shall provide for the treatment of any student determined to have dyslexia or a related disorder.”

www.statutes.legis.state.tx.us/Docs/ED/htm/ED.38.htm#38.003

Effective literacy instruction is essential for all students and is especially critical for students identified with dyslexia. High-quality core classroom reading instruction can give students identified with dyslexia a foundation upon which intervention instruction can have a more significant impact. Specialized instruction for students with dyslexia is discussed in this chapter.

Each school must provide an identified student access at his/her campus to an instructional program that meets the requirements in 19 TAC §74.28(c) and to the services of a teacher trained in dyslexia and related disorders. While the components of instruction for students with dyslexia include good teaching principles for all teachers, the explicitness and intensity of the instruction, fidelity to program descriptors, grouping formats, and training and skill of the teachers are wholly different from core classroom instruction.

Specialized Dyslexia Intervention

For the student who has not benefited from the research-based core reading instruction, the components of instruction will include additional specialized instruction as appropriate for the reading needs of the student with dyslexia. It is important to remember that while intervention is most preventative when provided in kindergarten and first grade, older children with reading disabilities will also benefit from focused and intensive remedial instruction.

Instructional decisions for a student with dyslexia must be made by a committee (§504 or ARD) that is knowledgeable about the instructional components and approaches for students with dyslexia. In accordance with 19 TAC §74.28(c), districts shall purchase or develop a reading program for students with dyslexia and related disorders that incorporates **all** the components of instruction and instructional approaches in the following sections.

Critical, Evidence-Based Components of Dyslexia Instruction

- **Phonological awareness**—“Phonological awareness is the understanding of the internal sound structure of words. A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound in a given language that can be recognized as being distinct from other sounds. An important aspect of phonological awareness is the ability to segment spoken words into their component phonemes” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19).
- **Sound-symbol association**—Sound-symbol association is the knowledge of the various speech sounds in any language to the corresponding letter or letter combinations that represent those speech sounds. The mastery of sound-symbol association (alphabetic principle) is the foundation for the ability to read (decode) and spell (encode) (Birsh, 2011, p. 19). “Explicit phonics refers to

an organized program in which these sound symbol correspondences are taught systematically” (Berninger & Wolf, 2009, p. 53).

- **Syllabication**—“A syllable is a unit of oral or written language with one vowel sound. The six basic types of syllables in the English language include the following: closed, open, vowel-consonant-e, r-controlled, vowel pair (or vowel team), and consonant-le (or final stable syllable). Rules for dividing syllables must be directly taught in relation to the word structure” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19).
- **Orthography**—Orthography is the written spelling patterns and rules in a given language. Students must be taught the regularity and irregularity of the orthographic patterns of a language in an explicit and systematic manner. The instruction should be integrated with phonology and sound-symbol knowledge.
- **Morphology**—“Morphology is the study of how a base word, prefix, root, suffix (morphemes) combine to form words. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a given language” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19).
- **Syntax**—“Syntax is the sequence and function of words in a sentence in order to convey meaning. This includes grammar and sentence variation and affects choices regarding mechanics of a given language” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19).
- **Reading comprehension**—Reading comprehension is the process of extracting and constructing meaning through the interaction of the reader with the text to be comprehended and the specific purpose for reading. The reader’s skill in reading comprehension depends upon the development of accurate and fluent word recognition, oral language development (especially vocabulary and listening comprehension), background knowledge, use of appropriate strategies to enhance comprehension and repair it if it breaks down, and the reader’s interest in what he or she is reading and motivation to comprehend its meaning (Birsh, 2011, pp. 9 and 368; Snow, 2002).
- **Reading fluency**—“Reading fluency is the ability to read text with sufficient speed and accuracy to support comprehension”(Moats & Dakin, 2008, p. 52). Teachers can help promote fluency with several interventions that have proven successful in helping students with fluency (e.g., repeated readings, word lists, and choral reading of passages) (Henry, 2010, p. 104).

In addition, other areas of language processing skills, such as written expression, which require integration of skills, are often a struggle for students with dyslexia. Moats and Dakin (2008) posit the following:

The ability to compose and transcribe conventional English with accuracy, fluency, and clarity of expression is known as basic writing skills. Writing is dependent on many language skills and processes and is often even more problematic for children than reading. Writing is a language discipline with many component skills that must be directly taught. Because writing demands using different skills at the same time, such as generating language, spelling, handwriting, and using capitalization and punctuation, it puts a significant demand on working memory and attention. Thus, a student may demonstrate mastery of these individual skills, but when asked to integrate them all at once, mastery of an individual skill, such as handwriting, often deteriorates. To write on demand, a student has to have mastered, to the point of being automatic, each skill involved (p. 55).

Both the teacher of dyslexia and the regular classroom teacher should provide multiple opportunities to support intervention and to strengthen these skills; therefore, responsibility for teaching reading and

writing must be shared by classroom teachers, reading specialists, interventionists, and teachers of dyslexia programs.

Delivery of Dyslexia Instruction

While it is necessary that students are provided instruction in the above content, it is also critical that the way in which the content is delivered be consistent with research-based practices. Principles of effective intervention for students with dyslexia include **all** of the following:

- **Simultaneous, multisensory (VAKT)**—“Multisensory instruction utilizes all learning pathways in the brain (visual, auditory, kinesthetic-tactile) simultaneously in order to enhance memory and learning” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19). “Children are actively engaged in learning language concepts and other information, often by using their hands, arms, mouths, eyes, and whole bodies while learning” (Moats & Dakin, 2008, p. 58).
- **Systematic and cumulative**—“Systematic and cumulative instruction requires the organization of material follow order of the language. The sequence must begin with the easiest concepts and progress methodically to more difficult concepts. Each step must also be based on elements previously learned. Concepts taught must be systematically reviewed to strengthen memory” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19).
- **Explicit instruction**—“Explicit instruction is explained and demonstrated by the teacher one language and print concept at a time, rather than left to discovery through incidental encounters with information. Poor readers do not learn that print represents speech simply from exposure to books or print” (Moats & Dakin, 2008, p. 58). Explicit Instruction is “an approach that involves direct instruction: The teacher demonstrates the task and provides guided practice with immediate corrective feedback before the student attempts the task independently” (Mather & Wendling, 2012, p. 326).
- **Diagnostic teaching to automaticity**—“Diagnostic teaching is knowledge of prescriptive instruction that will meet individual student needs of language and print concepts. The teaching plan is based on continual assessment of the student’s retention and application of skills” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19). “This teacher knowledge is essential for guiding the content and emphasis of instruction for the individual student” (Moats & Dakin, 2008, p. 58). “When a reading skill becomes automatic (direct access without conscious awareness), it is performed quickly in an efficient manner” (Berninger & Wolf, 2009, p. 70).
- **Synthetic instruction**—“Synthetic instruction presents the parts of any alphabetic language (morphemes) to teach how the word parts work together to form a whole (e.g., base word, derivative)” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19).
- **Analytic instruction**—“Analytic instruction presents the whole (e.g., base word, derivative) and teaches how the whole word can be broken into its component parts (e.g., base word, prefix, root, and suffix)” (Birsh, 2011, p. 19).

Sources for Critical, Evidence-Based Components and Delivery of Dyslexia Instruction

Berninger, V. W., & Wolf, B. (2009). *Teaching students with dyslexia and dysgraphia: Lessons from teaching and science*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.

Birsh, J. R. (2011). Connecting research and practice. In J. R. Birsh, *Multisensory teaching of basic language skills* (3rd ed., pp.1–24). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.

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Stages of Second-Language Development

English language learners, like anyone learning a new language, go through different stages of language development.

Understanding these different stages helps teachers select materials and provide instruction that matches students' levels of English proficiency.

Students' literacy knowledge in their native languages also affects their literacy development in English.

Mainstream teachers can collaborate with teachers of English language learners to plan appropriate activities.

Preproduction

Students may do the following:

- Communicate using their native languages, even with people who do not speak or understand the language
- Remain silent

Suggested instructional practices:

- Use normal pronunciations and speech patterns.
- Actively involve children in classroom activities. Even though they may be silent, they are observing and learning.
- Restate children's responses to ensure understanding. Clarify requests, teach routine classroom vocabulary, and simplify sentence structure. Use gestures.
- In small groups, play interactive games that build vocabulary.
- Use photos and artifacts to stimulate discussion and facilitate comprehension.
- Read aloud books that have a close match between the text and the illustrations.
- If possible, pair children with language buddies to practice skills and concepts.
- Accept nonverbal responses such as drawing, gestures, and hand signals.

Early Production

Students may do the following:

- Use simple words or phrases related to everyday events
- Use telegraphic speech, in which one- or two-word phrases communicate much longer ideas. For example, "ball" may mean, "Please give me the ball."
- Understand more English than they are able to produce

Suggested instructional practices:

- Actively involve students in classroom activities.
- Allow sufficient wait time when you ask a student to respond.
- Post printed labels and word lists around the classroom.
- Pose yes/no and either/or questions.
- Use brainstorming and webbing activities to activate background knowledge.
- Focus on the meaning of a student's response, not the pronunciation or syntax.
- Explain new vocabulary words and model their use in sentences.

Speech Emergence

Students may do the following:

- Use new vocabulary
- Communicate using sentences
- Ask simple questions related to classroom activities—for example, “Can I go to the rest room?”
- Understand spoken English with the support of pictures, actions, and objects
- Understand more English than they are able to produce

Suggested instructional practices:

- Actively involve children in classroom activities.
- Focus on meaning, not pronunciation.
- Continue to build English vocabulary by using synonyms, webbing, and semantic mapping.
- Provide opportunities for children to communicate in meaningful ways.
- When formal reading instruction begins in English, use texts with illustrations that connect to the story and to children's background knowledge.
- Plan extension activities by structuring opportunities for children to discuss the content of stories with English-speaking peers.

Intermediate and Advanced Fluency

Students may do the following:

- Express thoughts and feelings more effectively
- Ask and respond to higher-level questions (*what if, how, and why*)
- Incorporate new vocabulary into speech
- Speak English using grammar and vocabulary comparable to same-age native speakers

Suggested instructional practices:

- Actively involve students in classroom activities.
- Continue oral language development through structured interactions with English-speaking peers.
- Explain idiomatic and slang expressions.
- Provide many opportunities for students to write in a variety of forms.
- Help students transfer their knowledge of reading in their native language to reading in English.

Adapted from Coyne, Kame'enui, & Carnine, 2010; Gersten et al., 2007; Goldenberg, 2008, 2010; Lake & Pappamihiel, 2003; Peregoy & Boyle, 2001.

Effective Instruction for English Language Learners

Academically Sound Instruction

Strategy	Discussion
Set high expectations for English language learners (ELLs).	High expectations lead to rigorous instruction and excellent academic progress.
Use challenging, grade-level-appropriate, and high-quality curricula to build essential skills that undergird deeper learning.	ELLs thrive in an environment where they are challenged but not frustrated.
Promote higher-order thinking through relevant activities.	Ensure that ELLs have opportunities to engage in problem-solving activities, participate in critical analysis and in-depth discussions of concepts, and partake in peer-guided activities with plenty of modeling and support.
Contextualize instruction.	<p>Ensure that new concepts are firmly built on previous knowledge and understandings.</p> <p>Activate or build prior knowledge before learning new content through discussions, anticipatory guides, visuals, and clarification of important points.</p> <p>Help ELLs see how knowledge is interconnected and how concepts across content areas are related.</p>

Culturally Responsive Instruction

Strategy	Discussion
Ground instruction in ELLs' cultural backgrounds and prior experiences.	<p>Learn as much as possible about your students' cultural backgrounds, experience bases, and ways of learning.</p> <p>A survey in ELLs' native language about their cultural, education, and language backgrounds can help you take advantage of what ELLs bring to the table.</p> <p>Add books and text examples that reflect all cultures represented in the classroom to classroom libraries and displays.</p> <p>Parents, librarians, and community members can recommend books that relate to your ELLs.</p>

Strategy	Discussion
Promote school-community partnerships.	<p>Incorporate the knowledge and expertise of parents and community members into the curriculum.</p> <p>Parents and community leaders can serve as role models and valuable sources of cultural information.</p>
Create a caring and supportive environment.	<p>Ensure that all students are respectful of ELLs' attempts to use their new language.</p> <p>Explain to all your students that learning a new language is no easy feat and model how to listen attentively to ELLs.</p>
Build on ELLs' wealth of knowledge.	<p>Recognize and draw upon students' knowledge, rather than focusing on only what they don't know.</p> <p>A diagnostic assessment in English and the native language can provide valuable information. For example, if ELLs can recognize the role of punctuation in their native language, they can use that knowledge to learn about English punctuation.</p> <p>Find ways to recognize and connect with the experiences of your students.</p>

Linguistically Accommodated Instruction

Strategy	Discussion
When possible, include instructional opportunities in students' native language and facilitate cross-linguistic transfer.	<p>Preliteracy and literacy skills in the native language provide a strong foundation for English literacy learning.</p> <p>Provide high-quality native language and literacy instruction when possible.</p> <p>The Spanish Language Arts and Reading TEKS help teachers provide effective native-language instruction.</p> <p>Cross-linguistic transfer occurs in sound- and word-based skills such as phonemic awareness, alphabetic understanding, and decoding, as well as in some fluency skills and comprehension skills.</p> <p>Be explicit and specific about how to transfer this knowledge. Show students how decoding looks similar across languages and give specific examples of the differences.</p>

Strategy	Discussion
Facilitate the development of skills at students' current levels of English proficiency.	<p>Recognize that ELLs have different levels of English proficiency and require different levels of support.</p> <p>Students who develop social competence in English, such as asking to get a drink of water correctly or talking to peers in English on the playground, still require opportunities for further language development.</p> <p>In fourth grade, special attention should be placed on the development of academic English through modeling and providing structured classroom opportunities to use English with peers.</p>
Increase accessibility to classroom instruction by using visual aids.	<p>Use carefully selected videos, pictures, drawings, and real-life objects to ensure access to topics of discussion and provide a context for language use.</p> <p>Teach ELLs how to use graphic organizers, charts, tables, and outlines to understand different expository and narrative texts they read across content areas.</p>
Provide meaningful opportunities to use English.	<p>Use different grouping settings effectively. ELLs should sit close to other students from similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds so they can help each other but also enjoy opportunities to practice English with native English speakers.</p> <p>Provide sufficient language modeling and opportunities to have extended discussions in English.</p> <p>Carefully plan instruction and learning so ELLs can participate in discussions of the different texts read across content areas through substantial scaffolding if needed.</p>

Strategy	Discussion
<p>Increase accessibility to classroom instruction by using comprehensible and meaningful language.</p>	<p>Adjust English vocabulary and grammatical structures used to meet children's levels of English proficiency. Avoid slang and idioms that are difficult to explain in simple, familiar terms. Provide support for understanding idioms by pairing them with illustrations and familiar vocabulary.</p> <p>Help students learn to recognize word boundaries in spoken language. Avoid "fused forms" (e.g., "yaknowwhatimean"), which can be confusing to ELLs.</p> <p>Use specific names instead of pronouns.</p> <p>Repeat key vocabulary in context.</p> <p>Summarize main points.</p> <p>Use "lead statements" to help ELLs know what will happen next—for example, "We will do two things before lunch. First... Second..."</p> <p>Build on words and concepts that transition easily from one language to another. This technique helps ELLs access what they know in their native language and apply it to English.</p> <p>Use nonverbal cues consistently, including gestures, facial expressions, and physical responses, to help students understand and use new English words and concepts.</p> <p>Repeat, rephrase, and extend ELLs' language to support language learning.</p> <p>When teaching subject matter to ELLs, amplify and enrich the language and content in the lesson by paraphrasing and restating key ideas and concepts, providing multiple examples and perspectives, and providing a variety of class activities.</p>

Adapted from August & Hakuta, 1997; August & Shanahan, 2006; Cummins, 2003; Echevarría et al., 2008; Francis et al., 2006; Gay, 2000, 2002; Gersten et al., 2007; Gibbons, 2002; Goldenberg, 2008, 2010; Jimenez & Rose, 2010; Lake & Pappamihel, 2003; Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007; Lopez, 2012; Lucas et al., 2008; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Walqui, 2006

Planning Scaffolded Instruction for English Language Learners

Step 1: Examine Proficiency Data

For your English language learners (ELLs), find out previously learned skills and specific needs through assessments or family connections.

Analyze different sources of data, including the following:

- **Literacy benchmark data** that provide information on advanced phonics, fluency, comprehension, and writing
- **Literacy assessment data**, such as the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills or its Spanish counterpart, Indicadores dinámicos del éxito en la lectura
- **Language development measurements**, such as the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System
- **Other sources of data**, such as curriculum-based assessments and progress monitoring

Step 2: Analyze Lesson

- Keeping in mind the four language domains, analyze the **language and literacy skills** required to fully participate in the lesson.
 - What key words and concepts in the texts do ELLs need to know?
 - What key academic terms or phrases (function words, instructional terms) do ELLs need to know?
 - What literacy skills will be necessary for the lesson?
- Review the **lesson content and materials** to identify topics, concepts, situations, and background knowledge that might be unfamiliar to ELLs but required to understand the materials.
 - What is the text about?
 - Will some ELLs find this information unfamiliar?
 - Is this a culturally specific topic for a certain group?
- Analyze the **instructional activities** to identify lesson tasks that may need adaptations to meet ELLs' language and instructional needs.
 - What teaching activities will be used?
 - What grouping format will be used?
 - What activities and tasks will ELLs need to complete, and how should they be modified?

Step 3: Select and Implement Scaffolds

Use the following scaffolds for ELLs (additional scaffolds are included in the ELPS Academy: Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide):

- **Supplement and modify oral language and written texts.**
 - Avoid idiomatic expressions and complex sentences.
 - Pause often to allow time to process.
 - Repeat or paraphrase key ideas.
 - Use academic English purposefully.
 - Adapt written text to make language accessible—make it shorter and include visuals.
 - Create “cheat sheets” for key vocabulary.
 - Add clarifying notes to texts.
- **Build a linguistic base.**
 - Explicitly model academic language.
 - Highlight key vocabulary.
 - Preteach instructional terms.
 - Provide sentence frames for language use.
- **Contextualize instruction by connecting to or developing prior knowledge.**
- **Use extralinguistic support**—for example, visuals, graphics, and tables.

Adapted from The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk, 2015.

Observing Explicit Instruction With Modeling

Phonological Awareness

What You Should Hear	What You Should See
Talking and practicing sounds	Manipulatives—for example, sticky notes; colored paper; or markers, chips, or beans
Immediate and corrective feedback	Movement
Modeling	Picture cards for sounds
Repeating (echoing)	
Positive praise	
All students responding	
Segmenting sounds and words	
Clapping, patting, feet stomping, fingers snapping	
“I do, we do, you do” model	
Proper phoneme production	
Practice	

Phonics, Decoding, and Word Study

What You Should Hear	What You Should See
Correct pronunciation	Students using mirrors during sound production
Teacher and students building words	Base word in a different color
Students talking to peers	Letter tiles to build words
Students responding	Students practicing with whiteboards
Clapping out sounds	Evidence in other areas of curriculum
Teacher explicitly stating the skill to be learned (over and over)	Students manipulating letters to build words
Manipulation of sounds in words	Word sorts
Students making the sounds as they write them	Students using whiteboards
Teacher modeling sound manipulation	Teacher modeling with sticky notes each phoneme and then connecting it to print
Explicit instructional routines	Explicit modeling of segmenting and blending words
Dictation exercises	

Vocabulary

What You Should Hear	What You Should See
Words used in context	Semantic webs
Words connected to life experiences	Pictures
Words used in different settings and contexts	Analogies
Read-alouds focusing on vocabulary	Synonyms, antonyms, homographs, and homophones
Students using words and talking about words with each other	Word associations
Teacher-led discussions	Vocabulary extracted from read-alouds
Connections to prior knowledge	Student dictionaries
Referring back to previously learned vocabulary words	Portable word walls (journals, note cards)
Immediate feedback	Graphic organizers
Explicit teaching of vocabulary in current text	Vocabulary notebooks with words, definitions, and pictures
Vocabulary routine	Games with vocabulary words
Student-friendly definitions, examples, and nonexamples	Vocabulary words and definitions written and visible to students
Students providing their own understanding of definitions, examples, and nonexamples	Grouping classification chart
	Words in sentences matching with pictures
	Students using vocabulary in their writing

Fluency

What You Should Hear	What You Should See
Corrective feedback	Multiple grouping formats
Whole-class timed reading and rereading	Students graphing their fluency progress
Timed partner reading	Multiple reading formats and genres
Choral reading	Students tracking their reading
Multiple repetitions of the same text	Students practicing fluency in pairs
Expressive reading	Sight words posted
Modeling	Timers
Choral, partner, and echo reading at the teacher table	Reader's theater
Instructional focus set	Prereading activities
Practice, practice, practice	Familiar text
	A lot of print
	Word walls
	Small groups based on fluency rate
	Teacher monitoring students
	Letter-sound cards, high-frequency word cards, and/or phrase fluency cards

Comprehension


What You Should Hear	What You Should See
“Think, pair, share” routine	Graphic organizers
“I step back; you jump in” routine	Active participation
Listening comprehension practice	Variety of genres
Students collaborating and sharing ideas	Student pairs creating story maps
Students asking questions	Embedded markers
Before- and during-reading activities	Finding answers in text
Teacher and student think-alouds	Leveled readers
Role-playing	Character maps
Connections to prior knowledge	
Teacher modeling good reading strategies	
Rereading using strategies and skills	
Students applying strategies when reading	

Systematic Instruction With Scaffolding: Vocabulary Example

STEP 1: Think about your most challenging student.

STEP 2: Order your concepts and skills.

- Place the cards in order at your table.
- Write the concepts or skills in order below.

Simple  More Complex	Order	Concept or Skill
	1	
	2	
	3	
	4	
	5	
	6	
	7	
	8	

STEP 3: Circle a concept or skill to scaffold.

REPEATING THE WORD	PUTTING THE DEFINITION IN YOUR OWN WORDS	ILLUSTRATING THE WORD	ANTONYMS
DEFINING THE WORD	FINDING THE WORD IN TEXT	SYNONYMS	USING THE WORD IN A SENTENCE

STEP 4: Provide three scaffolds for your concept or skill.

1.	2.	3.

Levels of Formative Feedback

Tell students they are right or wrong.

A student points to the word *should* and says /sh/ /ow/ /d/.

Some teachers might say, “No—anyone else?”

Or to provide formative feedback, you could say, “Does this sound right? ‘The present /sh/ /ow/ /d/ be wrapped before we go to the party.’ No, it **should** be wrapped before we go to the party. What’s the word? That’s right; it’s *should*.”

Describe why an answer is correct or incorrect.

When asked to look in a text for the same spelling of /ow/ as in the word *house*, a student says, “cloud.”

Some teachers might simply say, “yes.”

Or to provide formative feedback, you could say, “Yes, *cloud* has the same sound and spelling as /ow/ in *house*. That spelling is *ou*.” Then you could write *ou* on the board.

Tell students what they have and have not achieved.

The following are two examples of this type of feedback:

- “We are looking for three words in the text that have the same spelling of /ow/ as in the word *house*. We found two words, *cloud* and *outside*. We just need to find one more.”
- “Class, we have read all of our one-, two-, and three-syllable words. Now we need to read our four-syllable words. Let’s look at what words we need to read as we move forward.”

Specify or imply a better way.

The following are two examples of this type of feedback:

- “A better way to do this might include...”
- “Please tell me a way that you might complete this task to make it [better, cleaner, more concise, easier to understand, etc.].”

Help students develop ways to improve.

“We have reviewed how authors select words to inform us about a topic. Now let’s talk about how we can edit the words we used in our writing to provide more information to our readers.”

To provide formative feedback, you could provide prompts such as the following:

- “What would make this better?” (Have students show you what is correct or needs improvement.)
- “Tell me how...”
- “What if you...” (Have students describe the next steps toward their target.)

Strategies for Differentiating Instruction

Adjust Instructional Delivery

- Model each task (and parts of each task).
- Use concise, explicit wording.
- Monitor students as they practice.
- Provide feedback and multiple opportunities for practice.
- Review and integrate the components of the lesson.

Raise the Level of Explicitness

- Ensure that all of the steps of effective instructional delivery are included in the lesson.
- Use clear and consistent language across activities.
- Provide ample opportunities for practice.
- Ensure that students can demonstrate their learning in multiple ways.

Alter the Features of the Task

- Ensure that there are not too many complex tasks.
- Sequence the tasks from simple to complex.
- Limit the number of tasks as students gain confidence and understanding.

Use Additional Strategies

- Slow down or speed up the pacing of the task or the delivery of instruction.
- Slow down or speed up students' movement through the core or intervention programs.
- Regroup students in multiple grouping formats.

Grouping Practices for Effective Differentiated Instruction

The type of grouping you use depends on the purpose of your instruction. Same-ability groups include students with similar knowledge and skills. Mixed-ability groups include students with different levels of knowledge and skills. As you monitor students' progress, change the group types to reflect individual students' progress and changing instructional needs.

Group	Advantages	Instructional Focus or Activities	Group Formation
Whole group	Engages teachers and students in shared learning experiences Includes every student	Read-alouds Shared writing Introduction of new concepts Author's chair Speaking or performances Class discussions Modeling	Students are placed in classes according to school policy.
Small groups (same ability)	Meets individual students' needs Allows teachers to vary membership Maximizes opportunities for students to express what they know and to receive feedback Is beneficial for reading and math instruction	Small-group instruction, targeted to specific students' needs	Students are assigned to a group of three to eight students with similar knowledge and skills. Assignments are based on assessment data.
Small groups (mixed ability)	Allows for self-choice Motivates students Addresses social needs Promotes language interactions for English language learners	Activities that allow students to practice and extend what they are learning in all content areas Center or workstation activities	Groups are formed based on students' abilities or interests. Groups can be cooperative or student-led.

Group	Advantages	Instructional Focus or Activities	Group Formation
Pairs or partners	Meets individual needs Motivates students Addresses social needs	Partner reading Practice activities Center or workstation activities Peer tutoring	Groups are formed based on assessment data.
One on one	Meets individual needs Allows for more intensive instruction Is beneficial for students who have difficulties in reading and mathematics	Instruction targeted to needs of each student	Groups are formed based on assessment data.

Adapted from Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Reutzel, 1999.

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Supporting All Learners

Activity Resource

A graphic of a yellow pencil with a black eraser and a black band. The pencil is positioned horizontally, with its tip pointing to the left. The band has the text "GRADES 4 & 5" written on it in a black, sans-serif font.

READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4



Slide—Planning Scaffolded Instruction for ELLs



Locate the handout **Planning Scaffolded Instruction for English Language Learners**.

Step 1: Examine Proficiency Data

Look at the data sources that can be used and place a check mark by those you use on a regular basis.

Step 2: Analyze Lesson

Discuss with your tablemates the other lesson components that need to be carefully analyzed.

Step 3: Select and Implement Scaffolds

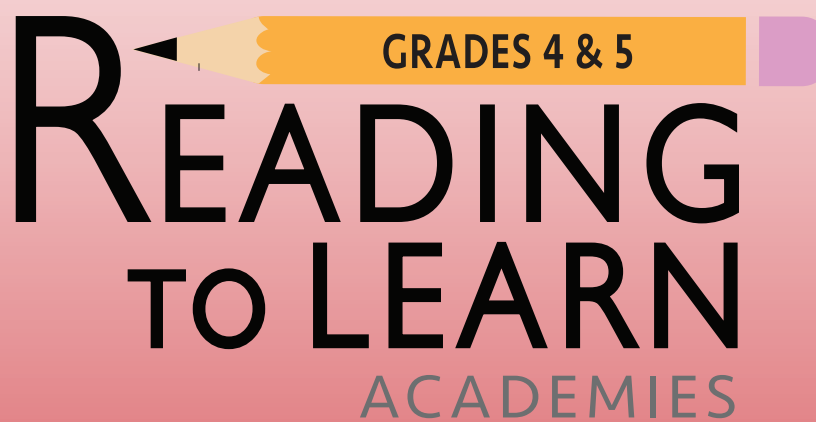
Think of other scaffolds that can be added to the list. (Refer back to the handout **Effective Instruction for English Language Learners** or to the **ELPS Academy Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide**.)

Using the **English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide**, review and discuss the scaffolds that are used for the three different types of analysis.



Word Study and Recognition

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Green highlighter
- Laser pointer
- Document camera
- Word sort cards: two sounds of *c*
- Word sort cards: *-ed*
- Student scenario cards for orthographic conventions
- Word sort cards: syllable types
- Adhesive tabs
- Marker or pen to label tabs
- Three green pipe cleaners
- Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary
- Video: Strategies for Reading Multisyllabic Words

Participant Materials

- Word sort cards: two sounds of *c*
- Word sort cards: *-ed*
- Word sort cards: syllable types
- Folder containing the following documents: Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide
- Supply pouch containing green highlighters, other highlighters, sticky notes, and adhesive tabs

Materials to Provide Each Table

- Guiding Questions document (two per table)
- Blank index cards
- Markers
- Student scenario cards for orthographic conventions (one set per table)
- Green pipe cleaners (three per participant)
- *English and Spanish Language Arts and Reading Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills Handbook*



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Word Study and Recognition

Slide 1—Title Slide

(0:00–0:30)

In this section of the academy, you will learn features of effective fourth-grade word-study and word-recognition instruction. You will also gain knowledge of English orthographic rules, learn decoding strategies, and practice effective methods for teaching spelling.

Section Objectives



This section will enhance your knowledge of the following:

- The importance of explicitly teaching decoding and spelling
- Rules and generalizations of the English sound system and spelling patterns
- Effective instructional practices for teaching word study and word recognition
- Activities that provide multiple opportunities for students to practice word study skills



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:30–2:00)

Take a moment to review the objectives on the slide. These objectives should guide your learning for this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.

In your folder, find Handout 1: The Reading Rope from the Overview section of this academy.

Pause for participants to find the handout. Display your copy on the document camera.

In this section, we will focus on the lower strands of the rope—phonological awareness, decoding, and sight recognition—to build the skills necessary for students learning to read.

Highlight the lower threads of the word recognition strand with a green highlighter. Allow 30 seconds for participants to complete the highlighting. Then ask participants to place the handout back in the folder.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Survey of Knowledge: Word Study and Recognition



- Decoding
- Decodable texts
- Phoneme
- Phonology
- Structural analysis
- Morpheme
- Orthography
- Affix
- Grapheme
- Sight word
- Encoding
- Syllable



Slide 3—Survey of Knowledge: Word Study and Recognition

(2:00–7:00)

We will start with a survey of your knowledge related to word study and word recognition to help us focus on key concepts we will discuss throughout this section.

Activity

Find **Handout 1: Survey of Knowledge: Word Study and Recognition**.

Read the directions aloud.

Work with a partner and discuss the terms as you complete the survey.

Allow three minutes.

*With participants, read, match, and discuss answers. An answer key is provided in **Presenter Resource I**.*

Word Recognition: One Piece of the Puzzle

“The active processing of sentences and paragraphs cannot occur unless the reader can recognize individual words reliably and efficiently. That is why learning to decode is so important.”

— Pressley, 1998, as cited in Stanovich, 2000, p. 208



Slide 4—Word Recognition: One Piece of the Puzzle (7:00–7:30)

Read the quotation on the slide.

Proficient reading depends on the ability to decode and recognize words. As this quotation states, it is impossible to think about and process written language without mastering these fundamental skills.

References

Dehaene, 2009; Henry, 2010; Moats, 2009b, 2010; National Institute for Literacy (NIFL), 2001; National Reading Panel (NRP), 2000; Pressley, 2006; Rasinski & Padak, 2004; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Stanovich, 2000

Word Study (Spelling): Another Piece of the Puzzle

“The correlation between spelling and reading comprehension is high because both depend on a common denominator: proficiency with language. The more deeply and thoroughly a student knows a word, the more likely he or she is to recognize it, spell it, define it, and use it appropriately in speech and writing.”

— Joshi, Treiman, Carreker, & Moats, 2008-2009, p. 9



Slide 5—Word Study (Spelling): Another Piece of the Puzzle

(7:30–8:00)

Another piece of the puzzle is word study, or spelling. Spelling is highly correlated with writing skills like sentence construction and composing and with reading skills like reading fluency and comprehension. As this quotation states, all reading and writing processes ultimately depend on “proficiency with language”—understanding how the English language works on multiple levels, including the word, phrase, sentence, paragraph, and discourse levels.

This section focuses on the first of these levels—the word level.

References

Abbott, Berninger, & Fayol, 2010; Ahmed, Wagner, & Lopez, 2014; Caravolas, Hulme, & Snowling, 2001; Joshi, Treiman, Carreker, & Moats, 2008–2009, p. 9; Moats, 2005; Templeton, 1996; Templeton & Morris, 2000; Weiser & Mathes, 2011; Weiser, 2012

What We Know From Research

“Language is a human instinct, but written language is not...Children are wired for sound, but print is an optional accessory that must be painstakingly bolted on. This basic fact about human nature should be the starting point for any discussion of how to teach our children to read and write.”

— Pinker in McGuiness, 1997, p. ix



Slide 6—What We Know From Research

(8:00–8:30)

Learning to read and write is not like learning to speak. Neither reading nor writing is a natural process. Our brains are not programmed to read and write. Instead, we take language centers and other areas of the brain and “recycle” them, to use one scientist’s terminology, to become effective readers and writers.

To put it another way, Steven Pinker, a neuroscientist, says that reading and writing must be “bolted on,” or taught explicitly and systematically. This instruction is fundamental to ensuring that every child becomes a fully literate adult.

References

Dehaene, 2009; Gough, 1997; McGuiness, 1997, p. ix; Moats & Tolman, 2009; Wolf, 2007; Wyse & Goswami, 2008

What We Know From Research: Orthographic Mapping

- Students must learn to map sounds to print through the systematic study of orthographic patterns and word parts.
- Such instruction and practice allows students to orthographically map words, which leads to those words becoming sight words.



Slide 7—What We Know From Research: Orthographic Mapping

(8:30–9:30)

In fourth grade, all students need to develop advanced decoding skills to read longer, more challenging words. Research demonstrates that successful readers rely primarily on letter-sound correspondences, spelling patterns, and word parts, rather than on context or pictures, to identify familiar and unfamiliar words. They must have reliable decoding strategies to break down any unfamiliar word, blend it, and pronounce it correctly.

Throughout fourth grade, students must rapidly increase their sight-word knowledge by decoding, spelling, and reading words multiple times. Researchers call this process orthographic mapping. Effective readers use orthographic mapping to expand their sight-word vocabularies.

References

Adams, 1990; Dehaene, 2009; Ehri, 2014; Kilpatrick, 2015

What We Know From Research: Explicit and Systematic Instruction

- Explicit, systematic decoding and spelling instruction is significantly more effective than unsystematic instruction or no word-level instruction.
- Systematic instruction and practice improves all students' word recognition and spelling skills.



Slide 8—What We Know From Research: Explicit and Systematic Instruction

(9:30–10:30)

Multiple studies demonstrate that explicit, systematic decoding and spelling instruction is more effective than unsystematic instruction or no word-level instruction at all. Systematic word-study instruction follows a prescribed scope and sequence of skills and knowledge. Unsystematic instruction, on the other hand, typically involves an as-needed method. Such a hit-or-miss approach to decoding and word-study instruction leaves fundamental gaps for many students.

Systematic decoding and word-study instruction can improve the reading and writing abilities of all students. It is particularly beneficial for students who struggle with learning to read or write and for English language learners.

References

Adams, 1990; Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001; Coyne, Zipoli, & Ruby, 2006; Dehaene, 2009; Denton, Fletcher, Taylor, Barth, & Vaughn, 2014; Foorman, 1995; Henry, 2010; Jaynes, 2008; Kilpatrick, 2015; McCardle & Chhabra, 2004; Moats, 2009b, 2010; NIFL, 2001; NRP, 2000; Pressley, 2006; Rupley, Blair, & Nichols, 2009; Snow et al., 1998; Wyse & Goswami, 2008

What We Know From Research: Encoding and Decoding

- Integrating encoding (spelling) instruction with decoding (reading) instruction improves students' reading abilities beyond decoding instruction alone.
- Some research demonstrates a relationship between spelling ability and fluent word reading.
- Effective word-study instruction improves both writing and reading.



Slide 9—What We Know From Research: Encoding and Decoding

(10:30–11:30)

Spelling instruction and word-reading instruction go hand in hand. Students should practice decoding and reading the same sounds and orthographic patterns that they practice in spelling.

Some research demonstrates that effective spelling relates to fluent word reading and that ineffective spelling relates to slower, less automatic word reading. These findings support the idea that effective instruction at the word level should include both decoding and spelling practice with similar words, orthographic patterns, and word parts, like prefixes and suffixes.

References

Abbott et al., 2010; Berninger et al., 2002; Conrad, 2008; Martin-Chang, Ouellette, & Madden, 2014; Moats, 2005; Weiser, 2012; Weiser & Mathes, 2011; Wyse & Goswami, 2008

What We Know From Research: Conclusion



“Despite the widespread assumption that spelling is a mechanical skill that can be learned through incidental instruction or memorization, spelling may from the very beginning be the critical skill for developing word wizards and competent composers who can translate their ideas for others via well-crafted texts and read the text that others generate for its own sake or for use in creating their own texts.”

— Abbott, Berninger, & Fayol, 2010, p. 296



Slide 10—What We Know From Research: Conclusion

(11:30–14:00)

The quotation on the slide shows the conclusion that Abbott and his fellow researchers drew from their research.

Activity

Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Read the quotation and note three mistaken assumptions made about spelling. Be ready to share with the whole group.

Allow participants a moment to read. Then, select participants to share their identified mistaken assumptions, which include the following:

- “Spelling is a mechanical skill.”

Notes continue on the next page.

- *“Spelling can be learned through incidental instruction.”*
- *“Spelling is learned through memorization.”*

What is spelling really all about?

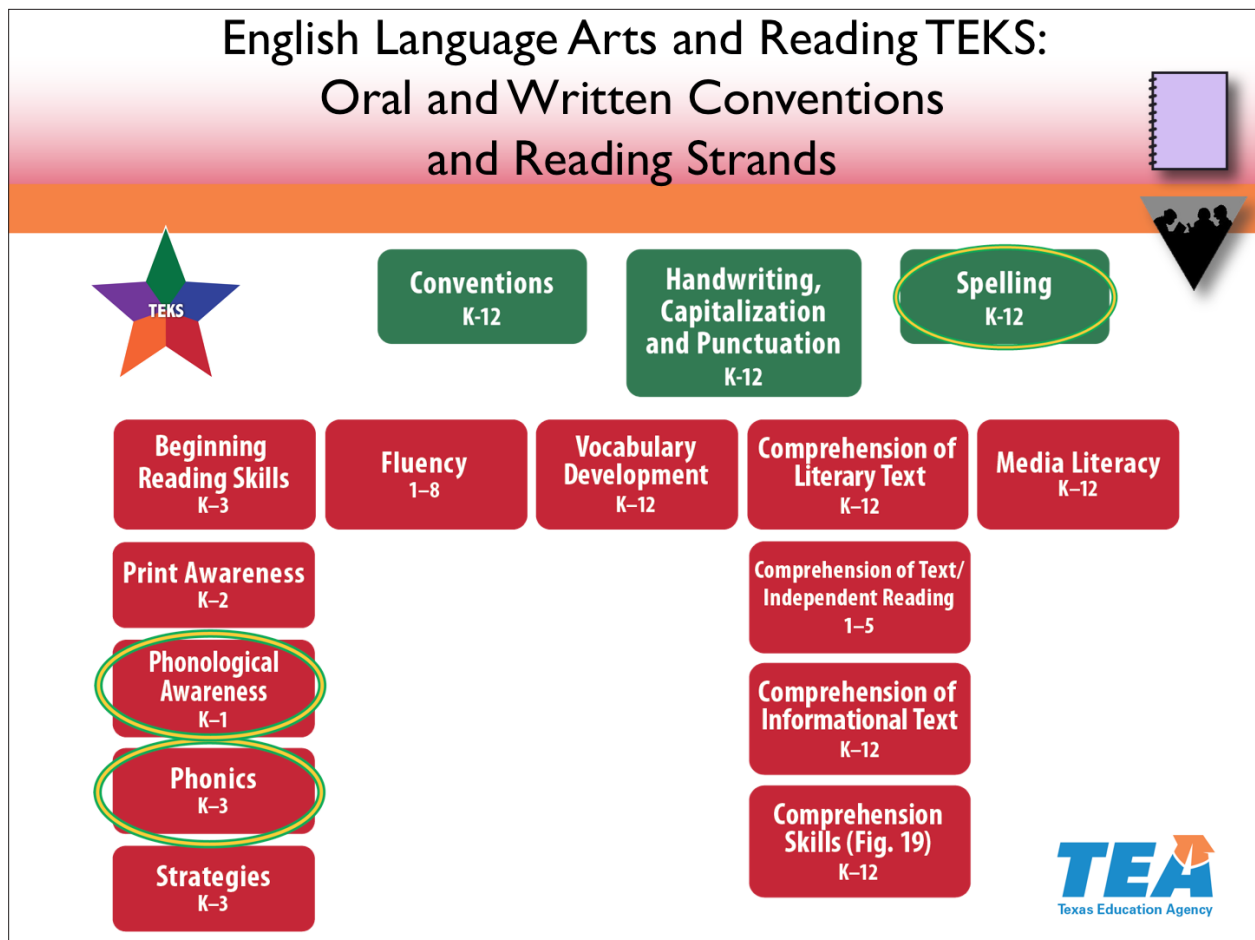
Use your laser pointer to point to these words as you read them.

“...developing **word wizards** and **competent composers** who can translate their ideas for others via well-crafted texts and read the text that others generate...”

When students truly understand our orthographic system and its relation to sound and meaning, they are no longer constrained in the words they can read or choose to use in their writing. Such knowledge provides a sense of competence, freedom, and autonomy—important elements for developing strong internal motivation in reading and writing.

References

Abbott et al., 2010, p. 296; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Templeton & Morris, 2000



**Slide 11—English Language Arts and Reading TEKS:
Oral and Written Conventions and
Reading Strands**

(14:00–19:00)

Decoding, word recognition, and word study are addressed in the TEKS. Find the **Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment** chart in your folder.

Activity

*As participants locate the chart, place the **Activity Resource** on the document camera.*

Go to pages 4–5 of the document. On these pages, you will find phonics, decoding, and spelling expectations for third through sixth grades. Notice the alignment of skills across the grades.

Notes continue on the next page.

Examine your grade-level expectations. First, create a list of common orthographic patterns that fourth-graders should already know from previous grade levels. Then, note what they need to be prepared to do for the next grade level. Finally, at your tables, discuss anything that stands out to you or that you learned.

Allow three minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the three minutes, have participants share with the whole group.

You'll notice that phonological awareness is not addressed in the grades 3–6 TEKS. However, many students, especially English language learners and those who struggle with reading, may not demonstrate proficiency with these skills by the end of second or even third grade, especially the more advanced phonemic awareness skills like adding, deleting, and substituting phonemes. Thus, for some students, you may have to provide instruction and practice with phoneme-level skills, which demonstrate strong relationships with reading ability.

Keep these expectations in mind as we discuss this section. Place the alignment chart back in your folder for future reference.

References

Kilpatrick, 2015; Texas Education Agency, 2009

Word Study and Recognition in Fourth Grade

Review the following skills from third grade:

- All types of phoneme-grapheme connections in multisyllabic words
- Advanced orthographic patterns (e.g., doubling consonants, syllable patterns)
- Rules for adding suffixes (e.g., changing *y* to *i*, dropping final *e*)

Provide more extensive instruction and practice with the following:

- Plurals, including irregular ones
- Silent letters, especially in multisyllabic words
- Homophones
- Structural analysis, including base words, prefixes, suffixes, and roots



Slide 12—Word Study and Recognition in Fourth Grade

(19:00–20:00)

This slide provides a general overview of the word study and recognition skills that fourth-grade students are expected to learn. Take a moment to read the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

As you can see, fourth-grade teachers must begin with the fundamental skills that students are supposed to master by the end of third grade and build much more advanced skills with more difficult types of words, including homophones and multisyllabic words. Your effective instruction ensures that students have these skills when they begin fifth grade. With these skills, they can move into more complex comprehension and writing processes.

References

Moats, 2009b; Texas Education Agency, 2009

Principles of Word Study and Recognition

- Phonemes can be represented by a single letter or combination of letters.
- Some letters can represent more than one sound.
- Different letters can represent the same sound.
- Where a phoneme or grapheme occurs in a word is often important.
- Different word-reading strategies can be used to read unknown words.
- Orthographic patterns and rules help students to determine pronunciation and spelling.
- Structural analysis based on meaningful word parts can help in reading and spelling words.



Slide 13—Principles of Word Study and Recognition (20:00–21:00)

This slide shows the principles of effective word-study and word-recognition instruction. Fourth-grade teachers should know and understand these principles and base their instruction on them.

In the rest of this session, we will discuss these principles and instructional strategies related to them. Take a minute to read the principles listed on the slide.

Allow one minute for participants to read.

References

Chall & Popp, 1996; Henry, 2010; Joshi et al., 2008–2009; Moats, 2009b, 2010; Shapiro & Solity, 2008; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2004

Foundational Knowledge: Phonology

- Knowledge of English phonology, or sound system, is crucial to any literacy teacher.
- Understanding the relationships between our sound and print systems lays the foundation for effective word reading and spelling.
- Many students with reading difficulties, including those with dyslexia, have phonological deficits.
- Gaps in phonological development lead to problems with decoding, orthographic mapping, fluency, and comprehension.
- These gaps also lead to problems with spelling and written composition.



Slide 14—Foundational Knowledge: Phonology

(21:00–21:30)

Literacy teachers need foundational knowledge in English phonology, or sound system. Such knowledge allows teachers to explicitly show students the connections between sounds, or phonemes, and print. How can we teach the spellings of the English sounds without knowing the sounds themselves?

Let's take a quick survey. About how many English phonemes are there? Using a sticky note and marker, write your estimate.

Pause for a moment while participants write their estimates.

Hold up your notes so I can see them.

Read some of the estimates.

Linguists actually don't agree on an exact number of English phonemes. However, many researchers and educators agree on 43 phonemes—25 consonant sounds

Notes continue on the next page.

and 18 vowel sounds. Clearly articulating these sounds for students and making direct connections between the sounds and their representation in print are crucial instructional skills. These skills are especially important when working with struggling students and English language learners.

Many students with reading difficulties, including those with dyslexia, have phonological deficits. Not addressing these deficits creates gaps that can linger into adulthood and cause problems with decoding, fluency, spelling, and higher-level skills like reading comprehension and written composition.

Knowledge of the English sound system is crucial to understanding effective decoding and spelling instruction.

References

McCutchen et al., 2002; Moats, 2009a, 2010; Shapiro & Solity, 2008; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003, 2004

Grapheme-Phoneme Knowledge



- Grapheme-phoneme knowledge involves learning the common sounds of letters and letter combinations.
- Common graphemes include the following:
 - Single letters (*t, b, l, f, s, e*)
 - Doublets (*mm, tt, ff, ll, ss, zz*)
 - Consonant digraphs and trigraphs (*th, sh, ch, tch, dge*)
 - Silent-letter combinations (*wr, kn*)
 - Vowel digraphs (*ee, ai, ou, oi, oo*)
- Consonant blends are also common, but each letter represents an individual sound.



Slide 15—Grapheme-Phoneme Knowledge

(21:30–23:00)

When we connect sound knowledge to print, we call this grapheme-phoneme, or graphophonemic, knowledge. A grapheme is a letter or group of letters that represents an individual sound.

Use your laser pointer as you introduce each type, starting with single letters, doublets, consonant digraphs and trigraphs, and silent-letter combinations.

Vowel digraphs, also known as vowel teams, are adjacent letters in the same syllable that represent a single vowel sound.

Consonant blends (also known as consonant clusters) are made up of two or three consonants. Each letter retains its common sound. Rather than learning one new sound, students learn to blend the sounds, such as the /tr/ in *train* in English or *tren* in Spanish. When sounding out consonant digraphs and blends, do not add an extra schwa sound, such as saying /shuh/ instead of /sh/.

Notes continue on the next page.

Find **Handout 2: Grapheme-Phoneme Knowledge**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

This handout provides more information about these specific types of graphemes in both English and Spanish. Take a moment to examine the handout.

Pause for participants to examine the handout.

You may want to think about how you can use this when planning for your word study and recognition instruction and flag it to come back to later.

References

Adams, Treiman, & Pressley, 1998; Carnine, Silbert, & Kame'enui, 1997; Chall & Popp, 1996; Chard & Osborn, 1999; Gunning, 2002; Henry, 2010; Learning First Alliance (LFA), 2000; Moats, 2009b, 2010; NIFL, 2001; NRP, 2000; Snow et al., 1998; Torgesen, 1998

Phoneme Position Influences Spelling

The spelling of a sound can depend on whether it is in the middle or end of a syllable.

(/ā/ = *ai* in *main* vs. *ay* in *may*)

A sound after a short vowel is often spelled with more than one letter.

(*ss* in *dress*, *dge* in *edge*, *tch* in *watch*, *ck* in *duck*)

These phoneme-grapheme relationships are often influenced by word origin, meaning, or part of speech.



Slide 16—Phoneme Position Influences Spelling

(23:00–24:00)

It is important to understand two facts about connections between sound and print. First, the position of a phoneme in a word influences its spelling.

Use your laser pointer to point to each idea as you address it.

We see a few examples listed on the slide. The spelling of a vowel sound can depend on whether it is in the middle or at the end of a syllable. For example, /ā/ is often spelled *ai* in the middle of a syllable, like in *main* or *pail*, but it is spelled *ay* at the end of a syllable, like in *may* or *pay*. A similar example is /oi/ spelled *oi* in the middle of a word or syllable versus *oy* at the end of a word or syllable.

The sounds that follow short vowels often are spelled with more than one letter, like *ss* in *moss* and *tt* in *letting*.

These relationships between phonemes and graphemes are also often influenced by a word's origin, its meaning, or its part of speech. To illustrate, the *ed* spelling at the

Notes continue on the next page.

end of verbs indicates a change in tense. We do not use a *t* for the /t/ sound or a *d* for the /d/ sound because we want to show this change in meaning.

References

Henry, 2010; Moats, 2009b, 2010; Venezky, 1999

Grapheme Position Influences Pronunciation



Graphemes influence the pronunciation of adjacent graphemes.

(*c* before *a*, *o*, or *u* vs. *c* before *e*, *i*, or *y*)

Graphemes in multisyllabic words represent different sounds from those in single-syllable words.

(*y* in *daddy* vs. *y* in *fly*)

Graphemes represent voiced or unvoiced sounds depending on whether they are followed by an *e*.
(*teeth* vs. *teethe*)

These grapheme-phoneme relationships are often influenced by word origin, meaning, or part of speech.



Slide 17—Grapheme Position Influences Pronunciation

(24:00–30:00)

The position of a grapheme influences its pronunciation. This is the second important fact to understand when teaching sound and print connections. This slide contains a few examples.

Use your laser pointer to point to each idea as you address it.

Graphemes influence the graphemes around them. For example, *c* is pronounced /k/ when it precedes an *a*, *o*, or *u*—as in *cat*, *cop*, and *cup*. It is pronounced /s/ when it precedes an *e*, *i*, or *y*—as in *cease*, *science*, and *cyst*. This also applies to Spanish. For example, in *casa*, *color*, and *cubeta*, the letter *c* is pronounced as /k/, and in *cenar* and *cine*, the letter *c* is pronounced as /s/.

The same rule applies to *g* making the /g/ sound when followed by *a*, *o*, and *u*—as in *gas*, *gore*, and *gulp*—versus the *g* making the /j/ sound when followed by *e*, *i*, or *y*—as in *germ*, *gist*, and *gym*. In Spanish, the letter *g* also has two sounds. It is

Notes continue on the next page.

pronounced as /g/ when followed by *a*, *o*, and *u*, as in *gato*, *gota*, and *gusano*. It is pronounced as /h/ when it is followed by *e* and *i*, as in *genio* and *gitano*. In this last instance, we add a letter *u* between *g* and the vowels *e* and *i* to change the sound to /g/, as in *guerra* and *guitarra*.

Graphemes in multisyllabic words behave differently from those in single-syllable words. One example is *y*, which makes the /ē/ sound at the end of multisyllabic words, such as *baby* and *happy*. This is the most common way to spell the long-*e* sound. In one-syllable words, *y* at the end makes the /ī/ sound, like in *fly*, *by*, and *dry*.

The letter *e* serves many functions in English, which is why it is in so many words. One of its functions is marking graphemes as voiced. Good examples include adding an *e* to the end of *teeth* to make the verb *teethe* and adding *e* to *breath* to make *breathe*. In these verbs, the *e* marks the *th* to make it the voiced sound /th/.

As with phoneme position, these relationships between graphemes and their pronunciations are often influenced by the origin of the word, its meaning, or its part of speech. To illustrate, *e* marking *th* to make the voiced sound /th/ happens in verbs. The noun *teeth* changes to the verb *teethe* when we add the *e*, just as the noun *breath* becomes the verb *breathe*.

Now, let's look at a resource that contains all of the information we've just discussed about grapheme-phoneme knowledge and a whole lot more.

Handout 3: Word Study and Recognition Information provides information about English language phonology, orthography, morphology, and etymology.

Pages 1 and 2 list specific sound-spelling relationships based on word origin. Pages 3 through 5 list the vowel sounds and their most common spellings. Pages 6 through 10 list the consonant sounds and information about their spellings. Pages 11 through 14 provide information about other orthographic patterns and morphemes. Pages 15 through 20 provide information about Spanish-language spelling rules and accenting.

This document can help in planning your word study instruction. Look through the handout and locate a spelling pattern that your students might find challenging. Think about how you might present it to your students. For example, notice the ways to spell the sound /j/ on page 7.

Allow one minute for participants to look through the handout.

References

Henry, 2010; Moats, 2009b, 2010; Venezky, 1999

Building and Sorting Words

Building Words

- Engages students in manipulating letters, letter combinations, syllables, or morphemes to build words
- Includes teacher modeling, scaffolding, and guided practice

Sorting Words

- Engages students in analyzing words for sounds, orthographic patterns, or morphemes
- Goes beyond memorizing rules to focus on pattern recognition



Slide 18—Building and Sorting Words

(30:00–31:00)

We have discussed sound and print connections. We have also examined a resource that provides in-depth information about these connections and many other orthographic elements. Now, we will learn some effective instructional practices that use this orthographic knowledge to teach spelling explicitly and systematically.

Lessons on building words provide opportunities for students to spell and read words with the spelling patterns, syllable types, and morphemes that students are learning. Lessons on building words include teacher modeling, scaffolding, and guided practice to help students successfully apply newly learned word-recognition skills and spelling strategies.

Word sorts provide opportunities for students to analyze words and focus on recognizing spelling patterns or sounds.

References

Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2012; Moats, 2009b

Word-Building Example



- Put the following morpheme cards in a pocket chart.



- Model how to make various words by pulling down morpheme cards to build words (e.g., *retry*, *dislike*).
- Have students see how many words they can make with the cards.
- To make it more challenging, give students a time limit (e.g., three minutes).



Slide 19—Word-Building Example

(31:00–34:30)

Having students build words is a fun activity that can be done as a warm-up, extended practice, or workstation. This slide provides the directions for one word-building example with prefixes, base words, and a suffix. Let's see whether you can do it. I'll give you two minutes. See how many words you can build. Ready? Go.

Activity

Allow two minutes for participants to work. At the end of the two minutes, have one participant share his or her words while the others check off the words on their lists. Afterward, have other participants share any words that were not said.

Note to Presenter

Here are the words that can be made: “recover,” “retry,” “replace,” “re-elect,” “reappear,” “recovered,” “retried,” “replaced,” “re-elected,” “reappeared,” “uncover,” “unlike,” “uncovered,” “untried,” “unelected,” “discover,” “dislike,”

*“displace,” “disappear,” “discovered,” “disliked,” “displaced,” “disappeared,”
“covered,” “tried,” “liked,” “placed,” “elected,” “appeared.”*

As you can see, word building is an engaging activity that you can use to get students spelling and reading words with different orthographic or morphological elements.

Reference

Moats, 2009b

Word Sorts



Closed Sorts

Used to examine a specific sound or orthographic pattern

Open Sorts

Allow students to sort words into any categories they notice

Ask students to explain their thinking and discuss the patterns they notice.



Slide 20—Word Sorts

(34:30–37:00)

Word sorts are also beneficial for teaching how different phonological, orthographic, or morphological elements affect spelling. By doing their own word analyses with a word sort, students begin to recognize patterns in words they are reading and spelling rather than trying to memorize a list of abstract rules.

Carefully and strategically select words for sorting. The words should provide sufficient practice with specific sounds, patterns, or morphemes.

When sorting, students categorize words by sound patterns, orthographic patterns, or morphological parts (meaningful parts like prefixes, suffixes, base words, and roots).

In a closed sort, you give students parameters for categorizing the words. For example, you may tell students to sort words into three groups or to listen for a specific sound or look for a specific pattern.

In an open sort, you simply provide a group of words and let students sort the words in whatever way makes sense.

Always discuss the word sort when students finish, asking questions about their thinking, the patterns, and how these patterns relate to spelling and reading the words.

Find **Handout 4: Examples of Word Sorts**. This handout provides guidelines for creating and using word sorts in English and Spanish.

Allow participants one minute to examine the handout.

Now we will try a couple of word sorts.

References

Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2012; Moats, 2009b

Word-Sort Activities



- **Activity 1:**
Complete one of the word sorts on page 1 of Handout 5 with a partner.
- **Activity 2:**
On page 2, create a word sort for fourth-grade students and share your sort with a partner.



Slide 21—Word-Sort Activities

(37:00–48:00)

Activity

Find **Handout 5: Sample Word Sorts**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

This handout shows two word sorts. Choose one of the word sorts with a partner and then find the corresponding set of word cards for your activity. Together, sort the words and answer the questions on page 1. You have three minutes.

*Provide three minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the three minutes, put the answers to each sort on the document camera and have participants share their responses to the questions. Answers can be found in **Presenter Resource 2**.*

Now that you have participated as a student, try creating your own word sort. Think about orthographic knowledge you teach. Use page 2 of the handout to

create a word sort you might use in your classroom. A third set of cards is available for you to write your words on. Write questions you might want students to answer about the sort. Then, share your word sort and see whether your partner can complete it and answer the questions. You have five minutes to work on this activity.

Allow five minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the five minutes, have a few participants share the word sorts they created.

Word sorts can meet the needs of all learners in various ways. For example, a closed sort in which students differentiate words with the /sh/ sound from words with the /ch/ sound may be helpful for struggling spellers, including some English language learners. On the other hand, an open sort in which students create their own categories for multisyllabic words and then write a paragraph about the words' orthographic patterns or morphemes could be used with more advanced spellers.

Word and Sentence Dictation



- Provide initial modeling for the following:
 - Sounding out words to match phonemes with graphemes
 - Counting and thinking about words in sentences, syllables in words, etc.
- Provide guided practice with immediate feedback.
- Make sure that students correct misspellings.

**Dictation IS teacher-supported, guided practice.
Dictation is NOT a spelling test!**



Slide 22—Word and Sentence Dictation

(48:00–50:00)

In addition to word building and word sorting, word and sentence dictation is an effective method for teaching and practicing word study and spelling.

Find **Handout 6: Sample Dictation Routine**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

During dictation activities, you provide students with a word to spell or a sentence to write. Then you have the students repeat the word or sentence and write it.

Initially, do think-alouds to model how to spell the words using phoneme-grapheme correspondences, orthographic patterns, or morphemes you have taught. As students become more proficient, you can decrease the amount of modeling.

As students write their words and sentences, walk around, monitor their writing, and provide immediate feedback. Make sure that students correct misspelling immediately.

As it says on the slide, dictation is guided instruction and practice. It is not a test.

Find **Handout 7: Guidelines for Teaching Word Study and Spelling**.

This handout summarizes many of the ideas and strategies that we have discussed for word study and spelling.

Now, let's discuss our next topic: word-reading strategies.

Reference

Carreker, 2005b

Word-Reading Strategies

- Decode the sounds in words.
- Recognize and use common spelling patterns, including syllable patterns.
- Use structural analysis.
- Use knowledge of context and syntax to check pronunciation and confirm word meaning.



Slide 23—Word-Reading Strategies

(50:00–50:30)

As students learn grapheme-phoneme relationships, orthographic patterns, and morphemes, have students practice using this knowledge to read words. Explicit, systematic instruction in reading words includes teaching students these word-reading strategies.

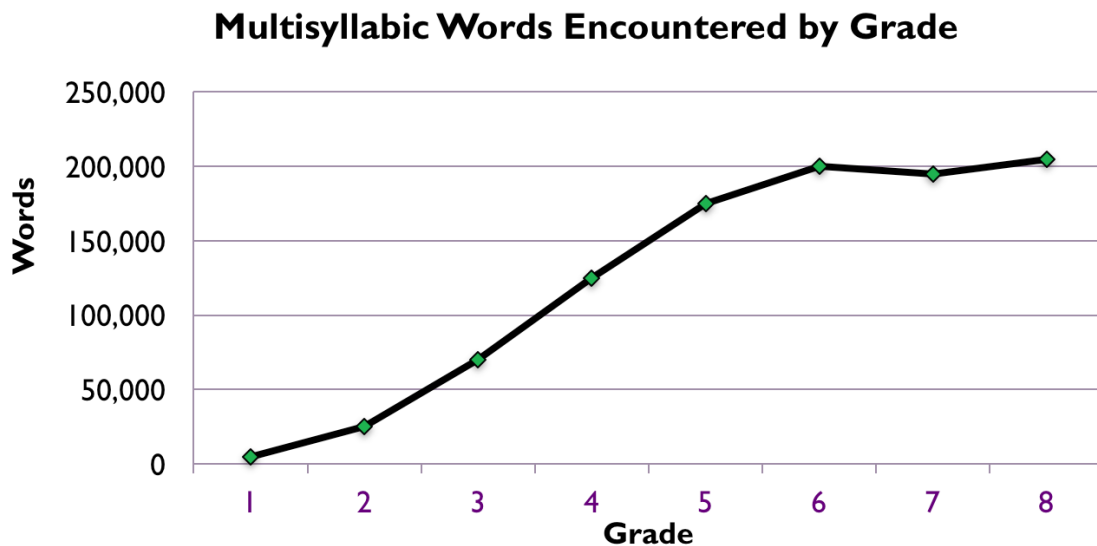
Read the bullets on the slide.

We will examine and discuss each of these word-reading strategies in the slides that follow.

References

Carreker, 2005a; Chard & Osborn, 1999; Chard et al., 1998; Henry, 2010; Moats, 2009b, 2010; Snow et al., 1998

Why Teaching Decoding Is Important



(Kearns et al., 2016)



Slide 24—Why Teaching Decoding Is Important (50:30–52:00)

Let's see how important it is for students to develop effective decoding strategies. This line graph shows the estimated number of multisyllabic words a student encounters each year from first grade through eighth grade. Notice the slope from second through sixth grades.

Use your laser pointer to point to the slope between second and sixth grades.

Trying to guess these tens of thousands of words with two, three, or more syllables is ineffective and inefficient. If students do not have a method for decoding and reading these words, what chance do they have of reading their assigned texts? What about learning from these texts?

These data show that students must learn and practice effective decoding strategies to read unfamiliar words. The practice must occur with unfamiliar single-syllable words and longer, multisyllabic words.

Notes continue on the next page.

Some students may still need to practice sound-by-sound blending, but all students must practice chunking words by orthographic patterns, syllables, and morphemes. This practice should occur both while reading connected text and out of context in word banks or lists or during activities like word building, sorts, and games.

Such effective decoding instruction helps students orthographically map words, turning them into sight words, or words they know automatically.

References

Adams, 1990, 2001; Carnine et al., 1997; Carreker, 2005a; Chard & Osborn, 1999; Chard et al., 1998; Ehri, 2014; Kearns et al., 2016; Kilpatrick, 2015; LFA, 2000; Moats, 1998; Neuhaus Education Center, 1992; NIFL, 2001; NRP, 2000; Snow et al., 1998; Vousden, 2008; Zeno, Ivens, Millard, & Duvvuri, 1995

Orthographic Conventions and Patterns

Orthographic conventions

- Rules govern what we can and cannot do when making words in English.
- Word sorts and word-building activities help students analyze words for patterns based on these conventions.
- Teachers need knowledge of conventions to help students see patterns and to explain the English spelling system.

Orthographic patterns

- Students can learn to read by analogy by using patterns in known words to help read unknown words.
- Students can also apply knowledge of the six syllable types.



Slide 25—Orthographic Conventions and Patterns (52:00–1:00:00)

Orthographic conventions are the rules that govern English spelling. You have probably learned many of these implicitly and do not even know you know them. Many of our students, however, will not learn these conventions unless we explicitly teach them to look for and apply the conventions in words.

We can help students see these conventions by doing word sorts and word-building activities. Knowing these conventions helps you explain the way we read and spell words in English. So when a student asks you the reason for a word's spelling or pronunciation, you can provide an answer other than, "I don't know."

Activity

Find the **Student Scenario Cards for Orthographic Conventions** on your table. Choose one of the cards. When I give you the signal, get up and find someone

Notes continue on the next page.

from another table who has a card with a different number on it. Introduce yourself to the person and decide who will read his or her scenario first.

When it is your turn, read your scenario and ask your partner the questions on the card. After discussing your partner's response, check it against the response at the bottom of the card. You have three minutes to find someone and discuss each of your scenarios. Ready? Go!

Allow three minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the three minutes, have the participants return to their tables.

Now, share what you learned about English orthography from this activity with your tablemates. I will give you two minutes to discuss.

Allow two minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the two minutes, share interesting ideas you heard or have participants share with the whole group.

The goal is for students to read and spell using these conventions and patterns—not to memorize a lot of abstract, decontextualized rules.

Now, let's discuss two other strategies to help students build and use their knowledge of these patterns—reading by analogy and applying the six syllable types.

References

Carreker, 2005a, 2005b; Henry, 2010; Moats, 2009b, 2010; Sharp, Sinatra, & Reynolds, 2008

Reading By Analogy



- As students build their orthographic knowledge, they can use patterns within known words to read unknown words with similar patterns.
- This strategy should be explicitly taught and modeled.
- Show students how to use the strategy by asking themselves the following:
 - What words do I know that look the same?
 - What words do I know that have the same spelling pattern?



Slide 26—Reading By Analogy

(1:00:00–1:01:00)

When students learn to read by analogy, they learn to use similar patterns they see across words. Students make analogies when they use words with known spelling patterns to read unknown words.

Teaching students to read by analogy involves explicit modeling. Show students how to recall words with similar spelling patterns and to make connections between those words and the unknown word. Students learn to ask, “What words do I know that look the same?” and “What words do I know that have the same spelling pattern?”

Find **Handout 8: Decoding By Analogy**, which has guidelines for teaching this strategy. Review this handout to determine what decoding by analogy means and how to teach this strategy.

References

Cunningham, 2000; Ehri, Satlow, & Gaskins, 2009; Gaskins, Ehri, Cress, O’Hara, & Donnelly, 1996–1997; Goswami, 1998; Juel & Minden-Cupp, 2000; Moats, 1999; Moustafa & Maldonado-Colón, 1999; NIFL, 2001; NRP, 2000; Templeton & Morris, 1999; White, 2005

Analogizing in *Harry Potter*



Harry Potter Word

“Real” Word for Analogizing

apparate

apparent, separate

muggle

juggle

quaffle

waffle

pensieve

believe

furnunculus

turn, uncle, mucus



Slide 27—Analogizing in *Harry Potter*

(1:01:00–1:03:30)

Let’s try reading by analogy with a few words from *Harry Potter*. For each *Harry Potter* word on the slide, try to come up with a “real” word to analogize it to. I will model with the first one.

This first word looks like a combination of the words *apparent* and *separate* (the verb with the accent on the last syllable).

Click to show the words “apparent” and “separate” in the second column.

I am thinking that you probably pronounce the first part like the /ăp/ in *apparent* and the second part like /ərāt/ in *separate*. Putting these parts together, I’d pronounce this word as /ăpərāt/.

Note to Presenter

“Apparate” means to transport oneself instantly to any destination. Thus, it means to make oneself apparent in another place. So analogizing in this case also helps in understanding the word’s meaning.

Activity

Work with a partner to come up with a word or words for the other four *Harry Potter* words. I will give you one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the minute, have the participants share words they came up with. Fill in the rest of the chart by clicking to show examples of words to analogize to.

Notice that being able to analogize at this level with *Harry Potter* words requires knowing a lot of patterns. The longer the words get, the more it helps to have other strategies, like chunking words by syllables and meaningful parts.

Common Syllable Patterns



- The six syllable types help students read and spell unknown words, including multisyllabic words.
- Teach the syllable types explicitly and systematically using word sorts and word-building activities to teach students to look for patterns.

Closed	Open	Vowel-Consonant-e	Vowel Digraphs and Diphthongs	Vowel-r	Final Stable
--------	------	-------------------	-------------------------------	---------	--------------



Slide 28—Common Syllable Patterns

(1:03:30–1:12:00)

Orthographic patterns include the six syllable types of English. Do you know them?

Find **Handout 9: Six Syllable Types**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

This handout lists the six syllable types for you to reference as you plan instruction. Knowledge of consistent syllable patterns and their common sounds helps students read and spell unfamiliar words, including multisyllabic words. Read the handout now.

Provide a minute for participants to read the handout.

Activity

Now find **Handout 10: Six Syllable Types: Activities**.

*As participants locate the handout, place the **Activity Resource** on the document camera.*

Work with a partner to fill out the chart at the top of the page using the six syllable types on the slide.

*Allow two minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the two minutes, go over the answers. Answers are provided in **Presenter Resource 3**.*

Now, let's use this knowledge to do another word sort. Under the syllable-type chart on Handout 10 is a closed sort. Use your syllable-type word cards for this activity. Work with a partner to sort the words by their first syllable. Then answer the questions. Be sure to notice that one word doesn't fit the pattern. See whether you can identify it and write about it in the second question.

*Allow three minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the three minutes, go over the answers. Answers are provided in **Presenter Resource 3**.*

Find **Handout 11: Teaching the Six Syllable Types**. This handout provides explicit methods for teaching the six syllable types. Take a minute to look over the handout and place a checkmark beside the activities you already do with your students and a star next to those you would like to try.

Pause for participants to look at the handout.

References

Carreker, 2005a; Chard & Osborn, 1999; Henry, 2010; Moats, 1995, 2009b, 2010; Templeton & Morris, 2000

Using Syllables in *Harry Potter*



Harry Potter Word

Syllables

Hagrid	Hag-rid
riddikulus	rid-dik-u-lus
dementor	de-men-tor
Pigwidgeon	Pig-widg-e-on



Slide 29—Using Syllables in *Harry Potter*

(1:12:00–1:15:00)

Let's use syllables to read a few words from *Harry Potter*. For each *Harry Potter* word on the slide, break it into syllables and then read it. I will model with the first one.

The first vowel, *a*, is followed by two consonants, so I will divide between the consonants.

Click to show the syllables in the second column.

This division will make the first syllable closed, so the *a* is pronounced /ă/. The next syllable is also closed, so the *i* is pronounced /i/. This word is pronounced /hăg rĭd/, *Hagrid*.

Activity

Work with a partner to divide the other three *Harry Potter* words into syllables and then read them. I will give you one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the minute, go over the syllables for each word. Click to show each word's possible syllable division. Participants may share other acceptable responses.

You must use syllabication for long words that you do not know. Syllabication is a powerful strategy for figuring out how to pronounce words.

Let's look at one more strategy that is helpful when reading these longer words.

Morphemic Analysis



Students analyze meaningful word parts to help read and spell unfamiliar words, including the following:

- Compound words
- Base words
- Inflectional suffixes
- Prefixes
- Derivational suffixes
- Roots



Slide 30—Morphemic Analysis

(1:15:00–1:17:30)

In addition to using analogies and syllable patterns to read words, students can analyze meaningful units within multisyllabic words. The smallest unit of meaning in a word is a morpheme.

Use your laser pointer to point to each bulleted idea as you address it.

Compound words, base words, and some inflectional suffixes are usually the first morphemes students learn. In the upper-elementary grades, additional inflectional suffixes, common prefixes, and derivational suffixes are taught. The addition of these parts to base words and roots improves students' reading of multisyllabic words.

More advanced morphemic analysis includes identifying

- more complex prefixes, such as *trans-*, *sub-*, and *anti-* in English, and *omni-* and *tele-* in Spanish;

- more complex derivational suffixes, such as *-ion*, *-ment*, and *-ous* in English, and *-ción* and *-idad* in Spanish; and
- roots, such as *struct* in *structure* and *spect* in *spectator*.

Explicitly teaching morphological awareness improves students' word reading and spelling.

The next three handouts provide lists of common prefixes, suffixes, and roots.

Take a moment to locate and skim **Handout 12: Common Prefixes**, **Handout 13: Common Suffixes**, and **Handout 14: Common Greek and Latin Roots**.

Pause a moment for participants to locate and skim the handouts.

References

Deacon, Kirby, & Casselman-Bell, 2009; Henry, 2010; Moats, 1995, 2009b, 2010; NIFL, 2001; Templeton & Morris, 2000; Wolter, Wood, & D'zatko, 2009

Using Morphemes in *Harry Potter*



<i>Harry Potter</i> Word	Morphemes
merpeople	mer-people
quietus	quiet-us
animagi	anima-magi
hippogriff	hippo-griff
seeker	seek-er



Slide 31—Using Morphemes in *Harry Potter*

(1:17:30–1:20:30)

Let's use morphemes to read a few words from *Harry Potter*. For each *Harry Potter* word on the slide, break it into morphemes and then read it. I will model with the first one.

I see the morpheme *mer*.

Click to show the syllables in the second column.

I also see a word I know: *people*. If I put those two parts together, it is pronounced /merpēpəl/. I know that *mer* is a prefix that means “water,” as in *mermaid*. I know what people are, so *merpeople* must be people who live in the water, similar to mermaids.

Activity

Work with a partner to divide the other four *Harry Potter* words into morphemes and then read them. Try to figure out their meanings. I'll give you one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the minute, go over the morphemes in each word. Click to show each word's morphemes.

Here are the definitions for the other words:

- *quietus: Command (-us) that makes one's voice soft (quiet)*
- *animagi: Wizards (magi) who can turn themselves into animals (anima)*
- *hippogriff: Creature that is part horse (hippo) and part eagle (griff)*
- *seeker: Quidditch player (-er) who tries to catch (seeks) the Golden Snitch*

Using morphemes not only helps you read multisyllabic words, but also it helps you understand the words.

Let's look at one last strategy that can help us check our reading and make sure it makes sense.

Using Context and Syntax

- After sounding out an unfamiliar word, teach students to use context and syntax to check word pronunciation and confirm word meaning.
- After sounding out and reading an unfamiliar word, prompt students to ask the following:
 - “Does that sound right?”
 - “Does that make sense?”



Slide 32—Using Context and Syntax

(1:20:30–1:21:30)

After decoding an unfamiliar word, readers can use context and syntax to check the word's pronunciation and confirm that it makes sense. Good readers learn to decode words first—before using context and syntax to check their pronunciation and comprehension. Struggling readers are more likely to ignore letter sounds and to use context and syntax to guess at words.

After decoding and reading an unfamiliar word, prompt students to ask themselves the following:

- “Does that sound right?” (¿Suena lógico?)
- “Does that make sense?” (¿Tiene sentido?)

References

Gunning, 2002; Moats, 1999; NIFL, 2001; NRP, 2000; Pressley, 2006; Snow et al., 1998; Torgesen, 1999

Practicing Word-Reading Strategies



- Students need to practice word-reading strategies both in and out of context.
- Students also need to practice these strategies across grouping formats, including the following:
 - Whole group
 - Mixed-ability groups
 - Independent
 - Small groups
- During small-group instruction, model and scaffold word-reading strategies.



Slide 33—Practicing Word-Reading Strategies (1:21:30–1:24:00)

Students need to practice word reading in various texts. Struggling readers may need more controlled texts like decodable texts and instructional-level texts. More advanced readers can apply their higher level word-reading skills in more authentic texts like chapter books and informational texts.

All students should also practice reading words out of context. We know from research that more effective readers read words in lists as well as or better than in connected text.

Reading practice should also occur across the different grouping formats, including in mixed-ability groups and teacher-led small groups. For students who need it, small-group instruction should include instruction and practice in word-reading strategies.

Notes continue on the next page.

Find Handout 15: Practicing Word Reading During Supported Reading Instruction.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

This handout provides ideas for supporting students' word reading in small groups. Take a minute to skim the handout and place a star next to one guideline that stands out to you in each of the three sections.

Pause for participants to look at the handout.

References

Carreker, 2005a; Cunningham et al., 2005; Foorman & Torgesen, 2001; Nicholson, 2001; Schwanenflugel, Meisinger, & Wisenbaker, 2006; Stanovich, 1980, 2006

Explicit, Systematic Instruction in Word Study and Recognition



- **Explicitly teach and model** how to read and spell unfamiliar words.
- Build in **guided and independent practice** with both word-reading and spelling skills.
- **Provide additional practice** for students who need more support in developing these skills.
- Provide students with **immediate feedback** during practice.
- Use specific types of **scaffolding** during reading and writing activities.



Slide 34—Explicit, Systematic Instruction in Word Study and Recognition

(1:24:00–1:35:00)

Throughout this session, we have provided multiple strategies, activities, and lessons for teaching word study and recognition explicitly and systematically. This slide summarizes important elements of this instruction. Find **Handout 16: Explicit, Systematic Instruction in Word Study and Recognition**.

Pause for participants to find the handout. Show the handout on the document camera. Page 1 shows the steps in the HINTS strategy (based on morphology) and SPLIT strategy (based on the six syllable types). Page 2 contains a checklist. Point out the different sections on the checklist. Be sure to point out the third row, which lists all of the lessons and activities that have been discussed.

Take a minute to read about the HINTS and SPLIT strategies.

Provide a minute for participants to read the strategies.

Notes continue on the next page.

We will now watch a video that shows a teacher demonstrating how to use each of these strategies with her students. As you watch the lessons on the video, use the checklist on page 2 of the handout. Put a checkmark next to the different elements you see across grouping formats, explicit instruction components, word study and recognition activities, and materials.

Video: Strategies for Reading Multisyllabic Words

Play the video.

Compare your checkmarks and observational notes with your tablemates. You have one minute to discuss.

Give participants one minute to discuss the lessons. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the minute, share interesting ideas you heard or have participants share with the whole group.

Handout 17: Reading Big Words: Instructional Practices to Promote Multisyllabic Word Reading Fluency is provided as a resource for your use. The handout provides in-depth background knowledge and strategies for reading multisyllabic words.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Carnine et al., 1997; Carreker, 2005a, 2005b; Chard & Osborn, 1999; Dehaene, 2009; Denton, Fletcher, Taylor, Barth, & Vaughn, 2014; Foorman & Moats, 2004; LFA, 2000; NRP, 2000; Shapiro & Solity, 2008; Snow et al., 1998

Consider Diversity: English Language Learners



- Contextualize word study and recognition instruction to promote understanding.
- Teach students how to transfer what they know in their native language to English.
- Teach unique English sounds and letter combinations.



Slide 35—Consider Diversity: English Language Learners

(1:35:00–1:38:00)

Some English language learners may need further scaffolding to support their spelling and word reading in English. Contextualize word-level instruction to promote understanding. To ensure that these students understand the words and texts, provide sufficient scaffolding and language support, such as visuals, real objects, and quick-draws (quickly sketched illustrations).

Teach English language learners how to transfer native-language skills to English through appropriate support and scaffolding. Explain commonalities and differences across languages' alphabetic systems. For example, Spanish presents a near one-to-one relationship between sounds and letters. English letter sounds are related to the type of syllable and the letter position within the word as well as adjacent letters. Greater cross-language awareness can help teachers distinguish second-language acquisition behaviors from learning disabilities.

Notes continue on the next page.

Explicitly teach unique English sounds, letter combinations, and structures. As students learn the new sounds, they also learn how to read and spell those new sounds correctly.

Find **Handout 18: English and Spanish Sounds**.

Display the handout on the document camera.

This chart presents a comparison of English and Spanish sounds. Some sounds are shared across the two languages; other sounds in English are not present in Spanish and may therefore be difficult for Spanish-speakers.

Look at the consonant blends. In Spanish, consonants such as *sp* and *st* can be split across two syllables—for example, *es-pe-cial*. Spanish speakers tend to add a vowel sound before English words such as *special* to form the extra syllable they are expecting. A word like *special* might be pronounced *especial*. Remember that nonnative mispronunciation is not a reading error or lack of phonics knowledge. Mispronunciations are part of the process of acquiring a second language.

References

August, McCardle, Shanahan, & Burns, 2014; Cummins, 2003; Goldenberg, 2008; Goodwin, August, & Calderon, 2015; Helman, 2004; Lesaux, 2006; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Pollard-Durodola & Simmons, 2009; Riches & Genesee, 2006

Word Study and Recognition Assessments



- Word-reading and decoding assessments include the following:
 - Oral reading accuracy
 - Oral reading fluency
 - Nonsense-word reading
 - Sight-word reading
- Spelling assessments include the following:
 - Spelling inventories
 - Dictation checks
 - Student writing samples



Slide 36—Word Study and Recognition Assessments

(1:38:00–1:41:00)

Regularly monitor students' word reading and spelling. This slide lists different types of word-reading, decoding, and spelling measures to use.

Oral reading accuracy is the percentage of words read correctly. Oral reading fluency is the rate, or words correct per minute. Accuracy tells you whether students are reading words correctly. Fluency tells you whether students can read words with automaticity. Both are important to assess.

During fluency assessments, you can also mark word-reading errors and note word-reading strategies used. This information can help you target specific student needs and differentiate instruction accordingly.

Notes continue on the next page.

After gathering data on oral reading accuracy and fluency, struggling students might need further diagnostic testing such as sight-word reading and nonsense-word reading.

Rather than giving students a list of spelling words to memorize for a test, consider using spelling inventories. A spelling inventory is a list of words with spelling patterns that students should learn over the year. You administer a spelling inventory just like a normal spelling test, but instead of counting each correct or incorrect word, you analyze the spelling errors that students make. You then use this information to differentiate instruction across the whole group, small groups, and workstations. The same spelling inventory can be given three to five times per year to assess growth.

You can also use informal assessments to monitor students' progress in word reading and spelling. For example, on a regular basis during teacher-led reading groups, you can ask students to read for a minute and take notes on errors and behaviors. To monitor spelling progress informally, you can use occasional dictation checks and student writing samples.

Handout 19: Monitoring Students' Progress: Word Study and Recognition provides questions to ask yourself as you examine students' word reading and spelling. Place a checkmark beside questions you already ask as you monitor your students' reading and spelling and a star next to questions you would like to ask.

Pause for participants to find and skim the handout.

References

Bear et al., 2012; Farrall, 2012

Taking a Closer Look



- Number off one to five at your tables.
- Using Handout 20, examine page 1 and then:
 - Ones: Examine pages 2–6.
 - Twos: Examine pages 6–10.
 - Threes: Examine pages 10–13.
 - Fours: Examine pages 14–16.
 - Fives: Examine pages 17–21.
- Work with your tablemates to complete Handout 21.



Slide 37—Taking a Closer Look

(1:41:00–1:48:00)

To put all of this information together, let's look at a set of explicit, systematic word study and reading lessons. Find **Handout 20: Adding Suffixes That Change Base Words' Final y to i**. In this handout, you will see a set of lessons with word lists, scripts, and materials. Number off one through five at your tables. Find your number on the slide. Examine page 1 of the handout and the section next to your number. Worksheets can be found on page 22 of the handout.

Provide time for participants to work.

Activity

Find **Handout 21: Taking a Closer Look**. Working with your tablemates, complete the chart with examples from the lesson section you examined. You have four minutes.

Notes continue on the next page.

Allow four minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the four minutes, have participants share their thoughts about the lesson and how they incorporate each of the features.

Remember

The goal of systematic instruction in word study and recognition is to “enable learners to acquire sufficient knowledge and use of the alphabetic code so that they can make normal progress in learning to read and comprehend written language.”

— National Reading Panel, 2000, p. 299



Slide 38—Remember

(1:48:00–1:48:30)

Read the quotation on the slide.

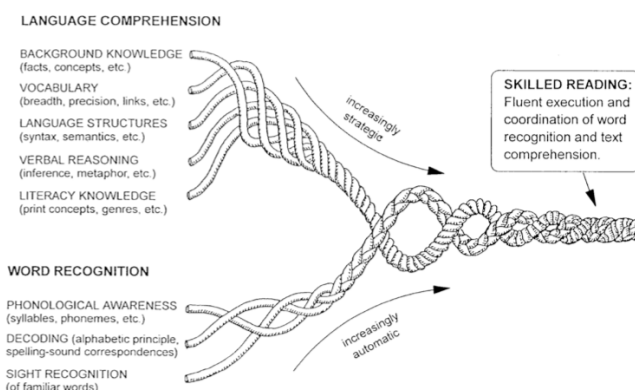
References

NIFL, 2001; NRP, 2000, p. 299

The Reading Rope



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



Scarborough, 2001



Slide 39—The Reading Rope

(1:48:30–1:52:00)

Activity

Locate Handout 1: The Reading Rope from your folder, three green pipe cleaners on your table, and three adhesive tabs from your supply pouch.

Display the materials on the document camera, pausing a moment for participants.

Each green pipe cleaner represents one strand of the skills needed for students to be proficient in word recognition. Use the adhesive tabs to label each pipe cleaner with one of the components of word recognition.

On the document camera, model how to label the tabs.

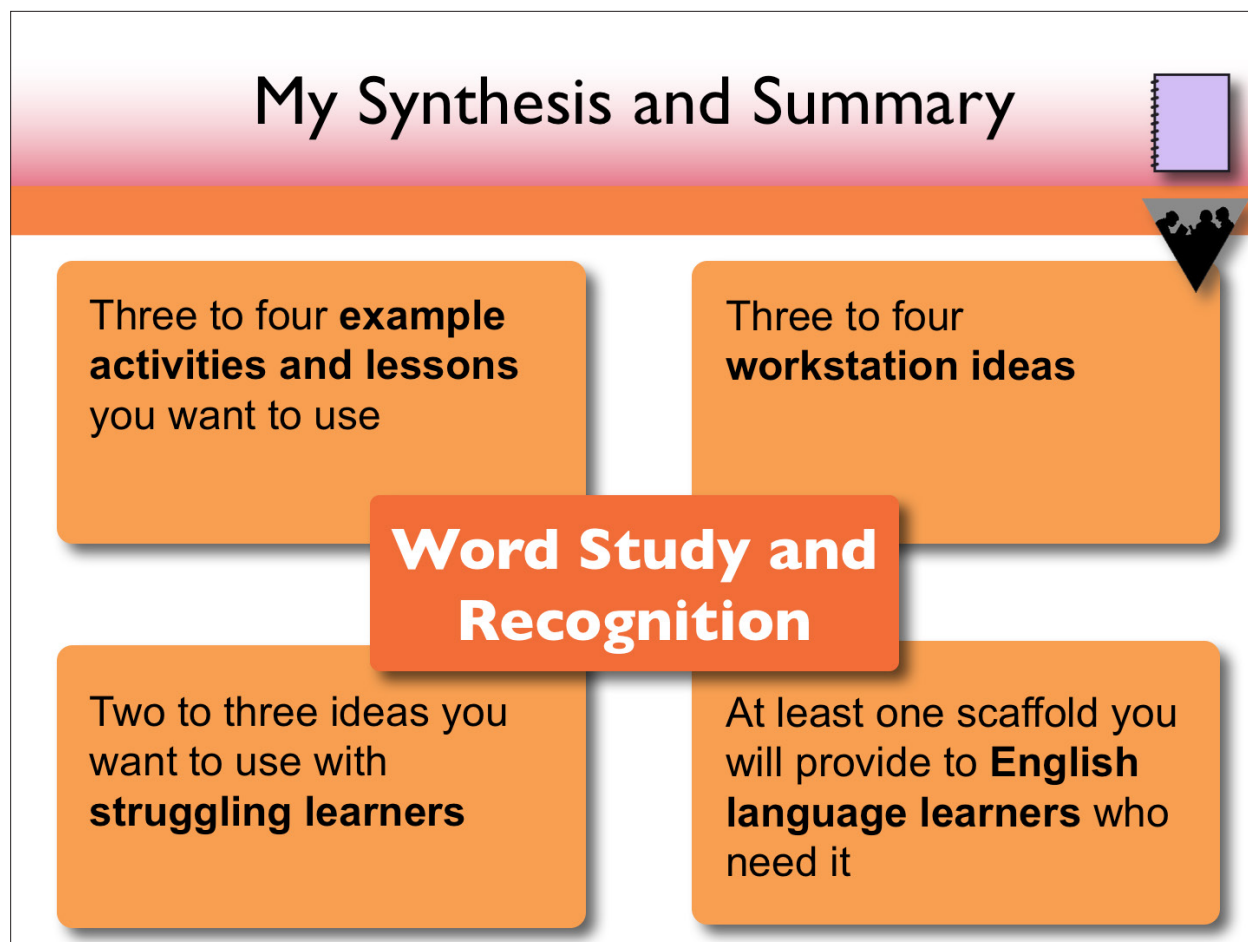
Next, you will twist the pipe cleaners together to represent three components of the word recognition strand in the reading rope model. While you weave, discuss the guiding question on the slide. When you are finished, please place your reading rope handout and model back into your folder.

Provide two minutes for participants to work and discuss.

Now that you have had time to reflect, let's see how our new learning can be applied to our daily instruction.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001



Slide 40—My Synthesis and Summary

(1:52:00–2:00:00)

Let's wrap up this section by synthesizing what we have learned and what it means for word study and reading within our literacy block. Take out the **Grade 4 Literacy Block** handout from your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the resource.

Also take out the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide that you put in your folder during the Supporting All Learners section.

Pause for participants to locate the resource.

We will use these two documents at the end of each section to summarize what we have learned and how we can apply it to our literacy instruction when we get back to our classroom. On the Grade 4 Literacy Block handout, let's fill out the first row for Word Study and Recognition.

Display Presenter Resource 4 on the document camera.

I will model first with my own literacy block chart. In the Example Activities and Lessons to Use column, I recalled all of the different instructional strategies and activities we learned during this section, and I selected a few that I thought were most important.

Read the example activities on Presenter Resource 4.

Activity

Now, it's your turn. Choose three or four of the ideas that stand out to you from this section. Which ones do you want to implement first when you return to your classroom? Write those in the first column. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

The next column is for workstation ideas. Here are a few that I would like to try.

Quickly read the workstation ideas on Presenter Resource 4.

Your turn. Take one minute to list your workstation ideas.

Allow one minute for participants to work.

Now, let's consider our struggling readers and English language learners. Here are a few ideas that I want to incorporate for struggling readers.

Quickly read the list on Presenter Resource 4.

Take one minute to write your ideas for students struggling in word reading or spelling.

Allow one minute for participants to work.

For English language learners, I referred back to the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide. I skimmed the first column to find an area where these students may need more support when learning about word reading and spelling. I decided on "Literacy skills required for the lesson."

Display the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide on the document camera and point to the last row under "Language and Reading Skills Analysis."

I decided that one reading skill I would need to focus on with English language learners is differentiating English and Spanish sounds, which we know can be difficult for some English language learners. That is what I wrote.

Notes continue on the next page.

Display Presenter Resource 4 on the document camera and point to the entry for English language learners.

You might choose this same skill or you might choose a different area. Take two minutes to come up with one area to plan specific scaffolding for your English language learners during word study and recognition.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.


Please put the Grade 4 Literacy Block and English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide back in your folder to use again at the end of the next section.

We have finished the third academy section! We will now spend some time discussing fluency instruction.



Word Study and Recognition

Handouts

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black lead tip is positioned horizontally, pointing to the left. The pencil is placed over the word "READING".
READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Survey of Knowledge: Word Study and Recognition

Match the key concept to its definition by writing the letter in the correct blank.

1. ____ decoding	A. Study of affixes, base words, and roots
2. ____ decodable text	B. Smallest unit of speech sound
3. ____ phoneme	C. Process of converting printed words into their spoken forms by using knowledge of letter-sound correspondences and word structure
4. ____ phonology	D. Smallest meaningful unit of a language
5. ____ structural analysis	E. Writing system for representing language
6. ____ morpheme	F. Letter or letter combination that spells a phoneme
7. ____ orthography	G. A word part or chunk organized around a vowel sound
8. ____ affix	H. Process of producing written symbols for spoken language; also, spelling by sounding out
9. ____ grapheme	I. A language's sound system and the rules that govern it
10. ____ sight word	J. Controlled text in which most of the words are in an accumulating sequence of letter-sound correspondences that students have learned and are learning
11. ____ encoding	K. Morpheme that comes before or after a root or base word to modify its meaning (e.g., prefix, suffix)
12. ____ syllable	L. Word that is recognized automatically when seen

Grapheme-Phoneme Knowledge

A letter combination is a group of consecutive letters that represent sounds in words. The most common combinations are usually taught first.

For example, the letter combination *ph* appears in a large number of words, but many of these words do not frequently appear in primary texts. On the other hand, *th* appears in many words found in primary texts. Thus, we teach the sound of *th* before we teach the sound of *ph*.

A consonant doublet represents one sound.

These doublets almost always follow short vowels. Examples include the *ss* in *less*, *tt* in *hitting*, and *ll* in *doll*.

One set of doublets follows what is called the FLOSS rule. This rule states that at the end of a syllable with a short vowel followed by the /f/, /l/, /s/, or /z/ sound, the *f*, *l*, *s*, or *z* is doubled. Examples include the *ff* in *stuff*, *ll* in *still*, *ss* in *moss*, and *zz* in *buzz*.

A consonant digraph represents a unique sound unlike the sounds of its individual letters.

An example of a consonant digraph is the *sh* in the word *shop*.

When you sound out consonant blends and digraphs, just as with single consonants, do not add an extra schwa sound, such as saying /shuh/ instead of /sh/.

Examples of consonant digraphs in Spanish are the *ch* in *chica*, *ll* in *llegar*, and *rr* in *carro*.

A vowel digraph, or vowel team, is a set of adjacent vowels in the same syllable that represent a single speech sound, including diphthongs (/oi/, /ow/).

Examples of vowel digraphs are the *ea* in *meat*, *oy* in *boy*, and *ow* in *how*.

As with consonants, the sound made by a vowel digraph may vary. For example, the vowel digraph *ou* makes different sounds in *soup*, *could*, and *shout*.

Examples of vowel digraphs in Spanish are the *ue* in *juego* and *uo* in *cuota*.

A consonant blend (also called a consonant cluster) represents the combined sounds of two or three consonants.

For example, the *bl* in *blue*, *spl* in *splat*, *ft* in *left*, and *nt* in *ant* are consonant blends.

Each letter retains its common sound.

Students learn how to blend the sounds, rather than learning one new sound. Begin with initial blends before moving to final blends and medial blends.

For many students, blending two consonants is easy, but some students require intensive instruction and more opportunities to blend consonants.

In Spanish, consonant blends are called grupos consonánticos. The *fl* in *flecha*, *bl* in *blusa*, *tr* in *trompeta*, and *gr* in *grillo* are grupos consonánticos.

Examples of Letter Combinations

Consonant Doublets	Consonant Digraphs	Vowel Digraphs	Consonant Blends
cliff	ship	sail	stop
will	cash	play	scare
fuss	chair	vein	smile
fizz	much	eat	swing
rubbing	thimble	feet	sled
nodded	both	ceiling	blue
beggar	mother	chief	clam
mummy	phone	monkey	flower
tunnel	graph	tie	glue
apple	laugh	road	play
error	whistle	toe	broom
little	chef	blow	cry
		too	drum
		soup	free
		feud	tree
		few	gray
		book	desk
		saw	wasp
		August	act
		head	gold
		cow	wolf
		out	milk
		boil	jump
		toy	string
			scream

Ejemplos de combinaciones de letras en español

Diagrafías (ch, ll, rr)	Diptongos y triptongos	Grupos consonánticos
ch ango	baile	bl —blusa, blanco, blo que
chi ca	pausa, cau sa	fl —flor, flaco, fle ma
ch orro	peine	cl —clave, clavo
pon cho	deuda	gl —globo, gl adiador
callado	soy	pl —playa, pl uma, pl omo
lle gar	diario	cr —crema, cro mo, cr isis, cr udo
lluvia	guapo	br —broma, br usco, br isa, cabra
carro	fiesta	tr —tren, tr ineo, tr ompo, tr aje
corr er	fue	gr —gris, gr acias, gr ueso, gr osero
ferro car ril	diosa	fr —fresa, fri to, fra mbuesa
	cuota	pr —premio, pr imo, pr omesa
	ciudad	dr —dragón, dren aje, cuad ro
	cuidado	tl —Tlatelolco, Mazatlán
	caer	
	leer, creer	
	Uruguay, Paraguay	

Adapted from Azurdía, 1998; Carreker, 2005a; Chall & Popp, 1996; Chard & Osborn, 1999; Gunning, 2002.

Word Study and Recognition Information

General Information Based on Word Origin

The following table lists the spellings by frequency of use.

General Information Based on Word Origin			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
Long- and short-vowel sounds	Short, one-syllable words	<i>sky, sun, hen, do, his, are</i>	Anglo-Saxon in origin Simple, common words originate from Old English, which was viewed as the language of the common person, and Middle English, which was a mixture of Old English and French; pronunciations changed over time, but spellings often did not.
Long- and short-vowel sounds	Vowel teams, including vowel digraphs	<i>read, night, key, hawk, toe, bread</i>	Anglo-Saxon in origin Pronunciations changed over time, but spellings often did not.
One sound	Digraphs (<i>ch, sh, th, wh, ck, ng, gh</i>)	<i>such, with, shall, when, back, sing</i>	Most Anglo-Saxon in origin The digraph <i>ph</i> (to spell the /f/ sound) and <i>ch</i> (to spell the /k/ sound) are Greek in origin.
/oi/, /ou/	<i>oi, oy, ow, ou</i>	<i>toy, soil, cow, loud</i>	Diphthongs are Anglo-Saxon in origin.
	Silent letters	<i>knight, mine, gnat, guess</i>	Anglo-Saxon in origin Many of these letters used to be pronounced. They often do specific jobs. For example, the <i>e</i> in <i>mine</i> marks the <i>i</i> to be long, and the <i>u</i> in <i>guess</i> allows <i>g</i> to be pronounced /g/ when it precedes a vowel (<i>e, i, or y</i>) that would otherwise make it a /j/.
	Irregular spellings	<i>was, of, love, one</i>	Anglo-Saxon in origin

General Information Based on Word Origin			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/er/, /ar/, /or/	Vowel-r (er, ur, ir, ar, or, ear, oar, our)	<i>card</i> , <i>herd</i> , <i>lord</i> , <i>fur</i> , <i>heard</i> , <i>pour</i>	Anglo-Saxon in origin
	Six syllable types	Open, closed, VCe, Vr, VV, Cle	Anglo-Saxon in origin
	Compound words	<i>doghouse</i> , <i>mailman</i>	Anglo-Saxon in origin
/ū/	ou	<i>soup</i> , <i>coupon</i>	Norman French in origin Many of our words for food, fashion, relationships, and social ideas derive from Norman French.
/s/, /j/	ce, ci, cy, ge, gi, gy	<i>peace</i> , <i>huge</i> , <i>science</i>	Norman French in origin
	Special endings (-ette, -elle, -ique, -ine, -ice)	<i>boutique</i> , <i>baguette</i> , <i>novice</i> , <i>cuisine</i>	Norman French in origin
	Multisyllabic words with roots, prefixes, suffixes	<i>instruction</i> , <i>refer</i> , <i>paternal</i> , <i>reject</i> , <i>designate</i> , <i>aquarium</i>	Latin in origin These are the most predictable spellings and pronunciations; they include many words found in the social sciences, physical sciences, and literature.
/f/	ph	<i>agoraphobia</i>	Greek in origin
/k/	ch	<i>chlorophyll</i>	Greek in origin
/i/	y	<i>gymnasium</i>	Greek in origin
	Words using combining forms	<i>hypnosis</i> , <i>biology</i> , <i>geography</i> , <i>decathlon</i>	Greek in origin These word parts are all considered roots, or combining forms; these terms are used in philosophy, mathematics, science, and medicine.

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Vowel Sounds

The following table lists the vowel sound spellings by frequency of use.

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Vowel Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/ă/	<i>a</i>	<i>h<u>a</u>t</i>	Most often spelled just with <i>a</i> in closed syllable
/ā/	<i>a, a_e, ai, ay, eigh, ei, ey, ea</i>	<i>b<u>a</u>by, m<u>a</u>de, m<u>a</u>id, m<u>a</u>y, w<u>eigh</u>, v<u>ei</u>n, pr<u>ey</u>, st<u>ea</u>k</i>	Most often spelled with <i>a</i> at the end of an open syllable (as in <i>baby</i>) Spelled in the middle of a syllable with <i>a_e</i> or <i>ai</i> Spelled at the end of a syllable with <i>a</i> or <i>ay</i> Spellings <i>eigh</i> , <i>ey</i> , and <i>ea</i> less common
/ĕ/	<i>e, ea</i>	<i>b<u>e</u>d, br<u>ea</u>th</i>	Most often spelled just with <i>e</i> in closed syllable Can be spelled with <i>ea</i> —for example, in the <i>ead</i> family (e.g., <i>bread</i> , <i>head</i> , <i>lead</i>)
/ē/	<i>y, e, ee, ea, ei, ie, ey, e_e</i>	<i>pr<u>e</u>tty, f<u>ee</u>ver, m<u>ee</u>t, b<u>ea</u>d, r<u>ee</u>ceive, p<u>ie</u>ce, k<u>ey</u>, m<u>ee</u>t</i>	Most often spelled with <i>y</i> at the end of a multisyllabic word (like in <i>funny</i>) Also, often spelled with just <i>e</i> at the end of an open syllable (like in <i>me</i> or <i>he</i>) Spelled in the middle of a syllable with <i>ee</i> or <i>ea</i> Spellings <i>ei</i> , <i>ie</i> , <i>ey</i> , and <i>e_e</i> less common
/ĭ/	<i>i, i_e, y</i>	<i>s<u>i</u>t, g<u>i</u>ve, g<u>y</u>m</i>	Most often spelled just with <i>i</i> in closed syllable Much less often spelled <i>i_e</i> , as in <i>live</i> and <i>give</i> In words of Greek origin, can be spelled <i>y</i>
/ī/	<i>i_e, i, y, igh, ie, y_e</i>	<i>m<u>i</u>ne, h<u>i</u>, fl<u>y</u>, h<u>igh</u>, t<u>ie</u>, b<u>y</u>te</i>	Most often spelled with <i>i_e</i> in a VCe syllable or just <i>i</i> at the end of an open syllable Less often spelled <i>y</i> at the end of a single-syllable word Spelled in the middle of a syllable either <i>i_e</i> or <i>igh</i> Spellings <i>ie</i> and <i>y_e</i> less common Also found in a few irregular word families, such as the <i>ind</i> family (e.g., <i>find</i> , <i>bind</i>) and <i>ild</i> family (e.g., <i>wild</i> , <i>child</i>)

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Vowel Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/ɒ/	<i>o, a, ough</i>	<i>fox, swap, thought</i>	<p>Most often spelled just with <i>o</i> in closed syllable</p> <p>Much less often spelled <i>a</i>, as in <i>swamp</i> or <i>want</i> (often this spelling occurs after <i>w</i> because the /w/ sound affects the sound of <i>a</i>)</p> <p>Very rarely spelled <i>ough</i> (as in <i>bought</i>)</p>
/ō/	<i>o, o_e, oa, ow, oe, ough</i>	<i>potato, hope, soap, bow, oboe, though</i>	<p>Most often spelled with <i>o</i> at the end of an open syllable (like in <i>go</i>)</p> <p>Spelled in the middle of a syllable with <i>o_e</i> or <i>oa</i></p> <p>Spelled at the end of a syllable with <i>ow</i> (or much less often <i>oe</i>, as in <i>toe</i>)</p> <p>Long <i>o</i> also found in a few irregular word families such as the <i>old</i> family (e.g., <i>cold, bold</i>), <i>ost</i> family (e.g., <i>most, host</i>), and <i>ough</i> family (e.g., <i>though, dough</i>)</p>
/ʊ/	<i>u, o</i>	<i>hut, cover</i>	<p>Most often spelled just with <i>u</i> in closed syllable</p> <p>The accented short-<i>u</i> sound; the schwa (/ə/) is the same sound, but it is found in unaccented syllables</p>
/ū/	<i>oo, u, o, u_e, ou, ew, ue, ui</i>	<i>too, truth, who, tube, soup, chew, glue, suit</i>	<p>Very tricky to spell</p> <p>Most often spelled <i>oo</i></p> <p>Spelled just with <i>u</i> at the end of an open syllable</p> <p>Spelled in the middle of a syllable <i>u_e</i> or <i>oo</i></p> <p>Spelled at the end of a syllable <i>ew</i> or <i>ue</i></p> <p>Spelled in a word of French origin <i>ou</i> or <i>ui</i></p>
/aw/	<i>o, al, au, aw</i>	<i>lost, call, pause, flaw</i>	<p>Most often spelled <i>o</i> in a closed syllable</p> <p>Also often spelled <i>al</i> or <i>au</i> in the middle of a syllable (as in <i>walk</i> and <i>haunt</i>), unless the syllable ends with <i>n</i> or <i>l</i> (as in <i>pawn</i> or <i>bawl</i>)</p> <p>Spelled <i>aw</i> at the end of a syllable</p>
/oo/	<i>u, oo, o</i>	<i>put, took, woman</i>	<p>Most often spelled <i>u</i> in a closed syllable</p> <p>Also often spelled <i>oo</i> (e.g., the <i>ook</i> family—<i>book, look</i>, etc.)</p> <p>Much less often spelled <i>o</i></p>

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Vowel Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/yū/	u, u_e, ew	<u>u</u> nite, <u>u</u> se, <u>fe</u> w	<p>Actually two sounds but often taught as one sound</p> <p>Different from just long-u sound by itself (contrast <i>chew</i> with <i>few</i> to hear the difference)</p> <p>Most often spelled with <i>u</i> at the end of an open syllable, as in <i>unicorn</i></p> <p>Also often spelled with <i>u_e</i> in the middle of a syllable</p> <p>Much less often spelled <i>ew</i> at the end of a syllable</p>
/oi/	oi, oy	<u>oi</u> l, bo <u>y</u>	<p>Most often spelled <i>oi</i> in the middle of a syllable</p> <p>Also spelled <i>oy</i> at the end of a syllable</p>
/ou/	ou, ow	<u>ou</u> d, co <u>w</u>	<p>Most often spelled <i>ou</i> in the middle of a syllable (but if it precedes <i>l</i> or <i>n</i>, can be spelled <i>ow</i>, as in <i>fowl</i> or <i>town</i>)</p> <p>Also spelled <i>ow</i> at the end of a syllable</p>
/er/	er, or, ar, ir, ur, ear	<u>je</u> rk, <u>od</u> or, ce <u>ll</u> ar, <u>bi</u> rd, <u>bu</u> rp, <u>he</u> ard	<p>Most often spelled <i>er</i></p> <p>Less often spelled <i>or</i> or <i>ar</i></p> <p>Much less often spelled <i>ir</i>, <i>ur</i>, or <i>ear</i></p>
/ar/	ar, are	<u>ca</u> rt, <u>a</u> re	<p>Most often spelled <i>ar</i></p> <p>Much less often spelled <i>are</i></p>
/or/	or, ore	<u>sp</u> ort, <u>co</u> re	<p>Most often spelled <i>or</i></p> <p>Much less often spelled <i>ore</i></p>
/ə/	o, u, a, i, e, ou	<u>pe</u> rson, circ <u>u</u> s, <u>a</u> bout, <u>pa</u> nic, <u>e</u> lect, <u>fa</u> mous	<p>Very difficult to spell—helps to know derivations to figure out spelling in multisyllabic words</p> <p>For example, in <i>definition</i>, the first <i>i</i> makes the /ə/ sound, so it's difficult to figure out. If you know that <i>definition</i> derives from the word <i>define</i>, in which the <i>i</i> makes the long-i sound, you can figure out that you should spell the /ə/ with an <i>i</i>.</p> <p>Spellings of /ə/ used fairly evenly across words—about 10 percent to 25 percent for each spelling</p>

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Consonant Sounds

The following table lists the consonant sound spellings by frequency of use.

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Consonant Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/b/	<i>b, bb</i>	<i><u>b</u>ig, ni<u>b</u>ble</i>	<p>Almost always spelled just with <i>b</i></p> <p>Can be spelled with a double <i>b</i>, specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>bubble</i> and <i>flabby</i></p>
/k/	<i>c, k, ck, ch, que</i>	<i><u>c</u>ar, <u>k</u>it, <u>s</u>ick, <u>ch</u>emist</i>	<p>Spelled <i>c</i> before <i>a</i>, <i>o</i>, or <i>u</i></p> <p>Spelled <i>k</i> before <i>e</i>, <i>i</i>, or <i>y</i></p> <p>Spelled <i>k</i> at the end of a syllable after a long vowel or vowel team (as in <i>seek</i>, <i>book</i>, or <i>make</i>)</p> <p>Spelled <i>k</i> at the end of a syllable after a consonant (as in <i>sink</i> or <i>walk</i>)</p> <p>Spelled <i>ck</i> at the end of a syllable after a short vowel (as in <i>lock</i> or <i>peck</i>)</p> <p>Spelled <i>ch</i> in words of Greek origin (as in <i>chlorophyll</i>)</p> <p>Spelled <i>que</i> in words of French origin (as in <i>boutique</i>)</p> <p>Sounds /k/ + /w/ and /k/ + /s/ have other spellings (<i>qu</i> and <i>x</i>)</p>
/d/	<i>d, dd, -ed</i>	<i><u>d</u>og, cu<u>dd</u>le, roa<u>re</u>d</i>	<p>Almost always spelled just with <i>d</i></p> <p>Can be spelled with a double <i>d</i>, specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>fiddle</i></p> <p>Also spelled with inflectional ending <i>-ed</i> when the base word ends with a voiced sound, as in <i>flowed</i></p>

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Consonant Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/f/	f, ph, ff	<u>f</u> at, <u>ph</u> one, <u>mu</u> ffle, <u>stu</u> ff	<p>Most often spelled with just <i>f</i></p> <p>Spelled <i>ph</i> in words of Greek origin (as in <i>philosophy</i>)</p> <p>Can be spelled with a double <i>f</i>, specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>baffle</i></p> <p>Also spelled <i>ff</i> in a syllable ending with the /f/ sound—follows the FLOSS rule (as in the word <i>off</i>)</p>
/g/	g, gg	<u>g</u> ot, <u>bug</u> gy	<p>Most often spelled with just <i>g</i></p> <p>Can be spelled with a double <i>g</i>, specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>goggles</i></p> <p>See /g/ + /z/ for other spelling (x)</p>
/h/	h, wh	<u>h</u> ot, <u>wh</u> o	<p>Most often spelled with just <i>h</i></p> <p>Rarely spelled with other spellings, such as <i>wh</i> (as in <i>whose</i>)</p>
/j/	ge, j, dge, d, g(i), g(y)	<u>cage</u> , <u>jet</u> , <u>edge</u> , <u>sold</u> ier, <u>gist</u> , <u>gym</u>	<p>Most often spelled <i>ge</i>, especially with a syllable that has a long vowel and ends in /j/ (as in <i>huge</i> and <i>page</i>)</p> <p>Also often spelled <i>j</i> at the beginning of a word</p> <p>Spelled <i>dge</i> at the end of a syllable with a short-vowel sound (as in <i>judge</i> and <i>ridge</i>)</p> <p>Much less often spelled <i>d</i> (usually when it precedes the /y/ sound), <i>gi</i>, or <i>gy</i></p> <p>No English words end with <i>j</i></p>
/l/	l, ll	<u>li</u> d, <u>fa</u> ll	<p>Most often spelled with just <i>l</i></p> <p>Also spelled with <i>ll</i> in a syllable ending with the /l/ sound—follows the FLOSS rule (as in <i>will</i>)</p>

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Consonant Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/m/	m, mm, mb	<u>h</u> um, cl <u>am</u> my, cl <u>im</u> b	Most often spelled with just <i>m</i> Can be spelled with a double <i>m</i> , specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>humming</i> Rarely with another spelling, such as <i>mb</i> (as in <i>plumber</i>)
/n/	n, kn, nn	<u>n</u> o, <u>k</u> nee, fu <u>nn</u> y	Most often spelled with just <i>n</i> In a few Anglo-Saxon words, spelled with <i>kn</i> Can be spelled with a double <i>n</i> , specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>tunnel</i>
/p/	p, pp	<u>p</u> ot, <u>top</u> ple	Almost always spelled just with <i>p</i> Can be spelled with a double <i>p</i> , specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>sappy</i>
/k/ +/w/	qu	<u>q</u> uick	<i>qu</i> represents two sounds, /k/ and /w/ When heard together in a word, most often spelled with <i>qu</i>
/r/	r, wr	<u>r</u> un, <u>w</u> rite	Almost always spelled just with <i>r</i> In a few Anglo-Saxon words, spelled with <i>wr</i>
/s/	s, c(e), c(i), c(y), ss	<u>s</u> eal, <u>r</u> ice, <u>c</u> ite, <u>c</u> yst, me <u>ss</u>	Usually spelled just with <i>s</i> Can be spelled with a <i>c</i> before <i>e</i> , <i>i</i> , or <i>y</i> Also spelled with <i>ss</i> in a syllable ending with the /s/ sound—follows the FLOSS rule (as in <i>pass</i>)
/t/	t, tt, -ed	<u>t</u> op, <u>litt</u> le, gas <u>pe</u> d	Almost always spelled just with <i>t</i> Can be spelled with a double <i>t</i> , specifically in a multisyllabic word to keep a vowel short in a closed syllable, as in <i>potty</i> Also spelled with inflectional ending <i>-ed</i> when the base word ends with an unvoiced sound, as in <i>walked</i>

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Consonant Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/v/	v, ve	<u>v</u> ery, ha <u>v</u> e	Almost always spelled just with v At the end of a word ending with the /v/ sound, has a silent e (as in <i>love</i> , <i>leave</i> , etc.) No English words end with v
/w/	w, u	<u>w</u> ork, pen <u>u</u> in, persu <u>a</u> de	Almost always spelled just with w Spelled with u in <i>qu</i> (see /k/ + /w/ above) and after g (as in <i>language</i>), and s (as in <i>suede</i>)
/k/ + /s/ /g/ + /z/	x	ex <u>er</u> cise, ex <u>a</u> ct	x the only consonant that can represent two sounds in a word After an accented syllable, represents the sounds /k/ + /s/ (<i>box</i>) Before an accented syllable, represents the sounds /g/ + /z/ (<i>exist</i>)
/y/	i, y	on <u>i</u> on, <u>y</u> es	/y/ sound almost evenly represented by i (55 percent) and y (44 percent)
/z/	s, z, es, x, zz	was <u>s</u> , <u>z</u> ero, fl <u>i</u> es, xylo <u>ph</u> one, bu <u>zz</u>	Most often spelled with s (especially in Anglo-Saxon words, such as <i>his</i> , <i>is</i> , <i>has</i>) Spelled with inflectional ending -s when the base word ends with a voiced sound, as in <i>flows</i> Spelled with inflectional ending -es (as in <i>foxes</i>) Spelled x in words of Greek origin (as in <i>xenophobia</i>) Also spelled with zz in a syllable ending with the /z/ sound—follows the FLOSS rule (as in the word <i>jazz</i>)
/th/	th	<u>th</u> ank	Unvoiced /th/ always spelled <i>th</i>
/ <u>th</u> /	th	<u>th</u> is	Voiced / <u>th</u> / always spelled <i>th</i>

Phoneme-Grapheme Connections: Consonant Sounds			
Sound	Spelling(s)	Examples	Information and Rules
/sh/	ti, sh, ci, ss, ch	ac <u>ti</u> on, <u>sh</u> ed, spe <u>ci</u> al, pass <u>i</u> on, ass <u>u</u> re, <u>ch</u> ef	More than half of /sh/ sounds spelled <i>ti</i> , as in the syllable <i>tion</i> 26 percent spelled <i>sh</i> The rest divided across several other spellings— <i>ci</i> , <i>ss</i> , <i>si</i> , <i>sc</i> , <i>s</i> , <i>ch</i> Spelled <i>ch</i> in words of French origin (as in <i>chagrin</i>)
/zh/	si, s, ge, z	vi <u>s</u> ion, mea <u>s</u> ure, gar <u>ag</u> e, seiz <u>u</u> re	Half of /zh/ sounds spelled <i>si</i> , as in suffix <i>-sion</i> Another third spelled <i>s</i> , as in suffix <i>-sure</i> Spelled <i>ge</i> in words of French origin (as in <i>rouge</i>) Less often spelled <i>z</i> , as in suffix <i>-zure</i>
/ch/	ch, t, tch	<u>ch</u> air, advent <u>u</u> re, wat <u>ch</u>	More than half of /ch/ sounds spelled <i>ch</i> , including at the end of a syllable following vowel team or consonant (as in <i>each</i> or <i>bench</i> ; exceptions include <i>such</i> and <i>which</i>) Another third spelled <i>t</i> , as in suffix <i>-ture</i> Spelled <i>tch</i> at the end of syllable following short vowel (as in <i>witch</i>)
/wh/	wh	<u>wh</u> ite	Unvoiced /wh/ always spelled <i>wh</i> Sound almost lost in American English due to most dialects pronouncing this spelling as /w/
/ng/	ng, n	si <u>ng</u> , mon <u>key</u> , Eng <u>lish</u>	Spelled <i>ng</i> at the end of syllable Spelled <i>n</i> when before /k/ or /g/ (as in <i>sink</i> or <i>language</i>)

Letter Patterns and Morphemes

The following table lists complex orthographic patterns and morphemes (meaning units).

Letter Patterns and Morphemes	
Rule or Topic	Explanation and Examples
No words end with <i>j</i> or <i>v</i> .	If a word ends in /j/, spell it with <i>ge</i> (following long vowel) or <i>dge</i> (following short vowel). If a word ends in /v/, put a silent <i>e</i> after the <i>v</i> (as in <i>dove</i> and <i>live</i>).
Add extra letters (consonants) after short vowels.	This is why we use spellings such as <i>ck</i> , <i>dge</i> , <i>tch</i> , and <i>x</i> (which stands for two consonant sounds) after short vowels. It's also why we double consonants when adding endings (as in <i>mopping</i> and <i>rubbed</i>).
The letter <i>e</i> has a lot of jobs.	Used to make short- <i>e</i> sound in closed syllables Used to make long- <i>e</i> sound in open syllables Used to make long- <i>e</i> sound in vowel teams such as <i>ee</i> and <i>ea</i> Used to mark long vowels in VCe words (as in <i>lake</i> and <i>note</i>) Used to mark the soft- <i>c</i> and soft- <i>g</i> sounds (as in <i>cease</i> and <i>page</i>) Keeps words from ending in <i>v</i> (as in <i>have</i> and <i>believe</i>) Keeps words from looking plural (as in <i>horse</i> , <i>house</i> , and <i>please</i>) Used to mark the voiced / <u>th</u> / in verbs (as in <i>breathe</i> and <i>teethe</i>)
Soft <i>c</i> and soft <i>g</i> follow specific rules.	French in origin <i>c</i> makes /s/ sound when followed by <i>e</i> , <i>i</i> , or <i>y</i> <i>g</i> makes /j/ sound when followed by <i>e</i> , <i>i</i> , or <i>y</i>
The letter <i>u</i> acts as interloper.	We put a silent <i>u</i> after <i>g</i> to keep it from changing to the soft sound /j/ (as in <i>guest</i> and <i>guide</i>).
Some word families don't follow the rule of closed syllables and short vowels.	Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>find</i>, <i>bind</i>, <i>kind</i>, <i>rind</i>, <i>hind</i>, <i>mind</i> <i>most</i>, <i>ghost</i>, <i>post</i>, <i>provost</i> <i>wild</i>, <i>mild</i>, <i>child</i> <i>old</i>, <i>cold</i>, <i>sold</i>, <i>told</i>, <i>mold</i>

Letter Patterns and Morphemes	
Rule or Topic	Explanation and Examples
Six syllable types	<p>Closed syllable: Vowel closed off by consonant to make it short (<i>music</i>)</p> <p>VCe: Silent-<i>e</i> makes vowel say long sound (<i>like</i>)</p> <p>Open syllable: Vowel not closed off by a consonant, so it is long (<i>music</i>)</p> <p>Vowel team: Includes those that spell long-vowel sounds (<i>meet</i>), short-vowel sounds (<i>bread</i>), and diphthongs (<i>cow</i>)</p> <p>Vowel-<i>r</i>: Includes those with one vowel (<i>car</i>) or two vowels (<i>heart</i>)</p> <p>Stable final syllable: <i>Cle</i>—final syllable with a consonant followed by <i>le</i>, such as in <i>little</i> (other examples include <i>tion</i> and <i>ture</i>, as in <i>station</i> and <i>adventure</i>)</p>
Syllable division, VC-CV: Two consonants between two vowels	When syllables have two adjacent consonants between them, divide between the consonants. The first syllable is closed (with short-vowel sound), as in <i>mid-dle</i> and <i>tem-per</i> .
Syllable division, V-CV and VC-V: One consonant between two vowels	<p>First try dividing before the consonant, which makes the first syllable open (with a long-vowel sound). This method works 66 percent to 75 percent of the time (e.g., <i>e-ven</i>).</p> <p>If you don't recognize the word, divide after the consonant, which makes the first syllable closed (with a short-vowel sound). This method works 25 percent to 33 percent of the time (e.g., <i>ev-er</i>).</p>
Syllable division: Consonant blends and digraphs	Consonant blends and digraphs stick together. Do not separate them, as in <i>crust-y</i> and <i>moth-er</i> .
Accenting	<p>Accent first word of an Anglo-Saxon compounds (<i><u>cat</u>fish</i>).</p> <p>Accent root word in a Latin-based words (<i>instr<u>uct</u>ion</i>).</p> <p>Accent syllable before <i>tion</i> (<i>prod<u>uct</u>ion</i>).</p> <p>Accent first syllable to make a noun and accent second syllable to make a verb (<i><u>pre</u>sent</i> vs. <i>pre<u>sent</u></i>).</p>

Letter Patterns and Morphemes	
Rule or Topic	Explanation and Examples
Adding endings: Consonant doubling	<p>When a one-syllable word with one vowel ends with one consonant, double the final consonant before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel (<i>fit</i>, <i>fittest</i>).</p> <p>Do not double if the suffix begins with a consonant (<i>ship</i>, <i>shipment</i>).</p> <p>In multisyllabic words, double the final consonant if the last syllable is accented (<i>repelled</i>). If it is not accented, do not double the consonant (<i>canceling</i>).</p>
Adding endings: Drop silent <i>e</i>	<p>When a base word ends in silent <i>e</i>, drop the <i>e</i> when adding a suffix that begins with a vowel (<i>like</i>, <i>liking</i>).</p> <p>Keep the <i>e</i> before a suffix that begins with a consonant (<i>shame</i>, <i>shameless</i>).</p>
Adding endings: Change <i>y</i> to <i>i</i>	<p>When a base word ends in <i>y</i> preceded by a consonant, change the <i>y</i> to <i>i</i> before a suffix (except <i>-ing</i>; <i>ruby</i>, <i>rubies</i>).</p> <p>If a base word ends in <i>y</i> preceded by a vowel (e.g., <i>ay</i>), just add the suffix (<i>pray</i>, <i>praying</i>).</p> <p>Note that <i>y</i> changes to <i>i</i> even if the suffix begins with a consonant (<i>busy</i>, <i>business</i>).</p>
Inflectional endings	Anglo-Saxon in origin and do not change a word's part of speech (e.g., <i>-s</i> , <i>-es</i> , <i>-ed</i> , <i>-ing</i> , <i>-er</i> , <i>-est</i>)
Three sounds of <i>-ed</i>	<p>Makes the /əd/ sound when base word ends in <i>d</i> or <i>t</i> (<i>beaded</i> or <i>panted</i>)</p> <p>Makes the /d/ sound when base word ends in voiced sound (<i>canned</i>)</p> <p>Makes the /t/ sound when base word ends in unvoiced sound (<i>fixed</i>)</p>
Three sounds of plural (<i>-s</i> or <i>-es</i>)	<p>Makes the /z/ sound when base word ends in voiced sound (<i>moves</i>)</p> <p>Makes the /s/ sound when base word ends in unvoiced sound (<i>sticks</i>)</p> <p>Add <i>-es</i> and make the /əz/ sound when based word ends with /s/, /z/, /j/, /ch/, /sh/, or /zh/ (<i>kisses</i>, <i>buzzes</i>, <i>edges</i>, <i>witches</i>, <i>hushes</i>, <i>garages</i>)</p>
Derivational prefixes and suffixes	<p>Prefix: Often Latin in origin and changes a word's meaning (<i>benevolent</i>, <i>malevolent</i>)</p> <p>Suffix: Often Latin in origin and can change a word's meaning (<i>hopeful</i>, <i>hopeless</i>) and/or part of speech (<i>nature</i>, <i>natural</i>, <i>naturalize</i>, <i>naturalistic</i>)</p>

Morphemes

Most Common Prefixes	Most Common Suffixes	Most Common Latin and Greek Roots (found in more than 100,000 multisyllabic words)	
<i>un-</i>	<i>-s</i>	<i>duct</i>	<i>ten</i>
<i>re-</i>	<i>-es</i>	<i>fic</i>	<i>tain</i>
<i>dis-</i>	<i>-ed</i>	<i>fer</i>	<i>tim</i>
<i>in-</i>	<i>-ing</i>	<i>tent</i>	<i>sist</i>
<i>mis-</i>	<i>-er</i>	<i>tend</i>	<i>sta</i>
<i>fore-</i>	<i>-or</i>	<i>tens</i>	<i>stat</i>
<i>de-</i>	<i>-hood</i>	<i>mit</i>	<i>stit</i>
<i>pre-</i>	<i>-ion</i>	<i>miss</i>	<i>pon</i>
<i>a-</i>	<i>-ship</i>	<i>cap</i>	<i>pose</i>
	<i>-y</i>	<i>ceit</i>	<i>pound</i>
	<i>-ible</i>	<i>ceive</i>	<i>plic</i>
	<i>-able</i>	<i>cep</i>	<i>ply</i>
		<i>cept</i>	<i>graph</i>
		<i>cip</i>	<i>ology</i>

Adapted from Ebbers, 2011; Henry, 2010; Moats, 2009; Venezky, 1999.

Ejemplos de reglas ortográficas para el español

This handout presents a sample of the orthographic rules for the Spanish language.

Reglas básicas para la letra B	
Reglas	Ejemplos
Se escribe <i>b</i> después de <i>m</i>	<i>tambor, septiembre, mambo, cambio</i>
Las sílabas que empiezan con <i>br</i> y <i>bl</i> se escriben con <i>b</i> :	<i>brazo, sobre, blusa, pueblo, sombrero</i>
Se escriben con <i>b</i> los verbos terminados en <i>bir</i> (excepción <i>vivir, hervir, servir</i> y sus compuestos)	<i>escribir, recibir, subir, percibir, prohibir</i>
Se escriben con <i>b</i> las palabras con los siguiente sufijos y prefijos <i>bio, biblio, sub, bilidad, bundo/a, bi, bis, y biz</i>	bio: <i>microbio, biología, biomecánico</i> biblio: <i>biblioteca, bibliografía</i> sub: <i>subterránea, subsistir</i> bilidad: <i>habilidad, amabilidad</i> bundo/a: <i>vagabundo, moribundo</i> bi, bis, biz: <i>bimotor, bisabuelo, bizcocho</i>

Reglas básicas para la letra V	
Reglas	Ejemplos
Se escribe <i>v</i> después de las letras <i>d</i> y <i>n</i>	<i>adviento, envidia, invento</i>
Se escriben con <i>v</i> los adjetivos terminados en <i>-ava, -avo, -eva, -eve, -evo, -iva, -ive, e -ivo</i>	<i>adictivo, octavo, reactiva</i>
Se escriben con <i>v</i> las palabras que empiezan con <i>villa</i> y <i>vice</i> (excepto <i>bíceps</i> y <i>billar</i>)	<i>villano, villancico, vicepresidente</i>
Se escriben con <i>v</i> las palabras que empiezan por <i>eva, eve, evo, y evi</i> (excepto <i>ebanista</i> y <i>ébano</i>)	<i>evento, evacuar, evitar, evolución</i>

Reglas básicas para la letra C	
Reglas	Ejemplos
Se escriben con <i>c</i> las terminaciones <i>-cito</i> , <i>-cita</i> , <i>-cillo</i> , <i>-cilla</i> , <i>-cecillo</i>	<i>pedacito</i> , <i>nochecita</i> , <i>manecilla</i> , <i>pececillo</i> , <i>lucécilla</i>
Palabras que en singular terminan con <i>z</i> , el plural se escribe con <i>c</i>	<i>pez-peces</i> , <i>luz-luces</i> , <i>lápiz-lápices</i>
Se escriben con <i>c</i> los verbos que terminen en <i>-cer</i> , <i>-ceder</i> , <i>-cir</i> , <i>-cendir</i> , <i>-cibir</i> , <i>-cidir</i> (excepto <i>asir</i> y <i>coser</i>)	<i>cocer</i> , <i>conceder</i> , <i>decir</i> , <i>recibir</i>

Reglas básicas para la letra G	
Reglas	Ejemplos
Se escribe con <i>g</i> el prefijo <i>geo</i>	<i>geografía</i> , <i>geometría</i>
Se escriben con <i>g</i> las conjugaciones de los verbos que terminan en <i>ger</i> , <i>gir</i> (excepto <i>tejer</i> y <i>crujir</i>)	<i>recoger</i> – <i>recogí</i> , <i>recogieron</i> , <i>recogerás</i> <i>exagerar</i> , <i>emerger</i> , <i>proteger</i> , <i>dirigir</i>
Se escriben con <i>g</i> el conjunto de letras <i>gen</i> (excepto <i>avejentar</i> , <i>berejena</i> , <i>ajeno</i>)	<i>gente</i> , <i>imagen</i> , <i>gentil</i> , <i>general</i> , <i>agente</i>
Se escriben con <i>g</i> el conjunto de letras <i>gio</i> , <i>gia</i> , <i>gión</i> , <i>gía</i>	<i>regia</i> , <i>plagio</i> , <i>región</i> , <i>morfología</i> , <i>fonología</i> , <i>biología</i>

Reglas de acentuación en español

Las palabras en español de dos o más sílabas tienen una sílaba que es la que se pronuncia más fuerte o la que tiene una mayor intensidad al decir la palabra. Esta sílaba se llama la **sílaba tónica**. La sílaba tónica puede o no llevar un acento escrito o tilde en una de las vocales de esa sílaba, por ejemplo:

cárcel sílaba tónica: *cár*
camiseta sílaba tónica: *se*
pantalón sílaba tónica: *lón*

Para saber cuándo poner acento escrito en una sílaba tónica de una palabra, se tiene que saber en que posición se encuentra la sílaba tónica y aplicar unas simples reglas.

La sílaba tónica puede ser la **última**, la **penúltima**, o la **antepenúltima** sílaba de una palabra. Si la sílaba tónica es la última, la palabra es **aguda**. Si la sílaba tónica es la penúltima, la palabra es **grave**. Si la sílaba tónica es la antepenúltima, la palabra es **esdrújula**.

Palabra	Sílaba tónica es la antepenúltima sílaba	Sílaba tónica es la penúltima sílaba	Sílaba tónica es la última sílaba	Tipo
<i>azul</i>		<i>a</i>	<i>zul</i>	aguda
<i>camión</i>		<i>ca</i>	<i>mión</i>	aguda
<i>maceta</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ce</i>	<i>ta</i>	grave
<i>cárcel</i>		<i>cár</i>	<i>cel</i>	grave
<i>cámara</i>	<i>cá</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ra</i>	esdrújula
<i>hígado</i>	<i>hí</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>do</i>	esdrújula

Como se puede ver en los ejemplos, las palabras agudas y graves pueden llevar o no acento escrito. Las palabras esdrújulas siempre llevan acento escrito. Las siguientes reglas nos ayudan a saber cuando una palabra aguda o grave lleva acento escrito.

Palabras agudas

En una palabra aguda, la sílaba tónica es la última. Una palabra aguda lleva acento escrito si termina en vocal, *n* o *s*.

Sin acento escrito	Con acento escrito
<i>pa-pel</i>	<i>des-pués</i>
<i>na-riz</i>	<i>co-ra-zón</i>
<i>re-loj</i>	<i>in-te-rés</i>
<i>ca-li-dad</i>	<i>ca-fé</i>

Palabras graves

En una palabra grave, la sílaba tónica es la penúltima. Una palabra grave lleva acento escrito cuando **no** termina en vocal, *n* o *s*.

Sin acento escrito

a-ma-da
ca-mi-se-ta
com-pu-ta-do-ra
dul-ce

Con acento escrito

cár-cel
lá-piz
án-gel
ca-rác-ter

Excepciones: Las palabras que terminan en diptongos *-ía* o *-ío* son palabras graves que llevan acento escrito aún cuando terminan en vocal:

-ía

mí-a
bio-gra-fí-a
li-bre-rí-a

-ío

mí-o
ti-o
ca-se-rí-o

Palabras esdrújulas

En una palabra esdrújula, la sílaba tónica es la antepenúltima. Una palabra esdrújula siempre lleva acento escrito:

México
cámara
pétalo
círculo

último
mágico
símbolo
lágrima

hígado
exámenes
tarántula
sábado

rápido
látigo
máscara
cálido

Reglas de acentuación			
Sílaba tónica	Antepenúltima	Penúltima	Última
Acento escrito cuando...			Aguda La palabra termina en <i>n</i> , <i>s</i> , vocal. <i>camión</i> , <i>José</i> , <i>atún</i>
Acento escrito cuando...		Grave La palabra no termina en <i>n</i> , <i>s</i> , vocal <i>mármol</i> , <i>árbol</i>	
Acento escrito cuando...	Esdrújula Siempre lleva acento escrito <i>exámenes</i> , <i>México</i> , <i>lámpara</i>		

Pasos para decidir si una palabra lleva acento o no

1. Dividir la palabra en sílabas.

La palabra es *camioneta*: *ca – mio – ne – ta*

2. Encontrar la sílaba tónica en la palabra: ¿Es la última? ¿La penúltima? ¿La antepenúltima?

La sílaba tónica es la penúltima: *ca – mio – **ne** – ta*.

3. Decidir qué tipo de palabra es: ¿La palabra es aguda, grave, o esdrújula?

La palabra *camioneta* es grave.

4. Decidir si esta palabra lleva acento escrito o no.

Una palabra grave lleva acento cuando **no** termina en vocal, *n* o *s*. La palabra *camioneta* termina en vocal, entonces esta palabra no lleva acento escrito.

Decidir si una palabra lleva acento o no – ejemplo			
Pasos	Palabra		
1. Dividir la palabra en sílabas.	la – pi – ces		
2. Encontrar la sílaba tónica en la palabra.	<div style="text-align: center;"> la – pi – ces </div>		
3. Decidir qué tipo de palabra es.	<div style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 15px; padding: 2px; display: inline-block;">antepenúltima</div>	penúltima	última
4. Decidir si esta palabra lleva acento escrito o no.	<div style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 15px; padding: 2px; display: inline-block;">esdrújula</div>	grave	aguda

Una versión en blanco para usarse en clase:

Decidir si una palabra lleva acento o no			
Pasos	Palabra		
1. Dividir la palabra en sílabas.			
2. Encontrar la sílaba tónica en la palabra.			
3. Decidir qué tipo de palabra es.	antepenúltima	penúltima	última
4. Decidir si esta palabra lleva acento escrito o no.	esdrújula	grave	aguda

Pautas para la instrucción

Los estudiantes deben saber cómo dividir una palabra en sílabas y cómo identificar la sílaba tónica. Los estudiantes de 3er, 4to, y 5to año deberán practicar mucho la separación de palabras en sílabas y la identificación de la sílaba tónica.

Una vez que estas dos habilidades han sido desarrolladas, los estudiantes deberán aprender y aplicar las reglas de acentuación. Apoye este aprendizaje al hacer un póster con las reglas que los estudiantes puedan ver y utilizar.

Examples of Word Sorts

Word sorts are activities that provide students opportunities to examine words and categorize them by spelling patterns and/or sounds.

Closed Sorts

Choose the categories and model the sorting procedure.

Example: Present the three categories, read the three words, and place them in the correct column. Then ask students to sort the remaining words.

spec/spect	stru/struct	sect
inspect	structure	section

Other words: *spectacles, spectator, spectacle, instruction, construct, destruct, insect, intersect, sector.*

You may build in the category without actually giving students a category name and let them discover the orthographic or morphological patterns.

For example, students work on open versus closed syllables. Have students notice the pattern of having a single consonant after an open syllable versus two consonants after a closed syllable by using a word sort. The words to be sorted might include *music, title, little, even, total, puzzle, simple, pattern, final, and pencil.*

Open Sorts

Students organize sets of words into categories based on what they notice about the words.

Open sorts are most effective after students have had many opportunities with closed sorts and understand the concept of sorting.

Observe the categories individual students create. This information may provide you with valuable information about a student's understanding of the orthography and morphology of the English language.

Word sorts can be designed to focus on a single new concept or can be used for a review with mixed concepts. For example, if students know the prefixes *in-* and *re-*, you can create a sort containing words with those prefixes plus the new suffixes *-ion* and *-able*.

As students begin to understand the complexities of syllables and morphemes, they may be asked to do two-step word sorts. First, they sort by syllables and then for morphemes.

For example, in step one, students sort by syllable.

<u>Open first syllable</u>	<u>Closed first syllable</u>
prehistoric	undone
provide	incredible
preview	contrast
reconnect	unbelievable
protect	compare
remake	incapable

In step two, students sort for meaning.

<u>pre-</u>	<u>re-</u>	<u>pro-</u>	<u>un-</u>	<u>in-</u>	<u>com-</u>
prehistoric	remake	provide	undone	incredible	compare
preview	reconnect	protect	unbelievable	incapable	contrast

Word sorts can be adjusted for students identified with or at risk for dyslexia or other reading difficulties by choosing known words, keeping the sorts focused on a single new category, and providing more modeling.

Word Hunts

These are helpful extensions to word sorts that allow students to find other words in their reading that contain the same spelling patterns and sounds.

Encourage students to identify exceptions, which may lead to understanding that exceptions may have commonalities.

For example *believe*, *conceive*, and *protective* are exceptions to the VCe pattern but have a common *v* that creates a new common spelling pattern (putting a silent *e* at the end of a word to keep it from ending with a *v*).

Adapted from Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2012; Ganske, 2000.

Examples of Word Sorts in Spanish

Word sorts are activities that provide students opportunities to examine words and categorize them by spelling patterns and/or sounds.

Closed Sorts

Choose the categories and model the sorting procedure.

Example: Present the three categories, read the three words, and place them in the correct column. Then ask students to sort the remaining words. In Spanish, students can sort by the different combinations in which the letter g can be present.

<u>gue</u>	<u>gui</u>	<u>ge</u>	<u>gi</u>
guerra	guisante	geranio	gitano
ceguera	guitarra	general	gigante

Other words: *lánguido, guerrero, gente, legislatura*.

You may build the category without actually giving students a category name and let them discover the common spelling patterns or sounds. For example, write 10 words with the suffix *-ción* and let students identify the name for that category: Palabras con *-ción*.

Students can sort by prefixes or suffixes:

<u>-ísimo/a</u>	<u>trans-</u>	<u>bi-</u>	<u>-ito/a</u>
bellísimo	transporte	bimestral	cafecito
carísimo	transbordar	bisilábico	casita
hermosísimo	translúcido	bipolar	pollito

As students begin to recognize specific spelling patterns, they may be asked to do two-step word sorts.

For example, in step one, students sort for initial sound.

<u>g suave /j/</u>	<u>g fuerte /g/</u>
gemelo	golpe
gigante	gusano
gelatina	guerra
girasol	gansa
genio	guisante

In step two, students sort for initial syllable.

<u>gi</u>	<u>ge</u>	<u>gui</u>	<u>gue</u>
gigante	gemelo	guisante	guerra
girasol	genio		
	gelatina		

Adapted from Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2012; Ganske, 2000.

Sample Word Sorts

Sort these words by the sound that *c* makes.

boycott	science	cyst
custom	graceful	incapable
century	helicopter	cinnamon
scarcity	infancy	scuba

- When does *c* make the /k/ sound?
- When does *c* make the /s/ sound?

Sort the following words by the sound(s) that *-ed* makes.

packed	roared	panted
crooked	handed	walked
hissed	hushed	crawled
bombed	punched	herded
moaned	pasted	grunted

- Why does *-ed* make different sounds at the end of different past-tense verbs?
- There is one exception to the rule. Identify and explain this exception.

My Word Sort

Orthographic or morphological knowledge to be taught or practiced:

Words to use:

Questions to ask students about categories:

Adapted from Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2012; Moats, 2009b.

Sample Dictation Routine

Word Dictation

Teacher: Pencils down. Eyes on me. Please draw two lines on your paper. We will write a word on each of these lines. The first word is *student*. What word?

Students: *Student*.

Teacher: Think about the sounds you hear in the word *student*. Listen as I model the process for you. *Student:* /s/ /t/ /ū/ /d/ /ě/ /n/ /t/. There are seven sounds in the word *student*. The first sound is /s/. We have learned that /s/ can be spelled s, ce, or ci. I know that in *student*, the /s/ sound comes at the beginning of the word and has a consonant right after it, so it must be spelled with an s.

Model writing the “s” on the first line.

Teacher: Write the letter s on the first line of your paper. The next sound is /t/. The letter that makes the /t/ sound is t.

Model writing the “t” next to the “s.”

Teacher: Write the letter t. The next sound is /ū/. This sound has several spellings. In this word, the sound is heard at the end of the first syllable, which is an open syllable, so it is spelled with the letter u.

Model writing the “u.”

Teacher: Write the letter u. The next sound is /d/. The letter that makes the /d/ sound is d.

Model writing the “d.”

Teacher: Write the letter d. The next sound is /ě/. The letter that makes the /ě/ sound is e.

Model writing the “e.”

Teacher: Write the letter e. The next sound is /n/. There is more than one spelling for /n/, but I know this sound is most often spelled with the letter n. So the letter that makes the /n/ sound in the word *student* is n.

Model writing the “n.”

Teacher: Write the letter n. The next sound is /t/. The letter that makes the /t/ sound is t.

Model writing the “t” as the final letter of the word on the first line.

Teacher: Write the letter t. The second word is *support*. Think about the sounds you hear in the word *support*.

Provide three to five seconds of think time.

Teacher: Now, write the word *support* on the second line.

Allow time for students to write the word. Provide scaffolds as needed. Check the spelling of the word by identifying the spelling of each sound. Have students put a dot above each spelling they got correct. Have students circle incorrect spellings and rewrite the entire word.

Sentence Dictation

Teacher: Listen as I say the first sentence: The student asked for support from the instructor. Repeat the sentence.

Students: The student asked for support from the instructor.

Teacher: Count the number of words in the sentence. How many are there?

Students: Eight words.

Teacher: Yes, eight words. Write the first word, *the*. That's an easy one. Think about the next word, *student*.

Students may think about the syllables or phonemes in the word or may know the word as a whole, depending on their level.

Teacher: Write the word *student* on your paper. Think about the next word: *asked*. How will you spell the /t/ at the end? Remember, *asked* is past tense. The next word is a high-frequency word, *for*. Write *for*. Think about the next word, *support*. The *u* is short, so how many *p*'s will you need? The next word is *from*. Write *from*. The next word is *the*. Write *the*. The last word is *instructor*. Remember, it's Latin-based and has a prefix, root, and suffix.

Continue this procedure for the remainder of the predetermined sentences.

Allow time for students to write the sentences. Check the spelling of each word in the sentences. Have students put a dot above each spelling they got correct. Have students circle incorrect spellings and rewrite the entire word.

Guidelines for Teaching Word Study and Spelling

All students benefit from some systematic word study and spelling instruction and practice.

Students who experience difficulty in spelling need intensive instruction and practice tailored to their individual levels of word knowledge.

The following are several guidelines for spelling instruction.

1. Review previously taught material.

2. Consider students' knowledge and skills; use words that students can read.

Select words and patterns from spelling inventories, the basal reading series, and student writing.

Include words from the content area curriculum.

Determine the number of words to introduce based on students' needs.

Modify spelling lists for students who are identified with or at risk for dyslexia or who have spelling difficulties.

Introduce orthographic patterns and morphemes for spelling after they have been introduced and taught in reading.

3. Introduce frequently used and regular word patterns first.

4. Limit the number of new words or patterns in one lesson.

Expect that students may need to read words many times before they are able to spell them.

5. Provide extended practice for newly learned words or word patterns before other patterns are introduced.

Dictate words or sentences and have students write them.

Provide ample practice for students who are having difficulty with spelling to help them remember orthographic patterns and morphemes.

If handwriting is difficult, encourage students to use keyboards or grapheme tiles to spell words.

Use word banks to provide an excellent review of previously taught words for students to refer to as they write.

Consider using mnemonics that the students develop. Mnemonics may help some students recall words by providing association links, such as "there's an *ear* in *hear*."

6. Teach students to check and monitor their spelling.

Ask students to read words after they have spelled them.

Expect students to spell previously taught words correctly.

7. Provide multiple opportunities for students to make connections between words, their spellings, sounds, meanings, and syntax.

Use techniques that encourage students to focus on the phonemic elements of words. For example, students can repeat the word and then say the sounds as they write the corresponding letters.

For struggling students, enhance their discrimination and recognition of the positions of individual phonemes in words by

- segmenting the sounds in words as students spell the sounds,
- counting syllables,
- omitting syllables, or
- changing the sounds in words.

Provide opportunities for students to analyze and sort words into categories. These opportunities will help students focus on the spelling and letter patterns in words.

Encourage students to use their decoding skills as they read words during word sorts.

8. Provide immediate and appropriate feedback to reinforce correct spelling of newly learned spelling patterns.**9. Extend students' knowledge of words by encouraging them to look for more words that follow particular spelling patterns or generalizations.**

After word sorts, extend students' knowledge of words by encouraging students to look for more words that follow particular spelling patterns or generalizations.

Have students work individually, in pairs, or in small groups.

Encourage students to record their words in notebooks or on word bank cards.

Adapted from Bear et al., 2012; Bear & Templeton, 1998; Carreker, 2005b; Moats, 1995; Templeton, 1996; Torgesen & Davis, 1996; Treiman, 1998.

Decoding By Analogy

As students become more proficient readers, they begin to process letters in larger chunks called spelling patterns. Spelling patterns are letter sequences that frequently occur in a certain position in words.

Spelling patterns are also known as phonograms or rimes. The initial consonant(s) of a one-syllable word is the onset. The spelling pattern that follows is the rime. For example, in the word *street* the onset is *str* and the rime is *eet*.

Students blend initial phonemes with common vowel spelling patterns to read words.

Words that contain the same spelling pattern form word families. Here are a few examples:

- *beet, feet, meet, sheet, greet, sleet, street*
- *bay, day, hay, lay, may, pay, ray, say, way, stay, tray, gray, play, stray, spray*
- *boast, coast, roast, toast*
- *able, cable, fable, gable, sable, table, stable*
- *down, gown, town, frown, drown, clown, brown*

When students decode words by using word families or spelling patterns from the words they know, they are using a strategy called decoding by analogy. Using many examples of one word family enhances students' memory for specific spelling patterns. Research has shown that students can effectively use the decoding by analogy strategy after they know some letter-sound correspondences and can decode regular words.

Students can use the analogy strategy by asking the following questions:

- "What words do I know that look or sound the same?"
- "What words do I know that end (or begin) with the same letters or sounds?"

Adapted from Gaskins, Ehri, Cress, O'Hara, & Donnelly, 1996–1997.

Six Syllable Types

Syllable Types	Examples	
Closed syllables end in at least one consonant; the vowel is short.	<i>splen-did</i> <i>gos-sip</i> <i>mag-net</i>	<i>in-deed</i> <i>rab-bit</i> <i>mon-ster</i>
Open syllables end in one vowel; the vowel is usually long.	<i>no-tion</i> <i>se-quel</i> <i>ba-by</i>	<i>la-zy</i> <i>ba-con</i> <i>i-tem</i>
Vowel-consonant-<i>e</i> syllables end in one vowel, one consonant, and a final <i>e</i> . The final <i>e</i> is silent, and the vowel is long.	<i>dic-tate</i> <i>stam-pede</i> <i>lone-ly</i>	<i>in-vite</i> <i>pro-file</i> <i>wish-bone</i>
Vowel-<i>r</i> syllables (<i>r</i>-controlled vowel syllables) have an <i>r</i> after the vowel; the vowel makes an unexpected sound. Vowels followed by <i>r</i> do not make their common short or long sounds.	<i>bom-bard</i> <i>vir-tue</i> <i>tur-nip</i>	<i>per-fect</i> <i>cor-ner</i> <i>car-pool</i>
Vowel digraphs and diphthongs have two adjacent vowels. Vowel pairs are also known as vowel combinations or teams.	<i>sail-boat</i> <i>boy-hood</i> <i>treat-ment</i>	<i>six-teen</i> <i>oat-meal</i> <i>moon-struck</i>
Final stable syllables have a consonant followed by <i>le</i> or a nonphonetic but reliable unit, such as <i>tion</i> and <i>ture</i> . Final stable syllables have unexpected but reliable pronunciations.	<i>puz-zle</i> <i>can-dle</i> <i>sta-tion</i>	<i>con-trac-tion</i> <i>ad-ven-ture</i> <i>fea-ture</i>

Adapted from University of Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts, 2003.

Six Syllable Types: Activities

In the chart below, list the six syllable types and examples of words with each syllable type. The vowel sound(s) within each syllable type are provided.

Syllable Type	Vowel Sound(s)	Examples
	Short	
	Long	
	Long	
	Long, short, and other, including diphthongs (/oi/ and /ow/)	
	/er/, /ar/, /or/	
	Usually schwa	

Use what you just learned about the syllable types to sort these words into open and closed syllables based on their **first** syllable.

paper	bottle	puzzle
funnel	river	maple
temper	even	total
wiggle	title	music

Teaching the Six Syllable Types

General Procedures

Begin with closed-syllable words.

Sequentially introduce the other five types of syllables.

Closed Syllable

Write four or five closed-syllable words on the board (use one-syllable words). Determine with students how many vowels are in each word (one).

Ask students how each word ends (with a consonant).

Read the words. Ask students how the vowels are pronounced (short-vowel sound).

Define *closed syllable*.

Use the cloze procedure: “A closed syllable ends in at least one _____. The vowel is _____.”

Explain distorted vowel sounds, such as the schwa sound of vowels in unaccented closed syllables before the letters *m*, *n*, or *l*, and the nasal sounds of vowels before /m/, /n/, or /ng/.

Open Syllable

Write four or five open-syllable words on the board (use one-syllable words). Determine with students how many vowels are in each word (one).

Ask students how each word ends (with a vowel).

Compare words to previously taught closed syllables and discuss differences.

Read the words. Ask students how the vowels are pronounced (long-vowel sound).

Define *open syllable*.

Use the cloze procedure.

Vowel-Consonant-e

Write four or five vowel-consonant-*e* words on the board. Determine with students how many vowels are in each word (two).

Ask students how each word ends (with an *e*).

Ask what comes between the vowel and the final *e* (one consonant).

Read the words. Ask students what happens to the final *e* (silent).

Ask students how the vowels are pronounced (long sound).

Define *vowel-consonant-e syllable*.

Use the cloze procedure.

Vowel-r (r-Controlled) Syllable

Write four or five one-syllable vowel-r words on the board. Determine with students how many vowels are in each word (one).

Ask students how each word ends (with at least one consonant).

Review the closed syllable.

Read the words and explain that these words do not have a short sound.

Explain that vowels do not make their common long or short sound when they are followed by *r*.

Define *vowel-r syllable*.

Use the cloze procedure.

Vowel-Team Syllable (Vowel Digraph/Diphthong)

Write four or five one-syllable vowel-team words on the board. Determine with students how many vowels are in each word (two).

Ask students how each word ends (with at least one consonant).

Compare vowel-team syllables to closed and open syllables and discuss differences.

Read the words. Explicitly teach each sound.

Define *vowel-team syllable*.

Use the cloze procedure.

Final Stable Syllable

Write four or five two-syllable consonant-*le* words on the board. Ask students what is the same in all the words (all end in a consonant followed by *le*).

Ask students to feel or hear how many syllables are in each word as they say it (two syllables).

Read each word and have students echo or repeat.

Explain that the pronunciations of consonant-*le* syllables are fairly stable.

Define *final stable syllable*.

Use the cloze procedure.

Adapted from Carreker, 2005a.

Common Prefixes

PREFIX	% of All Prefixed Words	MEANING	EXAMPLES
Un-	26	Not, opposite of	unaware, unbelievable, unsure
Re-	14	Again	redo, replay
Im-, in-, il-, ir-	11	Not	impossible, incapable, illogical, irregular
Dis-	7	Not, opposite of	dishonest, disgraceful, discover
En-, em-	4	Cause to	enable, emblaze
Non-	4	Not	nonstick, nonfiction, nonexistent
In-, im-	3	In, into	inject
Over-	3	Too much	overtime, overeat
Mis-	3	Wrongly	misunderstand, misuse
Sub-	3	Under	subsurface, subway
Pre-	3	Before	prepay, preschool
Inter-	3	Between	international, interact
Fore-	3	Before	forethought
De-	2	Opposite of	decaffeinated, dehydrate
Trans-	2	Across	transatlantic
Super-	1	Above	superhero, supermodel
Semi-	1	Half	semiannual, semicolon
Anti-	1	Against	antiwar, antisocial
Mid-	1	Middle	midyear, midnight
Under-	1	Too little	underweight, underpaid
All others	3		

Top 20 prefixes from Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richman, B. (1971). The American heritage world frequency book. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; as cited in White, Sowell, & Yanagihara, 1989.

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Common Suffixes

SUFFIX	% OF ALL SUFFIXED WORDS	PART OF SPEECH	EXAMPLES
-s, -es	31	Plural of noun	cats, boxes
-ed	20	Past tense of verb	sailed
-ing	14	Progressive tense of verb	jumping, racing
-ly	7	Usually an adverb; sometimes an adjective	slowly, lovely
-er, -or (agent)	4	Noun (agent)	runner, professor
-ion, -tion, -ation, -ition	4	Noun	action, transition, vacation
-able, -ible	2	Adjective	lovable, incredible
-al, -ial	1	Adjective	global, logical, partial
-y	1	Adjective	funny
-ness	1	Abstract noun	kindness
-ity, -ty	1	Noun	activity
-ment	1	Noun	merriment
-ic	1	Adjective	historic
-ous, -eous, -ious	1	Adjective	hideous, spacious
-en	1	Verb	quicken, thicken
-er (comparative)	1	Adjective	bigger
-ive, -ative, -tive	1	Adjective	alternative, pensive
-ful	1	Adjective	wonderful
-less	1	Adjective	effortless
-est	1	Adjective	strongest
All others	7		

Top 20 suffixes from Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richman, B. (1971). The American heritage world frequency book. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; as cited in White, Sowell, & Yanagihara, 1989.

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Common Greek and Latin Roots

ROOT	ORIGIN	MEANING	EXAMPLES
aud	Latin	Hear	auditorium, audition, audience, audible, audiovisual
astro	Greek	Star	astronaut, astronomy, asterisk, asteroid, astrology
bio	Greek	Life	biology, biography, biochemistry
cept	Latin	Take	intercept, accept, reception
dict	Latin	Speak or tell	dictation, dictate, predict, contradict, dictator
duct	Latin	Lead	conduct, induct
geo	Greek	Earth	geography, geology, geometry, geophysics
graph	Greek	Write	autograph, biography, photograph
ject	Latin	Throw	eject, reject, projectile, inject
meter	Greek	Measure	thermometer, barometer, centimeter, diameter
min	Latin	Little or small	miniature, minimum, minimal
mit or mis	Latin	Send	mission, transmit, missile, dismiss, submit
ped	Latin	Foot	pedal, pedestal, pedestrian
phon	Greek	Sound	telephone, symphony, microphone, phonics, phoneme, phonograph
port	Latin	Carry	transport, portable, import, export, porter
rupt	Latin	Break	disrupt, erupt, rupture, interrupt, bankrupt
scrib or script	Latin	Write	scribble, scribe, inscribe, describe, prescribe
spect	Latin	See	inspect, suspect, respect, spectacle, spectator
struct	Latin	Build or form	construct, destruct, instruct, structure
tele	Greek	From afar	telephone, telegraph, teleport
tract	Latin	Pull	traction, tractor, attract, subtract, extract
vers	Latin	Turn	reverse, inverse

Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). Vocabulary handbook. Berkeley, CA: Consortium on Reading Excellence; Ebbers, S. (2005). Language links to Latin, Greek, and Anglo-Saxon: Increasing spelling, word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension through roots and affixes. Presented at The University of Texas, Austin, TX; and Stahl, S., & Kapinus, B. (2001). Word power: What every educator needs to know about teaching vocabulary. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

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Practicing Word Reading During Supported Reading Instruction

Supported reading instruction generally occurs in small groups that are designed to address specific reading needs of students.

Before Reading

Select the text that the group will read.

Select the text based on the instructional level of the students and the concepts that have been taught, such as specific orthographic patterns or morphemes.

Introduce the text to prepare students for what they will read.

Set the purpose for reading, relate the story to students' personal experiences, introduce recurring language and challenging vocabulary, and provide a brief overview of the story.

Have students predict what they think the text will be about.

Review previously taught orthographic patterns, high-frequency words, and/or irregular words by reading words or sentences that contain the concepts.

Introduce any new irregular high-frequency words, concepts, or patterns and have students practice reading words individually and in sentences.

Review word-reading strategies that have been taught and encourage students to use the strategies as they read.

During Reading

Listen to students as they read.

Use different methods for reading the text. For example, have all students "whisper-read" at the same time but at each student's own pace.

As students whisper-read (either to themselves or into a whisper phone), ask each student to read aloud a part of the text so you can listen and assess their word-reading skills and strategy use.

Have students read the text more than once. Reading a text more than once enhances fluency and comprehension, especially for students with dyslexia or other reading difficulties.

When students struggle to read words independently, prompt them to apply word-reading strategies.

Regularly monitor students' progress as they read by noting errors and reading behavior.

After Reading

Discuss texts, help students make connections, and provide prompts to enhance comprehension after everyone finishes reading.

Review effective word-reading strategies students used while reading.

Provide specific feedback that reinforces appropriate reading strategies, such as “You looked for syllables, used them to sound out the word, and then blended them to read that word!”

Follow up with literacy activities to reinforce concepts.

For example, have students generate lists of words with specific orthographic patterns or morphemes from the text.

Encourage students to use these words in activities such as word building, sorting, or writing sentences about the text.

Encourage students to reread the text several times to practice and promote fluency.

Adapted from Carreker, 2005a; Gunning, 2002.

Explicit, Systematic Instruction in Word Study and Recognition

HINTS: Strategy for Reading Multisyllabic Words
(based on morphology)

Highlight the prefix and/or suffix.

Identify the consonant and vowel sounds in the base word.

Name the base word.

Tie the parts together fast.

Say the word.

SPLIT: Strategy for Reading Multisyllabic Words
(based on the six syllable types)

See the syllable patterns.

Place a line between the syllables.

Look at each syllable.

Identify the syllable sounds.

Try to say the word.

Knowing both strategies allows readers to be flexible in how they attack longer words. Remind students of this need for flexibility.

Two Final Steps

- Try putting the stress on different syllables (remember the tricky schwa).
- Check the context by rereading the sentence to make sure your word makes sense.

Explicit, Systematic Instruction: Word Study and Recognition Checklist

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

Category	Instructional Methods and Strategies (Check All Observed)		Observed Time Amount(s)	Comments
Grouping Formats	<input type="checkbox"/> Whole group <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher-led small groups <input type="checkbox"/> Independent work	<input type="checkbox"/> Mixed-ability small groups (e.g., workstations) <input type="checkbox"/> Partners		
Explicit Instruction Components	<input type="checkbox"/> Objective identified <input type="checkbox"/> Background knowledge activated <input type="checkbox"/> Modeling (e.g., thinking aloud) <input type="checkbox"/> Consistent language <input type="checkbox"/> Scaffolding when needed <input type="checkbox"/> Examples and nonexamples (as appropriate)	<input type="checkbox"/> Instruction paced appropriately <input type="checkbox"/> Guided practice <input type="checkbox"/> Checking for understanding <input type="checkbox"/> Multiple response opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Extended practice opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Immediate feedback (corrective when needed)		
Word Study and Recognition Activities and Lessons	<input type="checkbox"/> Advanced phonemic awareness activities <input type="checkbox"/> Word building <input type="checkbox"/> Word sorts <input type="checkbox"/> Word or sentence dictation <input type="checkbox"/> Decoding words	<input type="checkbox"/> Orthographic pattern instruction or practice <input type="checkbox"/> Analogizing (e.g., word family instruction and practice) <input type="checkbox"/> Syllable-level instruction and practice <input type="checkbox"/> Morpheme-level instruction and practice <input type="checkbox"/> Word-reading strategies applied in text reading		
Materials Used	<input type="checkbox"/> Grapheme tiles or cards <input type="checkbox"/> Sound-spelling cards <input type="checkbox"/> Word wall <input type="checkbox"/> Sound wall <input type="checkbox"/> Word list(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> Word cards <input type="checkbox"/> Decodable text <input type="checkbox"/> Instructional-level text <input type="checkbox"/> Other text type: <input type="checkbox"/> Other material:		

Reading Big Words: Instructional Practices to Promote Multisyllabic Word Reading Fluency

Jessica R. Toste, PhD^{1,2}, Kelly J. Williams, EdS^{1,2}, and Philip Capin, MA^{1,2}

Abstract

Poorly developed word recognition skills are the most pervasive and debilitating source of reading challenges for students with learning disabilities (LD). With a notable decrease in word reading instruction in the upper elementary grades, struggling readers receive fewer instructional opportunities to develop proficient word reading skills, yet these students face greater amounts of texts with more complex words. Poor decoders, even those who can fluently read monosyllabic words, often have difficulty with multisyllabic words, yet the average number of syllables in words that students read increases steadily throughout their school years. As such, it is necessary to identify instructional practices that will support the continued reading development of students into the upper elementary years. This article discusses the difficulty involved in multisyllabic word reading and describes five research-based instructional practices that promote the multisyllabic word reading fluency of struggling readers, particularly those with LD.

Keywords

word reading, instruction, multisyllabic words, upper elementary

Proficient readers are simultaneously able to decode letters and sounds in words while making sense of the text that they read. The ability to decode words fluently and the ability to comprehend are mutually important to the process of reading (National Reading Panel, 2000; Pressley & Allington, 2014; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). For students with disabilities, particularly learning disabilities (LD) in the area of reading, these are often skills that come with much difficulty. Therefore, these students require explicit instruction from their teachers, partnered with continued guided practice.

According to the most recent report by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (2015), only 36% of fourth grade students were performing at or above the proficient level in reading. Deficits in phonological processing that affect decoding skills are the primary challenge for students who struggle with reading in the elementary grades (Blachman, 2013; Leach, Scarborough, & Rescorla, 2003; Shankweiler, 1999; Vellutino, Fletcher, Snowling, & Scanlon, 2004; Yuill & Oakhill, 1991). In the upper elementary grades, the instructional focus shifts from word reading (i.e., teaching students how to read, or decode, individual words) to reading for understanding. With this decrease in word reading instruction, struggling decoders receive fewer

instructional opportunities to develop proficient reading skills, yet these students face greater amounts of texts with more complex words. It is no surprise that research shows struggling readers in upper elementary grades continue to struggle in later grades and become at risk for serious academic challenges (Brasseur-Hock, Hock, Kieffer, Biancarosa, & Deshler, 2011; Francis, Shaywitz, Stuebing, Shaywitz, & Fletcher, 1996; Moats, 1999; Partanen & Siegel, 2014; Vaughn et. al., 2003). As such, it is necessary to identify instructional practices that support the continued reading development of students in the upper elementary years. This article addresses the difficulty involved in multisyllabic word reading and describes five research-based instructional practices to promote the multisyllabic word reading fluency of struggling readers. While struggling readers benefit from this type of instruction, these practices are

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Challenges and Successes of Early American Settlements

The Roanake colony's failure did not cause England to give up hope. Many people were still committed to establishing settlements, or small communities, in North America. In the early 1600s, England was far behind Spain and France in power. The English could not establish colonies just anywhere they wished. Spain already claimed South America, the West Indies, the Southwest region, and Florida. France claimed the areas around many important waterways like the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River. Much of the unclaimed land was harsh, rugged, and dangerous. The forests were thick, and natives often made it difficult for Anglo settlers to establish colonies.

Figure 1. Fifth Grade Studies Weekly Passage.

Source: Reproduced with permission from Studies Weekly (2016).

particularly effective for students with LD who have more persistent and severe reading difficulties that require targeted, intensive instruction.

The Difficulty With Big Words

As students move into upper elementary grades, there is a notable difference in the type of words they are being asked to read (Hiebert, Martin, & Menon, 2005). A student with LD who has learned the necessary skills to decode words such as *cat*, *dog*, *bench*, and *church* is now faced with words such as *competitiveness*, *advertisement*, *transportation*, and *measurement*. Poor decoders, even those who can read monosyllabic words fluently, often have difficulty with reading multisyllabic words (Duncan & Seymour, 2003; Just & Carpenter, 1987; Perfetti, 1986). These words are more complex, and struggling readers often do not have the skills necessary to read these *big words*. For example, Shefelbine and Calhoun (1991) found that advanced readers utilize morphological knowledge and accurate letter-sound associations to read unfamiliar multisyllabic words, but poor readers focus on letter units and partial syllables. Similarly, others have reported that adept readers see words in morphological parts whereas struggling readers rely on contextual clues and pictures to identify unknown words (Archer, Gleason, & Vachon, 2003; Bhattacharya & Ehri, 2004).

Difficulty with word reading is an issue for older readers as much as for beginning readers, and their chances of success are greatly affected when instruction does not address these skills. Not only does this difficulty affect their reading fluency, but it also interferes with their ability to comprehend text. Decoding instruction often ends after second grade, but the average number of syllables in words that students read increases steadily throughout their school years. The average fourth grader encounters 10,000 new words each year, and most of these words have two or more syllables (Kearns et al., 2015; Nagy & Anderson, 1984). More importantly, often these words carry the meaning of a text (Carnine & Carnine, 2004). Consider the multisyllabic words that might be difficult for struggling readers in Figure 1.

Students often skip over or unsuccessfully decode multisyllabic words such as *colony*, *settlements*, or *unclaimed*. However, without the words *colony* and *settlements*, the meaning of this passage is impossible to decipher. The word *unclaimed* provides an important detail about colonized regions. Even with additional comprehension instruction focused on strategies such as self-monitoring or inferencing, the meaning of the passage would still lack clarity. When students allocate too much attention to decoding these multisyllabic words, they may not attend enough to the meaning of the text (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Perfetti, 1985; Stanovich, 1980).

Multisyllabic Word Reading

Multisyllabic word reading instruction is effective in improving the word reading skills of struggling readers (Bhattacharya & Ehri, 2004; Diliberto, Beattie, Flowers, & Algozzine, 2008; Lenz & Hughes, 1990; Shefelbine, 1990). Despite promising findings in these studies, recent research reveals new directions for multisyllabic word reading instruction. For example, students' knowledge of phonics-based rules does not necessarily predict their multisyllabic word reading skills, and no relationship appears to exist between knowledge of syllabication rules and successful reading (Kearns, 2015). Additionally, many struggling readers have deficits in phonological memory (Shankweiler, Crain, Brady, & Macaruso, 1992; Wagner & Torgesen, 1987), which may make it difficult for them to simultaneously process morphologically complex words and recall appropriate strategies. Ultimately, successful reading comprehension relies on students' exerting less attention when processing and reading words so they can dedicate more attention to understanding texts. This suggests that less cognitively demanding approaches to teaching multisyllabic word reading might enhance reading comprehension.

One approach for teaching multisyllabic word reading is to focus on the development of automaticity by providing multiple opportunities for students to manipulate and read

words rather than focusing on rule-based instruction. This helps students acquire word representations through repeated exposures to words and word parts within the context of their larger word units (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991; Perfetti, 1992; Stanovich, 1996). Specifically, instruction moves from part to whole, introducing morphemes

- first in isolation,
- then in words, and
- finally in connected text.

The following instructional practices align with this progression.

Practices for Multisyllabic Word Reading

In this section, five research-based instructional practices to support students' multisyllabic word reading development are presented. When students with LD receive supplemental reading instruction, many require continued focus on word study. This need not (and should not) be the sole focus of their supplemental instruction, but it is valuable for students to receive explicit, targeted instruction and opportunities for practice. These multisyllabic word reading practices are best used with students who are proficient decoders of most vowel patterns in monosyllabic words. If students are not proficient in monosyllabic word reading, instruction should first target vowel patterns that students do not know. This ensures they have the necessary decoding skills to begin working with more complex words.

Rather than provide rules-based instruction, these five practices focus on promoting automaticity. These practices are supported by previous research and have been recently investigated as part of a reading intervention developed and tested by our team (Toste, Capin, Vaughn, Roberts, & Kearns, 2016; Toste, Capin, Williams, Cho, & Vaughn, 2016). Across two studies, a total of 175 struggling readers in third through fifth grades were randomly assigned to receive a multisyllabic word reading intervention or business-as-usual reading instruction provided by the school. The intervention was delivered in small groups of 3 to 5 students by a trained tutor. Students who received this reading intervention experienced significant growth on word identification, decoding, and spelling compared to those who received standard reading instruction. Each intervention session included five instructional principles.

- Affix Learning | 2 to 3 min
- “Peel Off” Reading | 5 to 10 min
- Word-Building Games | 5 to 10 min
- Word Reading Fluency | 5 min
- Connected Text Reading | 10 min

Affix Learning

The first instructional practice to support multisyllabic word reading is learning affixes. Teachers introduce an activity called Affix Bank in which students are explicitly taught high-frequency prefixes (e.g., *pre-*, *dis-*, *un-*) and suffixes (e.g., *-ing*, *-ly*, *-tive*). White, Sowell, and Yanagihara (1989) published a list of the most commonly used prefixes and suffixes in third to ninth grades. Learning these affixes supports greater efficiency when reading multisyllabic words. During Affix Bank, teachers introduce approximately three new affixes each day using the following instructional sequence:

- **Name it.** Teacher introduces a new affix by reading it aloud, writing it on a white board, and having students chorally read the affix. If an affix corresponds to more than one sound (e.g., *-ed* can be pronounced as /ed/, /d/, or /t/), then the teacher provides additional explicit instruction, and students practice all pronunciations. A more detailed example of this is provided in the next section.
- **Provide sample word.** Teacher provides a sample word that uses the affix and writes it on the whiteboard.
- **Define it.** Teacher provides a student-friendly definition of the affix. Define affixes only if meaning will be of high utility for students or it appears in highly transparent words (i.e., meaning of the word can be inferred from its parts). For example, the prefix *pre-* means before and helps students understand the meaning of common words such as *prepay*, *precaution*, or *preview*.
- **Students generate sample words.** The teacher asks students if they can think of other words that use the target affix.
- **Write it.** Students write each new affix taught on their Affix Bank chart. Organizing affixes by “prefix” and “suffix” creates a resource for students (see Figure 2). It can also be helpful for students to write a sample word on their charts.
- **Review it.** Students regularly review previously learned affixes with their Affix Bank chart or flashcards. This can be done in pairs, or the group can chorally read all of the affixes.

What might this instruction sound like? A teacher leading students in Affix Bank might use the following routine: “This is the prefix *de-*.” The teacher writes the affix on the whiteboard. “One word I know that begins with *de-* is *defrost*.” Teacher writes the word on the board. “This affix means remove. Because we know that this affix means remove, then we know the word *defrost* means to remove frost from something. Can you think of any other words that

AFFIX BANK	
PREFIX	SUFFIX

Figure 2. Student Chart for Logging Affixes Learned.

begin with the prefix *de-*?” The teacher encourages students to share their responses. “Now, let’s add *de-* to our Affix Bank.” Students copy *de-* in the prefix column of their chart. “Great! Let’s practice reading aloud all of our prefixes and suffixes.” Teacher uses flashcards for students to chorally read affixes.

Teaching Affixes That Make More than One Sound

Some affixes correspond to more than one sound. For example, students are taught to say *-ed* as /ed/ like in the words *shouted*, *needed*, or *planted*. However, it can also make the sounds /t/ (e.g., *brushed*, *kicked*, *washed*) or /d/ (e.g., *rained*, *filled*, *hugged*). It is important to explicitly teach these sounds to students. The following script provides a guideline for this instruction: “The suffix *-ed* can make different sounds when we see it at the end of a word. There are three different sounds *-ed* might make. Let’s look at some examples.” To help students understand and recall, the teacher uses a poster or chart that has the three sounds and example words for each. “The first sound that *-ed* can make is /ed/. Look at the word I wrote on the board. This says ‘shout.’ When we add *-ed* to the end, it becomes ‘shouted.’ What sound did *-ed* say in ‘shouted?’” Students repeat the sound. The teacher follows this routine for additional affix sounds. When students are reading words with *-ed*, they are reminded to flex the sounds (e.g., try each sound for *-ed* if they are not sure).

Peel Off Reading

Another instructional strategy that supports students’ practice and fluency in reading multisyllabic word reading is breaking apart or segmenting words into their parts. This is often called a *peel off* strategy, wherein students are asked to read the smaller words or word parts that they already

LESSON 54		BEAT THE CLOCK	
underfed	irrupt		
noddled	conducted		
swimming	noddled		
unfriendly	unfairness		
insanity	flavor		
implant	catches		
inactive	ensure		
overwhelming	happily		
remembered	hardness		
midsized	arrival		
pinky	underworked		
effortless	written		

1st read

2nd read

Figure 3. Sample Word List Used for “Peel Off” Reading.

know or can easily decode. The focus is on accurate and fluent word reading, not the meaning of the words or word parts. Teachers can use an activity called *Beat the Clock* to do this. Students are given a new list with approximately 40 multisyllabic words each day (see Figure 3), and teachers use the following instructional routine:

- **Underline affixes.** The teacher guides students in underlining affixes in each word. Lists vary in difficulty, beginning with only prefixes (e.g., *unclear*, *rewrite*) or only suffixes (e.g., *friendly*, *challenging*), progressing to lists both prefixes and suffixes (e.g., *invalid*, *guilty*), and finally lists where individual words have both prefixes and suffixes (e.g., *unfaithful*, *improbable*).
- **Choral read affixes in isolation.** Students chorally read underlined affixes. The teacher provides corrective feedback as necessary, ensuring all students pronounce affixes accurately.
- **Choral read words.** Next, the teacher and students read whole words aloud together. The teacher continues to provide corrective feedback as necessary.
- **Timed reading of words.** Following the practice, all students are given two opportunities to read the list of words. The teacher times each student while reading the entire list aloud, focusing on reading accurately during the first read. While one student is

Table 1. Word-Building Game Descriptions.

Game	Materials	Description
Quick Search	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Base word cards Affix cards 	Students read all affix and base word cards and place them face up on a table. Students take turns choosing one affix and one base word card. They read the parts separately and then read them together to make a word.
Build-a-Word	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Base word cards Affix cards Small white boards Dry-erase markers 	The teacher reads a base word card aloud, defines it, and uses it in a sample sentence. Then, the teacher adds an affix card to the base word. Students read the parts and then blend them together to make a real word. Then, students define the word using the affix and word definition.
Word Train	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Base word cards Affix cards Engine and caboose cards Pocket chart 	Students read aloud all affix cards and sort them into two piles: prefixes (engines) or suffixes (caboose). Then, they read the base word cards and place each one in the center of the pocket chart. Students choose an affix card, place it before or after the base word card, read the parts, and then read the whole word aloud. Students then move the affix down the pocket chart and read with each base word card.
Elevator Words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Base word cards Affix cards Pocket chart 	Students read aloud affix cards and place prefixes on the left side of the pocket chart and suffixes on the right side. Then, students read aloud the first base word card, place it in the top row of the chart, combine the parts, and then read the new word. Then, students move the base word card down the pocket chart to read with each of the affixes.
Spinner Words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Plastic spinners (2) Dry-erase markers 	The teacher writes the five base words on one spinner and affixes on the second spinner. Students read aloud the affixes and base words and then take turns spinning the spinners. Students combine the parts on the spinners and read each word aloud.

reading, the other students follow along with their fingers on their own lists. The teacher has students record their time in seconds for their first read in the box at the bottom of their Beat the Clock word list. The teacher provides each student the opportunity to read the list independently twice and record his or her times. During the second reading, students focus on maintaining accuracy while trying to beat the clock (i.e., improving on their initial time).

Word-Building Games

During the instructional practice, students do the opposite of peel off reading; the focus here is on assembling or blending word parts together. To make this practice more engaging, a variety of word-building games that emphasize automaticity of the reading process can be used. Before introducing the game, the teacher first selects a number of base words (e.g., *judge*, *extend*, *thought*, *visible*, *strong*). After introducing base words, students then play a game that provides them with multiple opportunities to practice building and reading big words. Students build both real and pseudo (nonsense) words; this ensures that they are able to work on the skills necessary for quick and accurate decoding of unknown words. Table 1 provides descriptions of five different word-building games: Quick Search, Build-a-Word, Word Train, Elevator Words, and Spinner Words. Although these games differ slightly, they follow a similar instructional format:

- **Choral read base words.** Students are introduced to a set of base words that they will be using to build longer words; teacher holds up an index card with the word and reads it aloud, and students repeat each word.
- **Review affixes (as necessary).** If the students have not completed Affix Bank or a similar activity in this lesson, the teacher reviews all of the affixes previously taught. This can be done in pairs, or the group can chorally read all of the affixes.
- **Attach a prefix and/or suffix to base word.** Students build words by placing a base word beside a prefix and/or suffix. The teacher models this first.
- **Read all word parts.** The students read each word part by pointing and saying (e.g., “un-” / “faith” / “-ful”). Do not discuss the meaning of the affixes. The focus is blending word parts to read accurately and fluently.
- **Say it fluently!** The student blends the word parts together and pronounces the whole word (e.g., “unfaithful”). Students repeat Steps 3 to 5 for continued practice; they can take turns in a small group or work with partners to do this.

How might you differentiate instruction? Teachers can use several variations when playing the games, as described in Table 1. To simplify, the teacher may choose to play any of these games using only prefixes or only suffixes. Limiting the game to only prefixes or suffixes makes the task easier

SPEEDY READ #14	
1. active	21. suggestive
2. explosive	22. supportive
3. detective	23. cursive
4. positive	24. decisive
5. expensive	25. inactive
6. tentative	26. ineffective
7. reflective	27. intensive
8. talkative	28. permissive
9. sensitive	29. inventive
10. pensive	30. receptive
11. creative	31. directive
12. impulsive	32. cognitive
13. negative	33. inceptive
14. native	34. abusive
15. effective	35. furtive
16. impressive	36. pensive
17. massive	37. emissive
18. directives	38. relative
19. explosives	39. sedative
20. attentive	40. abrasive

Figure 4. Sample Word List Used for Word Reading Fluency Practice.

for students as they do not have to identify the type of affix used in the word. To make it more challenging, students create words using both prefixes and suffixes. In this case, students blend words that have at least three syllables. Finally, a teacher could ask students to build only real words. The teacher could also have students write all of the real words they build on the board or in their notebooks.

Word Reading Fluency

Researchers have shown that an excellent predictor of student reading fluency is the amount of time students spend reading. For struggling readers, this reading practice should be targeted, for example, words with the same patterns (e.g., phonograms) or multisyllabic words. Student practice should also include immediate, corrective feedback from the teacher. For example, if students do not know the medial sound in the word *boil*, the teacher might provide a correction by noting which sound was incorrect: “This vowel team says /oi/. What sound? So this word is *boil*. What word?” If the student reads a word incorrectly or pauses for more than 2 s, the teacher provides the word and asks the student to repeat the word: “This word is *colony*. What word?” The teacher may also choose to wait until the end of a timed reading to provide corrections, so as not to interfere with the students’ pacing.

One effective instructional practice focused on word reading fluency is the use of timed reading of targeted word lists, which supports students in their reading accuracy and rate. Teachers can implement an activity called Speedy Read, which is simple but highly structured:

- **Teacher-led choral reading.** Students are first given a word list that has similar phonetic patterns and asked to chorally read the list aloud with the teacher. An example of a Speedy Read word list can be found in Figure 4.
- **Timed reading.** Then, each student is given an opportunity to read for 30 seconds while the teacher tracks the accuracy of responses. The teacher provides corrective feedback by having students reread incorrectly pronounced words. After reading, students record the number of words read on a chart to help monitor their progress.
- **Listen and follow.** While a student is completing his or her 30-second timed reading, the other students in the group follow along with the list. For students who have more difficulty with this task, the teacher can provide additional supports by having them read after a peer who has provided a model of fluent reading.

What might this instruction sound like? “It’s time for Speedy Read.” Distribute copies of today’s word list to students. “Let’s do our choral read first. As we read each word, I want you to follow along with your finger. Let’s go!” Read the words chorally as a group.

“Now it’s your turn to read the words independently. Let’s see how many words you can each read in 30 seconds! _____ will go first. Is everyone pointing? Great. Ready? Go.” Start the timer. After 30 seconds have elapsed, say, “OK, good work! On your Speedy Read chart, write how many words you read correctly in 30 seconds.”

Connected Text Reading

The final instructional practice, while not directly targeting multisyllabic words, moves students’ fluency practice from the word level to the text level. It is important for students to practice their reading with connected text (e.g., sentences and passages). Teachers should be purposeful in selecting text for them to read. For students with LD, who are struggling with reading, gradual integration of multisyllabic words supports skill development. Rather than begin reading long passages immediately, prepare sentences that target multisyllabic word reading skills that students have been practicing. For example, students can read:

- maze sentences that require them to select the correct affix for the base word, checking that it makes sense;

Table 2. Sample Sentence Reading Tasks.

Sentence Type	Examples
Maze sentences	The teacher <u>guided</u> OR <u>guiding</u> the students through the reading lesson. When he saw Kathy's <u>expressed</u> OR <u>expression</u> , he knew that she was upset.
Cloze sentences	In the United States, we <u>import</u> OR <u>report</u> most of our bananas from Central and South America. Wednesday is in the middle of the week. We say that it is <u>week</u> . Mr. Mort had the children sit on the rug in a <u>circle</u> to listen to the story.
Whole sentences	My little brother knocked down my Lego building when he got mad at me. I had to <u>construct</u> it. Carter's substitute teacher would not let him display his artwork on the board. The pain in my ankle would not subside. Finally, it went away when I applied ice to it. I was an inactive member of the soccer team because I was injured.

- cloze sentences that require them to insert the missing affix to complete the word; or
- whole sentences with the same multisyllabic words.

Table 2 provides examples of these sentence reading tasks.

Passage reading focuses on expository text that includes many multisyllabic words. Teachers can use the following routine. Following this format increases the students' opportunities to practice reading text aloud repeatedly while also providing corrective feedback.

- **Key words.** The teacher introduces and defines key words. These are words that are central to the meaning of the story; introducing them supports students' fluency and comprehension.
- **Repeated reading practice.** The teacher leads students in a repeated text reading. Students read the text aloud at least two times using various oral reading practices: choral read, whisper read, or echo read.
- **Note useful words.** The teacher calls students' attention to irregular words or multisyllabic words. Noting multisyllabic words helps students make the connection from word-level and text-level practices.
- **Check for understanding.** When students have completed their reading of the passage, the teacher asks comprehension questions to check for understanding. Depending on the focus of the overall lessons with each group of students, the teacher might choose to ask more in-depth, higher order questions.

Summary

The set of routines described in this article provides teachers with a series of research-based instructional practices that promote multisyllabic word reading fluency. These practices can be easily integrated into small-group instruction and intervention, either in the general education classroom or

resource room setting. They can easily be incorporated into reading goals for students' individualized education programs. Some sample individualized education program goals might be the following:

- Given a list of the 20 most common prefixes and suffixes, the student will read aloud each prefix or suffix accurately within 25 seconds.
- Given a list of 20 two- and three-syllable words, the student will read the words automatically (within 1 second) with 95% accuracy.

All five practices are appropriate within daily intervention programs for students with LD; however, teachers may choose to use any combination of these practices based on the needs of their students. One of the fourth graders who participated in an intervention development study (Toste et al., 2016) noted,

A good reader focuses on the words, looking at them and chunking them. You have to know a lot of big words because you're gonna see a lot of big words when you read. It can be a very important thing. If you don't know what they say, then you miss them and you won't know what the story means.

Students understand the challenges that come along with being unable to read words accurately and fluently. Increased skill in decoding multisyllabic words promotes students' continued development as proficient readers, as well as supporting their achievement into the upper elementary grades and beyond.

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English and Spanish Sounds

English consonant sounds present in Spanish	/n/, /p/, /k/, /f/, /y/, /b/, /g/, /s/, /ch/, /t/, /m/, /w/, /l/, /h/
English consonant blends present in Spanish	<i>pl, pr, bl, br, tr, dr, cl, cr, gl, gr, fl, fr</i>
English consonant sounds that are difficult for English language learners	/d/ (can be pronounced as /th/), /j/, /r/, /v/, /z/, /sh/, /zh/, /th/
English consonant blends not present in Spanish	<i>st, sp, sk, sc, sm, sl, sn, sw, tw, qu, scr, spr, str, squ</i>
English vowel sounds not present in Spanish	<i>ma<u>n</u>, pe<u>n</u>, ti<u>p</u>, <u>u</u>p</i> <i>r</i> -controlled vowels schwa sound <i>ca<u>u</u>ght, cou<u>l</u>d, <u>u</u>se</i>
Challenging final English sounds	<i>rd, st, ng, sk, ng, z, oil, mp, dg</i>

Adapted from Helman, 2004.

Monitoring Students' Progress: Word Study and Recognition

Questions to ask when listening to a student read aloud

Can the student read some words in context that he or she missed in isolation?

Does the student miss words in context that he or she read correctly in isolation?

Does the student sound out the word, sound by sound?

Does the student try to read the word in chunks (e.g., /bl/ /ăk/, /făb/ /yū/ /lūs/)?

In Spanish, does the student read the word in syllables (e.g., /bo/ /ta/)?

Does the student guess the word without trying to sound it out?

Does the student rely on picture cues?

Does the student use context after decoding an unfamiliar word to check that it makes sense?

Does the student self-correct some errors?

Does the student read slowly with frequent hesitations and repetitions?

As the year progresses, are more and more words becoming sight words for the student? Does the student automatically recognize many multisyllabic words in addition to single-syllable words?

Questions to ask as you analyze spelling errors

Does the student confuse voiced and unvoiced consonant sounds (e.g., /p/ vs. /b/)?

Does the student confuse consonants produced similarly (e.g., /m/ vs. /b/, /f/ vs. /th/)?

Does the student confuse stop sounds with continuant sounds (e.g., /ch/ vs. /sh/)?

Does the student misspell initial blends or final blends in words?

Does the student lose nasal sounds (e.g., /m/, /n/, /ng/)?

Does the student confuse short-vowel sounds, long-vowel sounds, or both?

Does the student confuse vowel teams (e.g., *ee* vs. *ea*)?

Does the student break orthographic conventions (e.g., *-ck* for /k/ after a short vowel)?

How does the student's multisyllabic-word spelling compare to his or her single-syllable spelling?

Does the student use knowledge of morphemes (e.g., prefixes, roots) to spell multisyllabic words correctly?

ADDING SUFFIXES THAT CHANGE BASE WORDS' FINAL Y TO I

LESSON 17

OBJECTIVES

- Students will read words in which the final **y** of the base is changed to **i** when a suffix is added.
- Students will spell words in which the final **y** of the base is changed to **i** when a suffix is added.
- Students will identify when to change the final **y** of a base to **i** when a suffix is added.

MATERIALS

- Word cards
- Base word cards
- Flip cards
- Suffix math worksheet
- Word web templates
- Board and markers or chalk for teacher
- Personal whiteboards and dry-erase markers for students
- Notebook paper

TIPS

- Refer to the Appendix for list of words in which the **y** of the base changes to **i** when a suffix is added.
- The final **y** rule: If a base word ends in consonant-**y**, change the **y** to **i** before adding the suffix.
- The **i** usually retains the sound of the **y** in the base word. For example, in **marry** and **married**, both the **y** and **i** make the /ē/ sound; in **cry** and **cries**, both the **y** and **i** make the /i/ sound. There are a few exceptions, however, such as **happily**, **plentiful**, and **easily**.
- The suffix **es** is added to a base word ending in consonant-**y**, rather than the suffix **s** (e.g., **cry**, **cries**; **puppy**, **puppies**).
- The final **y** does not change when the suffix begins with **i** (e.g., **ing**, **ish**) because doing so would create an awkward spelling (e.g., **study** becomes **studying**, not **studiing**). Teach this exception after students have mastered the final **y** rule. An example teacher model is provided in the Generalizations section of this lesson.
- Do not include examples with /ing/ or /ish/ suffixes.
- Provide direct feedback to students.

DAILY REVIEW

DOUBLING RULE AND SILENT E RULE

Write the following words on the board: **sliding**, **risky**, **ripper**, **fluffy**, **riper**, **madly**, **moped**, **crabby**, **hopeful**, and **hopping**. Review the doubling rule and the silent-**e** rule for adding suffixes to base words. Have students read the words and determine whether the base word changed when the suffix was added.

Teacher: We have learned two rules about base words that change when a suffix is added. One rule is the doubling rule, in which the final consonant of a base word is doubled. What are the three questions to answer when deciding whether a consonant is doubled?

Emma: Is there only one vowel in the base word?

Teacher: Good, that's one question. What's another question to ask yourself?

Yvonne: Does the suffix begin with a vowel?

Teacher: Yes, the suffix must begin with a vowel. What is the final question?

Emma: Is there only one consonant after the vowel in the base word?

Teacher: Yes, those are the three questions. Look at the words on the board and tell me a word that follows the doubling rule...Raymond?

Raymond: *ripper*

Teacher: What is the base word in *ripper*?

Raymond: *rip*

Teacher: Correct. *Rip* has just one vowel, followed by just one consonant. The suffix, *er*, starts with a vowel, so the *p* was doubled.

Let's review the silent *e* rule. What is the rule for dropping the *e* in a base word?

Emma: When the suffix starts with a vowel, drop the silent *e*.

Teacher: What word on the board has a silent *e* that has been dropped?

Terrence: *riper*

Teacher: What is the base word?

Terrence: *ripe*

Teacher: Excellent. Please read each of the words on the board as I point to it. Say the base word, and then say the whole word. If the base word changed, show me a thumbs-up.

*[Point to **sliding**.]*

Students: *slide, sliding*

[Students show a thumbs-up.]

Have students continue reading words as you point to them.

OPENING

*[Write **happy, est, and happiest** on the board.]*

Teacher: Today, we will learn another rule about base words that change when adding a suffix. It is called the final **y** rule. *Happiest* is an example of this new rule. The final **y** in the base word, *happy*, changes to *i* before the suffix, *est*, is added.

MODEL AND TEACH: ACTIVITY 1

INTRODUCE THE FINAL Y RULE

Write the words *lucky, silly, study, baby, party, and play* on the board. Write the suffixes *er, s, ing, est, and ed* on the board. Teach the final **y** rule: When the final **y** of a base word is preceded by a consonant, the **y** changes to *i* when a suffix is added, regardless of whether the suffix begins with a vowel or consonant. Demonstrate the rule on a variety of base words ending in consonant-**y**. Demonstrate that a base word ending in vowel-**y** does not change when adding a suffix.

*[Point to **lucky**.]*

Teacher: Please read this word.

Students: *lucky*

Teacher: I want to add the suffix *est* to form the word *luckiest*. The final **y** rule helps me determine whether the final **y** changes to *i* before adding the suffix. The final **y** changes to *i* if the answer to the following question is “yes”:

Is the final **y** in the base word preceded by a consonant?

*[Point to **k**.]*

Teacher: Yes, it is. Because the answer is “yes,” the final **y** in the base word is changed to *i*...

*[Change the **y** in **lucky** to **i**.]*

Teacher: ...and the suffix is added.

*[Add **est** to form **luckiest**.]*

Teacher: *Lucky, luckiest*: Repeat, please.

Students: *lucky, luckiest*

Teacher: Terrence, what is the next word?

Terrence: *silly*

Teacher: I want to add *ness* to form *silliness*. Let's figure out whether the final *y* should change to *i*. Is the final *y* in the base word, *silly*, preceded by a consonant?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: So the final *y* changes to *i* before the suffix is added.

*[Replace the **y** in **silly** with **i**. Add **ness** to form **silliness**.]*

Teacher: *Silly, silliness*: Repeat, please.

Students: *silly, silliness*

Teacher: Please read the next word.

Students: *party*

Teacher: I want to form the word *parties*. Is the final *y* in *party* preceded by a consonant?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: So *y* is changed to *i*.

*[Replace the **y** in **party** with **i**.]*

Teacher: When the suffix is *s*, you add *es*, instead of *s*.

*[Complete **parties** by adding **es**.]*

Teacher: *Party, parties*: Repeat, please.

Students: *party, parties*

Teacher: Please read the next word.

Students: *play*

Teacher: I want to change *play* to *playful*. Let's see whether the final *y* rule causes me to change the final *y* to *i*. Is the final *y* in *play* preceded by a consonant?

Students: No.

Teacher: So the final *y* does not change—*ful* is simply added to the base word.

[Add ful to play.]

Teacher: Read the base word and whole word, please.

Students: *play, playful*

MODEL AND TEACH: ACTIVITY 2

READING WORDS THAT FOLLOW THE FINAL Y RULE

DECODING

Write 10 to 15 words on the board that follow the final *y* rule (e.g., *funnier, soggiest, families, happiness, carried, monkeys*). Teach students to look for the base word and suffix. Think aloud to demonstrate the process of determining the base word. Then, put the base word and suffix together to form the whole word.

Teacher: It is important to identify the base word and suffix in words. When reading a word with a suffix, if the letter preceding the suffix is *i*, that's a clue that the final *y* in the base word probably changed to *i*. For example, if you see this word...

[Point to funnier.]

Teacher: ...you recognize the suffix *er*.

[Circle er.]

Teacher: The word part in front of it...

[Underline funni.]

Teacher: ...isn't a word. But you know the final *y* rule means a final *y* was changed to *i*. We can change the *i* back to *y*.

*[Write **funny**.]*

Teacher: *Funny* is a word you know. I can put the base word and suffix together to read the word: *funny, er, funnier*. Repeat, please.

Students: *funny, er, funnier*

Teacher: Take a look at the next word.

*[Point to **soggiest**.]*

Teacher: I see the suffix *est*.

*[Circle **est**.]*

Teacher: The word part in front is spelled *s-o-g-g-i*. I'll try using a *y* instead of the *i*.

*[Write **soggy**.]*

Teacher: *Soggy, est, soggiest*: Please repeat.

Students: *soggy, est, soggiest*

Teacher: Here's an example sentence: *My cereal is soggy when I pour too much milk on it.* Who can give me another example of something that is soggy?

Emma: *My shoes got soggy when I walked in a puddle.*

Teacher: Great! Let's read the rest of the words.

Continue reading the rest of the words, gradually reducing your scaffolding.

TIPS

Heavily scaffold this activity initially. As students gain proficiency, they will not need to be led through each step.

MODEL AND TEACH: ACTIVITY 3

SPELL WORDS, USING THE FINAL Y RULE ENCODING

Dictate words in which the silent **e** is dropped when a suffix is added. Model by using the following steps:

1. Say the word.
2. Say the base word and suffix.
3. Determine whether the final **y** rule causes the final **y** of the base word to change to **i**.
4. Spell the word.
5. Check your spelling by reading the word you wrote.

Teacher: Listen as I model how to use the final **y** rule when spelling a word.

First, say the whole word, *happiness*.

Then, say the base word and suffix: The base word is *happy*, and the suffix is *ness*.

Determine whether the final **y** rule causes the base word's final **y** to change to **i**. Is the base word's final **y** preceded by a consonant? Yes, **p** precedes **y**.

Because the answer is "yes," I change the final **y** to **i** and add the suffix.

[Write the word as you say the letters.]

Teacher: Spell the base word, changing the final **y** to **i**: *h-a-p-p-i*, and then add the suffix: *n-e-s-s*.

[Complete happiness.]

Teacher: Read the word: *happiness*.

Now, we'll all follow the steps together to spell *carried*. Here's the word in a sentence: *I carried the groceries inside*. Say the word.

Students: *carried*

Teacher: Say the base word and suffix.

Students: *carry, /d/*

Teacher: Determine whether the final **y** rule applies. Is the base word's final **y** preceded by a consonant?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: So change the **y** to **i** and add the suffix.

[Write the word as you say the letters.]

Teacher: Spell the base word, changing the final **y** to **i**: **c-a-r-r-i**.

When we hear a word that means something is past, and it ends with the /d/ sound, how is /d/ spelled?

Students: *ed*

*[Add the suffix to the word to make **carried**.]*

Teacher: Then, I read the word: *carried*.

Let's spell another word: *families*. Here's the word in the sentence: *Our families are having dinner together*. Say the word.

Students: *families*

Teacher: Say the base word and suffix.

Students: *family, /z/*

Teacher: Apply the final **y** rule. Is the base word's final **y** preceded by a consonant?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: So, will I change the **y** to **i** and add the suffix?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: Correct. What suffix says /z/?

Students: *s*

Teacher: Remember, when you're adding the suffix *s*, you change *y* to *i* and add *es*. Now I will spell the word.

[Write the word as you say the letters.]

Teacher: *F-a-m-i-l-i-e-s*: Please read the word.

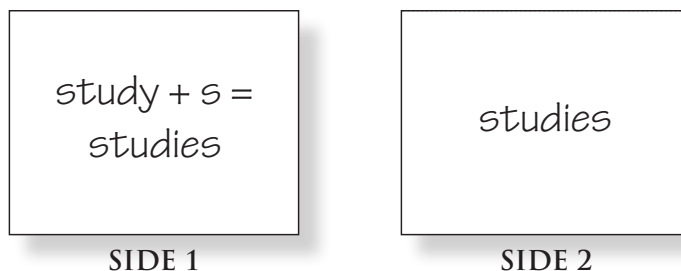
Students: *families*

GUIDED PRACTICE: ACTIVITY 1

FLIP CARDS

DECODING

Gather the flip cards, which have a base word, suffix, and whole word on Side 1 and only the whole word on Side 2 (see the following graphic). The cards include a variety of learned words with suffixes; most consist of base words with a final *y*. Have students go through the cards, reading Side 1 first, saying only the base word and whole word. After students have read Side 1 of all the cards, they read Side 2.



Teacher: We will read cards with two sides. We'll start with Side 1, which gives you practice for when you will read Side 2. Side 1 has the base word, suffix, and whole word laid out like an equation, which is something you have seen before. You will say the base word and the whole word.

*[Show the **copy + er = copier** card.]*

Teacher: For example, this card would be read *copy, copier*. Repeat, please.

Students: *copy, copier*

Teacher: Raise your hand to tell me whether the base word changed...Raymond?

Raymond: *Copier* has *i* instead of *y*.

Teacher: Very good. The final *y* changed to *i*. Yvonne, can you tell me why it changed?

Yvonne: Because *copy* ends with *p-y*.

Teacher: Wow, that's impressive knowledge of the final *y* rule. Here is the next card.

*[Show the **decay + s = decays** card.]*

Teacher: On my cue, everyone, say the base word and whole word.

[Gesture.]

Students: *decay, decays*

Teacher: Good reading! Did the base word change, Emma?

Emma: No, it stayed the same.

Teacher: You're right. Why didn't the final *y* in *decay* change when suffix *s* was added?

Emma: Because *decay* has *a-y* at the end. If there's a vowel and then *y*, it doesn't change.

Teacher: Correct. When the base word ends with vowel-*y*, the *y* doesn't change. Here's the word in a sentence: *My dentist says I must brush my teeth or they will decay*. What do you think *decay* means?

Terrence: I think it means when something rots and gets bad. If you don't brush your teeth, they rot.

Teacher: That's right. *Decay* means "to rot or decompose."

Continue reading Side 1 of the cards. When finished, have students read the words on Side 2.

ADAPTATIONS

- Use a spinner to determine the number of cards each student will read.
- When students are reading Side 2, have them say the base word and whole word.

GUIDED PRACTICE: ACTIVITY 2

PICK A SUFFIX

DECODING AND ENCODING

Compile a stack of base word cards, most of them ending in a **y**. Write the following suffixes on the board: **ed, er, est, ness, s, es, ly**. Display one word card at a time. Have students choose a suffix to add to the base word and write the newly formed word on their whiteboards. Then have students read the words. Because students choose which suffix to add, different students will form different words. This is fine, as long as the words are real words.

Teacher: I will show you a base word, and you will add one of the suffixes on the board to form a new word. You will need to figure out whether the base word changes when the suffix is added. You might not all choose the same suffix; that's OK, as long as you form a real word. Write your word on your whiteboard. You'll take turns coming to the board to write your word.

I'll demonstrate with the first word.

*[Show **hurry**.]*

Teacher: What is the word?

Students: *hurry*

Teacher: Now, I choose a suffix to add. Hmm, I think I will add **ed** to form the word **hurried**. Emma, how do I figure out whether the base word changes?

Emma: Look at the end of the word. It ends with **r** and then **y**, so you have to change the **y** to **i** before you add the suffix.

Teacher: Very nice job. I would like everyone to write **hurried** on their whiteboards. Hold them up when you are done.

[Students write the word and show their whiteboards.]

Teacher: I see that everyone changed **y** to **i** before adding the suffix. I'm impressed! Say the base word and whole word, everyone.

Students: *hurry, hurried*

Teacher: Here is the next base word.

[Show easy.]

Teacher: Choose a suffix to add that will form a real word.

[Students choose suffixes and write their words on their whiteboards.]

Teacher: This is very interesting because I see two different words that were formed by adding two different suffixes. And each of the words is a real word! Great job. Terrence, please read your word.

Terrence: *easier*

Teacher: Yvonne, you formed the same word. What suffix did you add?

Yvonne: *er*

Teacher: Everyone, say the base word and the whole word.

Students: *easy, easier*

Teacher: Emma, read your word.

Emma: *easiest*

Teacher: Raymond, what suffix did you and Emma add?

Raymond: *est*

Teacher: Everyone, say the base word and the whole word.

Students: *easy, easiest*

Teacher: Raymond, please explain why the base word changed.

Raymond: Because *easy* ends with *s-y*, so *y* changed to *i*.

GUIDED PRACTICE: ACTIVITY 3

SUFFIX MATH

ENCODING

Distribute the worksheet, which depicts forming words as an equation (see the following graphic). Dictate words that follow suffix rules that students have learned, mostly words in which the final *y* changes to *i* when a suffix is added. Have students spell the words by completing an equation for each word.

	Base Word	+	Suffix	=	Whole Word
1		+		=	
2		+		=	

Teacher: I'll dictate words for you to spell. For each word, you'll complete an equation on your worksheet by filling in the base word, suffix, and whole word. Identifying the base word and suffix is important because it helps us know which spelling rules to follow.

We'll begin by completing some equations together. The first word is *spied*. Here's the word in a sentence: *I spied on the club so I could learn their secrets*. What's the word?

Students: *spied*

Teacher: Say the base word and suffix.

Students: *spy*, /d/

Teacher: Write *spy* on the base word part of the first equation on your worksheet.

[Students write.]

Teacher: How do you spell *spy*, Terrence?

Terrence: *s-p-y*

Teacher: Correct. I'll write the equation on the board, so you can follow along.

*[Write **spy** on the board.]*

Teacher: What is the suffix?

Students: /d/

Teacher: How do you spell the suffix /d/?

Yvonne: e-d

Teacher: That's right. Write that in the suffix column.

[Students write.]

Teacher: The equation says that the base word plus the suffix equals the whole word. So far, we have **spy** plus **ed**. We must determine whether the final **y** rule will cause the base word to change. Then we can write the whole word. What question do you ask to determine whether the base word changes?

Yvonne: Does the base word end with consonant-**y**?

Teacher: Does it?

Yvonne: Yes, **spy** has **p-y** at the end.

Teacher: Because the answer is "yes," what does the final **y** rule say to do?

Students: Change the **y** to **i** and then add the suffix.

Teacher: Excellent. Please write the whole word on your worksheet.

[Students write.]

Teacher: Raymond, please say the word and then spell it.

Raymond: **spied**, s-p-i-e-d

Teacher: Nice job, everyone! The next word is **copies**. Repeat, please.

Students: **copies**

Teacher: Say the base word and suffix.

Students: *copy, /z/*

Teacher: Write the base word and suffix on your worksheet.

[Students write.]

Teacher: Emma, how did you spell the base word?

Emma: *c-o-p-y*

*[Write **copy** on the board.]*

Teacher: How is the suffix spelled, Raymond?

Raymond: *s*

Teacher: That is correct. I'm pleased you remembered that even though the suffix says /z/, it is formed by the letter *s*.

*[Write **s** on the board.]*

Teacher: What is the extra rule about the suffix *s* when you are applying the final *y* rule?

Emma: If you change the *y* to *i*, add *es*.

Teacher: Excellent! Now you're ready to spell the whole word. Complete the rest of the equation for *copies*.

[Students fill in answers.]

Teacher: Yvonne, how did you spell *copies*?

Yvonne: *c-o-p-i-e-s*

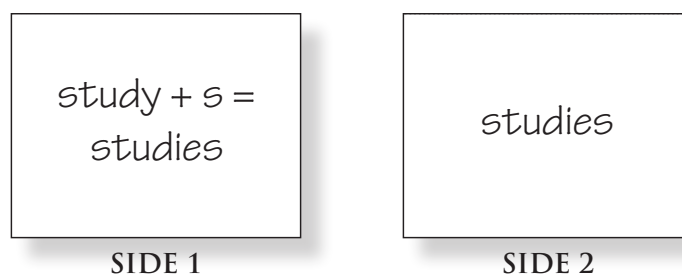
Teacher: Yes! Great job, everyone!

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE: ACTIVITY 1

PARTNER FLIP CARDS

DECODING

Use the same flip cards as in Guided Practice Activity 1 (see the following graphic for an example). Have students work in pairs, and give each student a stack of cards. Have Student A show Side 2 of a card to Student B. Then, have Student B say the base word and whole word. Have Student A use Side 1 to check the accuracy of Student B's answer. Then, reverse the roles and move on to another card.



Teacher: This activity uses the flip cards that we used earlier, but this time, you will read only Side 2, which has the whole word on it. Side 1 will be used to check answers. You will work in pairs.

For example, pretend that Emma and Yvonne are a pair. Emma shows Side 2 of a card to Yvonne. Yvonne says the base word and the whole word, even though Side 2 shows only the whole word. Emma checks Yvonne's answer by looking at Side 1. Then, Emma and Yvonne switch roles with the next card.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE: ACTIVITY 2

POINT AND READ

DECODING

Place 15 to 20 word cards faceup on a table. Include a variety of words, so that students apply the final **y** rule as well as discriminate among other rules they have learned about adding suffixes to base words. Point to a word and call on a student to read the word. Use a quick pace. Occasionally question students to assess their understanding.

Teacher: When I point to a word and say your name, read the word aloud. Everyone else, read silently. I will go quickly, so pay attention.

*[Point to **earliest**.]*

Teacher: Yvonne?

Yvonne: *earliest*

*[Point to **enjoyable**.]*

Teacher: Terrence?

Terrence: *enjoyable*

Teacher: Great job. Now let's speed it up!

Continue until all the words have been read.

ADAPTATION

- Have students keep the cards they read correctly.
- Turn facedown cards that have been read correctly.

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE: ACTIVITY 3

WORD WEBS

ENCODING

Have students complete word webs (templates are provided on the CD) for base words ending in **y**. Dictate a whole word (e.g., *supplier*). Have students write the base word in the middle bubble (*supply*) and the whole word in one of the outer bubbles. Dictate other words that use the same base word (e.g., *supplies*, *supplied*). Have students write these words in the outer bubbles. Draw a sample web on the board and demonstrate as you give directions.

Teacher: You will complete a word web for base words ending in **y**. First, I'll dictate a whole word: *sillier*. Write the base word in the middle bubble.

*[Write **silly** in the middle bubble.]*

Teacher: Then write *sillier* in one of the outer bubbles.

[Demonstrate.]

Teacher: I'll dictate other words with the same base word. Write those words in other outer bubbles. When the web is complete, the middle bubble will show the base word, and the outer bubbles will show words formed when suffixes are added to that base word.

TIP

Choose base words that form at least two whole words.

ADAPTATION

Dictate only the base word and have students think of suffixes to add to form whole words.

MONITOR LEARNING

Check whether students accurately identify base words and suffixes.

GENERALIZATION

After students have mastered the final **y** rule, teach this exception to the rule: When the suffix begins with letter **i**, the base word's final **y** does not change.

TEACHER MODEL

DECODING

Teacher: When the suffix begins with the letter **i**, the final **y** is not changed to **i**. Let's look at an example.

*[Write **study** on the board.]*

Teacher: Read the word, please.

Students: *study*

Teacher: I want to change it to **studying**. When the suffix begins with **i**, the base word's final **y** doesn't change. Since /ing/ begins with **i**, /ing/ is simply added to the base word.

*[Write **studying**.]*

Teacher: If we changed *y* to *i* before adding /ing/...

*[Write **studiing**.]*

Teacher: ...it would create a double vowel and would be confusing.

*[Erase **studiing**.]*

Teacher: *Study, studying*: Please repeat.

Students: *study, studying*

*[Write **baby** on the board.]*

Teacher: Terrence, what is this word?

Terrence: *baby*

Teacher: Let's change it to *babyish*. Here's the word in a sentence: *Sylvia thought the bow in her hair was too babyish.*

Is the final *y* in the base word preceded by a consonant?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: The suffix begins with *i*, however, so *y* does not change to *i*. I simply add the suffix to *baby*.

*[Write **babyish**.]*

Teacher: *Baby, babyish*: Repeat, please.

Students: *baby, babyish*

TEACHER MODEL

ENCODING

Model, using the following steps:

1. Say the word.
2. Say the base word and suffix.
3. Determine whether the final **y** rule causes the final **y** of the base word to change to **i**.
4. Spell the word.
5. Check your spelling by reading the word you wrote.

Teacher: Listen to the word: *trying*. Say the word.

Students: *trying*

Teacher: Say the base word and suffix.

Students: *try, ing*

Teacher: Apply the final **y** rule. Is the base word's final **y** preceded by a consonant?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: But the suffix *-ing* begins with *i*. So, does the final **y** change to *i*?

Students: No.

Teacher: Very good! When the suffix begins with *i*, the base word does not change. Just add the suffix: *t-r-y-i-n-g*. Please read the word.

Students: *trying*

LESSON 17 WORD CARDS

busiest

bodies

carries

carrier

cloudier

cities

First of 6 pages

FLIP CARDS

study + s =
studies

copy + er =
copier

studies

copier

First of 18 pages

SUFFIX MATH

	Base Word	+	Suffix	=	Whole Word
1		+		=	
2		+		=	
3		+		=	
4		+		=	
5		+		=	
6		+		=	
7		+		=	
8		+		=	
9		+		=	
10		+		=	
11		+		=	
12		+		=	
13		+		=	
14		+		=	

WORD RECOGNITION AND FLUENCY: EFFECTIVE UPPER-ELEMENTARY INTERVENTIONS FOR STUDENTS WITH READING DIFFICULTIES

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WORD WEBS

WORD RECOGNITION AND FLUENCY: EFFECTIVE UPPER-ELEMENTARY INTERVENTIONS FOR STUDENTS WITH READING DIFFICULTIES

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Taking a Closer Look

Skill: Adding suffixes that change base words' final y to i

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

Explicit, Systematic Instruction
Modeling
Scaffolded Practice
Progress Monitoring

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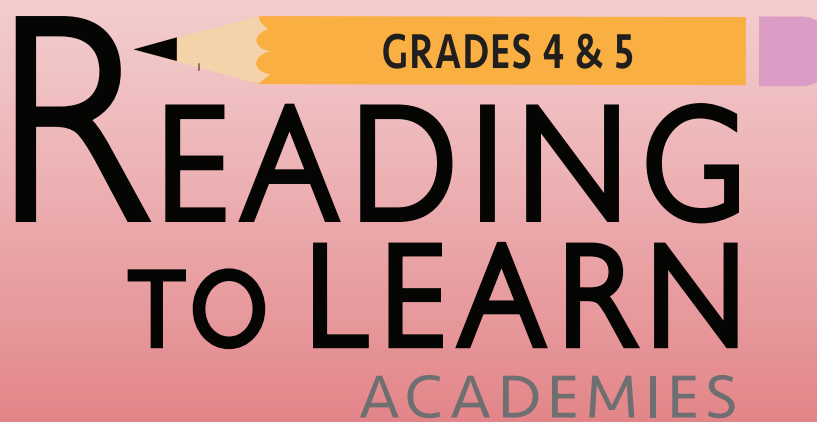
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Word Study and Recognition

Presenter Resources



GRADE 4

Survey of Knowledge: Word Study and Recognition

Match the key concept to its definition by writing the letter in the correct blank.

1. <u>C</u> decoding	A. Study of affixes, base words, and roots
2. <u>J</u> decodable text	B. Smallest unit of speech sound
3. <u>B</u> phoneme	C. Process of converting printed words into their spoken forms by using knowledge of letter-sound correspondences and word structure
4. <u>I</u> phonology	D. Smallest meaningful unit of a language
5. <u>A</u> structural analysis	E. Writing system for representing language
6. <u>D</u> morpheme	F. Letter or letter combination that spells a phoneme
7. <u>E</u> orthography	G. A word part or chunk organized around a vowel sound
8. <u>K</u> affix	H. Process of producing written symbols for spoken language; also, spelling by sounding out
9. <u>F</u> grapheme	I. A language's sound system and the rules that govern it
10. <u>L</u> sight word	J. Controlled text in which most of the words are in an accumulating sequence of letter-sound correspondences that students have learned and are learning
11. <u>H</u> encoding	K. Morpheme that comes before or after a root or base word to modify its meaning (e.g., prefix, suffix)
12. <u>G</u> syllable	L. Word that is recognized automatically when seen

Sample Word Sorts

Sort these words by the sound that *c* makes.

boycott	science	cyst
custom	graceful	incapable
century	helicopter	cinnamon
scarcity	infancy	scuba

incapable	science
scarcity	graceful
boycott	century
helicopter	cinnamon
custom	scarcity
scuba	infancy
	cyst

- When does *c* make the /k/ sound?
Before "a," "o," or "u"

- When does *c* make the /s/ sound?
Before "e," "i," or "y"

Sort the following words by the sound(s) that *-ed* makes.

packed	roared	panted
crooked	handed	walked
hissed	hushed	crawled
bombed	punched	herded
moaned	pasted	grunted

panted	packed	roared
pasted	walked	crawled
grunted	hissed	bombed
herded	hushed	moaned
handed	punched	

Exception: crooked

- Why does *-ed* make different sounds at the end of different past-tense verbs?

/əd/ = on a word that ends with /t/ or /d/

/t/ = on a word that ends with an unvoiced sound

/d/ = on a word that ends with a voiced sound

- There is one exception to the rule. Identify and explain this exception.

"crooked" = This is not a past-tense verb. It's an adjective that ends with "ed." In adjectives, the "ed" at the end says /əd/.

Six Syllable Types: Activities

In the chart below, list the six syllable types and examples of words with each syllable type. The vowel sound(s) within each syllable type are provided.

Syllable Type	Vowel Sound(s)	Examples
Closed	Short	hat, shop, fetch, past
VCe	Long	hate, like, hope, cute
Open	Long	<u>o</u> pen, <u>u</u> gle, <u>e</u> , <u>o</u> tel
Vowel digraphs and diphthongs	Long, short, and other, including diphthongs (/oi/ and /ow/)	feet, boat, bread, toy, cow, noun
Vowel-r (r-controlled vowel)	/er/, /ar/, /or/	her, part, for
Final stable syllable	Usually schwa	litt <u>le</u> , ruff <u>le</u> , stat <u>ion</u> , creat <u>ure</u>

Use what you just learned about the syllable types to sort these words into open and closed syllables based on their **first** syllable.

paper	bottle	puzzle
funnel	river	maple
temper	even	total
wiggle	title	music

paper	bottle
maple	puzzle
even	funnel
total	wiggle
title	temper
music	

Exception: river

Grade 4 Literacy Block

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Word study and recognition (30–45 minutes)			
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Follow scope and sequence of orthographic patterns to teachUse word sorts and gamesExplicitly teach and practice strategy for reading multisyllabic wordsTeach connections between orthography and morphemesExplicitly teach spelling using orthographic patterns and morphological parts	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Complete word sortsPlay word gamesPractice word buildingLook for orthographic patterns or morphemes in textsPractice spelling words with specific orthographic patterns and morphological parts	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Teach phonemic awareness in small groupsIntroduce fewer patterns at onceReview patterns oftenPractice word reading in listsUse decodable textDo more word building and spelling	Explicitly teach difference between English and Spanish sounds
Fluency (10–15 minutes)			

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners	
Vocabulary (10–15 minutes)			
Comprehension (25–30 minutes)			


Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas	
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners		
Writing (20–30 minutes)				

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Small groups and workstations			



Word Study and Recognition

Activity Resources

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black lead tip, positioned horizontally behind the text.
READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4



Slide—What We Know From Research: Conclusion



Read the quotation on the slide and note three mistaken assumptions made about spelling.



Slide—English Language Arts and Reading TEKS: Oral and Written Conventions and Reading Strands



Examine your grade-level expectations.

What should your students be prepared to do when they enter your classroom from the previous grade level and what should they be prepared to do for the next grade level?



Slide—Common Syllable Patterns



Activity 1:

Work with a partner to fill out the chart at the top of the page in the handout **Six Syllable Types: Activities** using the six syllable types on the slide.

Activity 2:

Under the syllable type chart on the handout is a closed sort. Use your syllable type word cards for this activity. Work with your partner to sort the words by their first syllable. Then answer the questions. Be sure to notice that one word doesn't fit the pattern. See whether you can identify it and write about it in the second question.

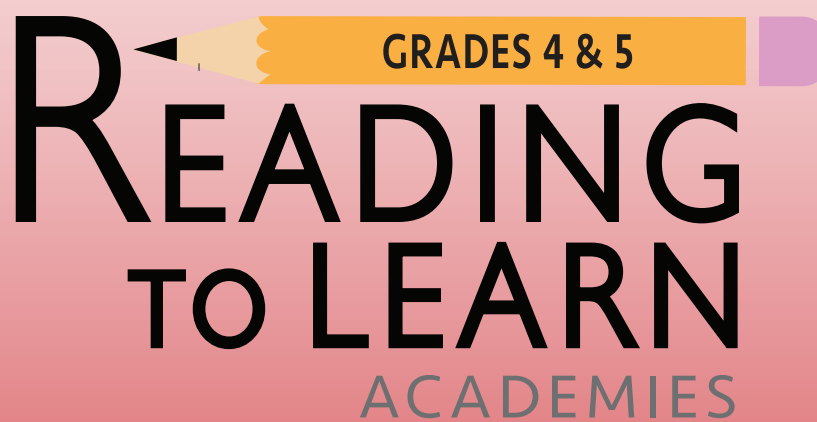
Activity 3:

The handout **Teaching the Six Syllable Types** provides explicit methods for teaching the six syllable types. Take a minute to look over the handout and place a checkmark beside the activities you already do with your students and a star next to those you would like to try.



Fluency

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Document camera
- One copy of “The Ever-Changing Sky” text
- Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary
- Whisper phone
- Video: Partner Reading With Retell

Participant Materials

- Calculator
- Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary

Materials to Provide Each Table

- One copy of “The Ever-Changing Sky” text for each participant
- Guiding Questions document (two per table)



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Fluency

Slide I—Title Slide

(0:00–0:30)

An important goal as fourth-grade teachers is to develop struggling readers and English language learners into fluent readers and to continue to model and encourage fluent reading for all students in all content areas.

Section Objectives



This section will enhance your knowledge of the following:

- The components of fluency and the factors that affect fluency
- How to assess and monitor a student's oral reading fluency
- Effective instructional practices for teaching fluency



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:30–2:00)

Take a moment to review the objectives on the slide. These objectives should guide your learning in this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.

Let's return to the reading rope. In this section, we will see how fluency binds the two main strands, language comprehension and word recognition, as students read to learn new information.

Find Handout 1: The Reading Rope in your folder. This handout is from the Overview section of this academy.

Pause for participants to find the handout. Display your copy on the document camera.

With a pen or pencil, draw a box around the section of the rope where language comprehension and word recognition are tightly woven, on the right side of the

drawing. Be sure to place your box close to the rope to represent how fluency binds these two strands.

Model by drawing the box on your copy of the handout with pen or pencil.

Allow a few seconds. Then ask participants to place the handout back in the folder.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Reading Fluency Defined

Reading fluency is “reasonably accurate reading at an appropriate rate with suitable prosody that leads to accurate and deep comprehension and motivation to read.”

— Hasbrouck & Glaser, 2012



Slide 3—Reading Fluency Defined

(2:00–2:30)

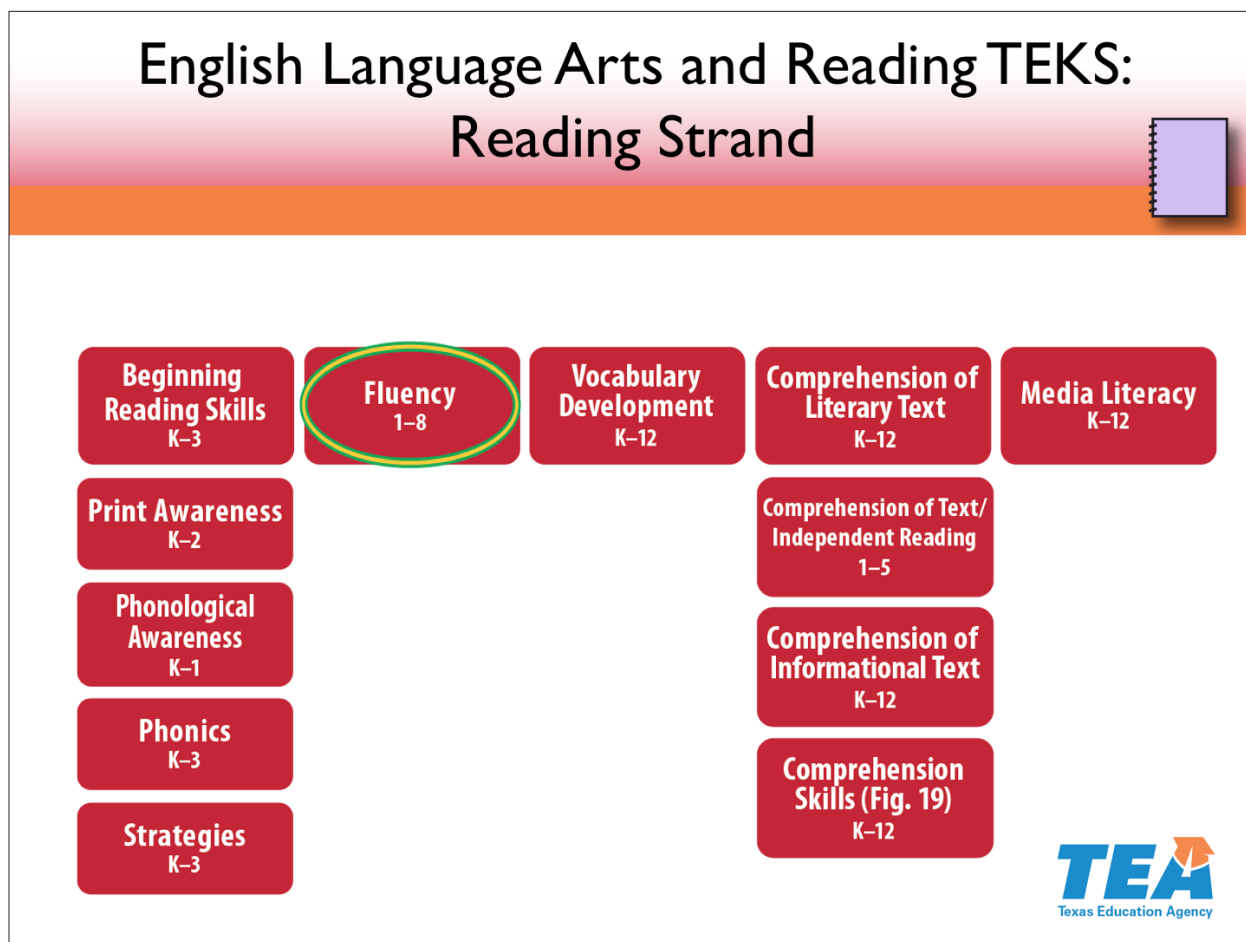
Hasbrouck and Glaser provided this definition of reading fluency.

Read the definition on the slide.

In this section, we will gain an understanding of each of these elements.

Reference

Hasbrouck & Glaser, 2012



Slide 4—English Language Arts and Reading TEKS: Reading Strand

(2:30–3:30)

In the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills, or TEKS, fluency is an expectation for the first through eighth grades. The knowledge and skills statement at each grade level reads, “Students read grade-level text with fluency and comprehension.”

Please take out from your folder the Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment document.

Pause for participants to locate the resource.

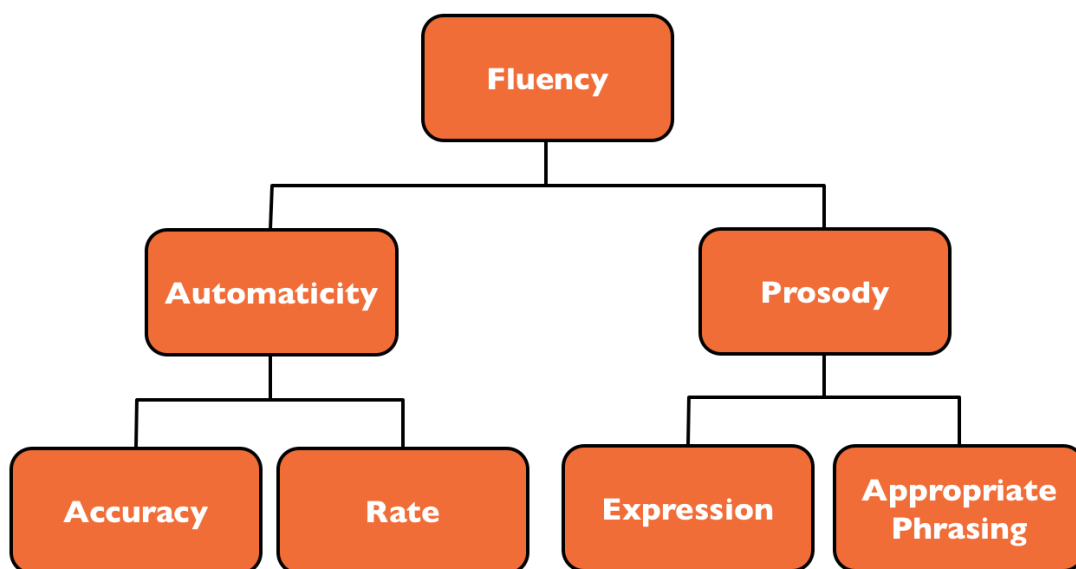
Examine the Fluency section. What key words describe what fourth-grade students are expected to know and be able to do?

Pause for participants to read. Key words include “fluency,” “rate,” “accuracy,” “expression,” “appropriate phrasing,” and “comprehension.”

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2009

Components of Fluency



Slide 5—Components of Fluency

(3:30–4:30)

Reading fluency can be thought of as a bridge that connects decoding and comprehension. Fluency is reading with automaticity and prosody. Automaticity combines accuracy and rate. Fluent readers make few or no errors (accuracy) and read text at a conversational pace (rate). We discussed accuracy in the Word Study section of this academy.

Prosody refers to reading orally with expression, including proper intonation, pausing, and phrasing.

Point to the components on the diagram (accuracy, rate, prosody, expression, appropriate phrasing) as you discuss the following information.

References

Foorman et al., 2016; Moats, 2004; Rasinski, 2004; Shanahan, 2016

Accuracy, Rate, and Prosody

Fluency Component	Description	Prerequisite
Accuracy	Ability to recognize or decode words correctly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding of the alphabetic principle • Ability to blend sounds and syllables into words • Knowledge of high-frequency words
Rate	The speed at which one accurately reads connected text	Ability to read words with automaticity
Prosody	Reading orally with expression, including proper intonation, pausing, and phrasing	Understanding of meaningful phrasing and syntax



Slide 6—Accuracy, Rate, and Prosody

(4:30–6:00)

Fluency is not an individual skill—it is a combination of skills. Fluency is part decoding and part comprehension.

It takes explicit instruction and sufficient practice with teacher feedback to be able to read words correctly with prosody. This table lists the fluency components, their descriptions, and their prerequisites. Review this table carefully and think about all that needs to be learned to become a fluent reader.

Pause for participants to review the slide.

This instruction takes place across several grade levels.

References

Geva & Zadeh, 2006; Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2013; Shanahan, 2016

How Fluency Connects to Comprehension

- **Accuracy:** If words are not read correctly, the reader may misinterpret the author's intended meaning.
- **Rate:** Slow, laborious reading makes it difficult for the reader to construct an ongoing interpretation of the text.
- **Prosody:** Poor prosody can lead to confusion if words are inappropriately grouped or if inappropriate expression is used.



Slide 7—How Fluency Connects to Comprehension (6:00–7:00)

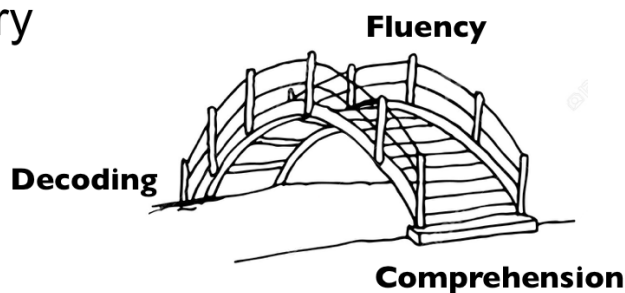
Accuracy, rate, and prosody have a clear connection to comprehension. If words are misread, the text will likely be misinterpreted. Reading too slowly makes it difficult to keep a mental picture of what one is reading. The text may be confusing if words are not grouped correctly or if inappropriate expression is used.

Reference

Honig et al., 2013

Factors That Affect Fluency

- Reading comprehension
- Words recognized automatically
- Automaticity and accuracy of decoding
- Metacognition and purpose for reading
- Motivation and engagement
- Vocabulary



Slide 8—Factors That Affect Fluency

(7:00–8:30)

As previously stated, fluency and comprehension have a reciprocal relationship in that fluency forms the bridge between word recognition and meaning construction.

The most important factor that explains differences in reading fluency is words recognized automatically. The process of figuring out an unknown word, or a word that is not recognized instantaneously, slows the rate of reading.

When words cannot be read by “sight,” or automatically—they must be decoded. When decoding is not quick and accurate, fluency suffers.

Reading fluency can also suffer if a student is not engaged in the text or motivated to read.

In addition, the size and accessibility of students’ vocabulary influences fluency. A large vocabulary can help students decode an unfamiliar word. That is, when students have a word in their oral vocabulary, it is easier to decode and understand

Notes continue on the next page.

that word. Taking a long time to access meanings of words can cause fluency problems.

References

Geva & Zadeh, 2006; Honig et al., 2013; Pikulski & Chard, 2005; Torgesen & Hudson, 2006

Why Teach Fluency?

When students must put more effort into recognizing words, they have less attention to devote to comprehension.

“At its heart, fluency instruction is focused on ensuring that word reading becomes automatic so that readers have sufficient cognitive resources to understand what they read.”

— Honig et al., 2008, p. 321



Slide 9—Why Teach Fluency?

(8:30–9:30)

Nonfluent readers focus their attention primarily on decoding individual words, leaving little attention free for comprehension. They often make inconsistent errors from sentence to sentence and paragraph to paragraph and ignore punctuation. Fluent readers can focus most of their attention on understanding text. So teaching fluency is an important aspect of literacy instruction.

Take a moment to read the quotation on the slide.

Allow participants a moment to read the quotation.

Now, we will discuss fluency assessment and goals.

References

Honig et al., 2013; Hudson et al., 2005; Foorman et al., 2016

Fluency Assessment

- Listen to students read aloud and collect information about their accuracy, rate, and prosody.
- Use the information collected to make instructional decisions about how to help students improve reading fluency with the overall goal of improving reading achievement.



Slide 10—Fluency Assessment

(9:30–10:30)

Oral reading fluency is a complex skill that develops gradually. It is important to use assessments to determine which students need more fluency instruction and to identify specific areas of weakness to plan that instruction.

We will take a closer look at how fluency can be measured, so that fourth-grade teachers can use the information collected to make productive instructional decisions.

References

Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006; Hudson et al., 2005; Kuhn, Schwanenflugel, & Meisinger, 2010; National Reading Panel (NRP), 2000

Measuring Students' Reading Accuracy



- To determine a student's reading accuracy for a specific text, use the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{number of words read correctly}}{\text{total number of words read}} = \text{percent accuracy}$$

- Use the percent accuracy to determine whether the text is at the student's independent level, instructional level, or frustration level.

Activity

In September, a fourth-grade student reads 103 words correctly out of 112 total words read. What are the percent accuracy and reading level?

___ ÷ ___ = .___ = ___ percent (_____ level)



Slide 11—Measuring Students' Reading Accuracy (10:30–14:00)

We will first discuss accuracy. With a partner, quickly state the meaning of accuracy.

Pause for participants to discuss.

To calculate a student's percent accuracy, divide the number of words read correctly by the total number of words read.

Handout 1: Measuring Reading Accuracy and Reading Fluency Levels

illustrates how to calculate percent accuracy. Please locate the handout and review step one.

Allow a minute for participants to locate and review step one.

After determining a student's percent accuracy, we can determine the reading level of the text for the student. Review this information in step two on the handout.

Notes continue on the next page.

Allow a minute for participants to review step two.

Readers who score in the 95 percent to 100 percent range, or the independent level, can read the text or a text of similar difficulty without assistance. Those who score in the 90 percent to 94 percent range can read the text with support. Readers who score below 90 percent will find the text and other texts of similar difficulty challenging to read, even with assistance.

Independent- and instructional-level texts are most often used to **build fluency**. **Texts at a student's instructional level** are used when **a teacher or a more advanced reader models** and facilitates a discussion about the text.

It is also important to note that reading accuracy levels vary from text to text.

Note to Presenter

Students' comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, and metacognitive abilities are some variables that can influence reading accuracy level across texts.

Activity

Let's practice calculating percent accuracy to determine the reading level of a text for a student. You will need Handout 1 as a reference and a calculator. Please read the activity on the slide and calculate the reading accuracy for this fourth-grade student. Then, using the accuracy percentage, determine the reading level of the text for this student.

Allow one minute for participants to work. The answer is 92 percent accuracy and instructional level. The percent accuracy is calculated by dividing 103 by 112.

Tell your partner the percent accuracy and reading fluency level you determined. Then, discuss the instructional setting that would best meet the needs of this fourth-grade student. As a reminder, the table in the handout includes information on instructional settings.

References

Armbruster et al., 2001; Fuchs, Fuchs, Hamlett, Walz, & Germann, 1993; Gunning, 2006; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006; Honig et al., 2013

Measuring Students' Reading Rate

In a one-minute reading, subtract the errors from the total words read to determine the number of words read correctly per minute (WCPM).

Example

If a student reads 93 words and makes eight errors in one minute, the student reads 85 WCPM.

$$93 \text{ words} - 8 \text{ errors} = 85 \text{ WCPM}$$



Slide 12—Measuring Students' Reading Rate

(14:00–16:00)

Now, we will continue talking about accuracy, but we will combine it with rate. With a partner, quickly state the meaning of rate.

Pause for participants to discuss.

Reading accuracy refers to reading words aloud correctly, without regard to reading rate. The combination of reading accuracy and rate (automaticity) is considered a student's oral reading fluency. Oral reading fluency is usually measured as the number of words read correctly per minute, or WCPM.

To calculate a student's WCPM for a one-minute reading, take the number of errors the student made and subtract from the total number of words read. Look at the example on the slide.

Allow participants a moment to read the example.

References

Armbruster et al., 2001; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006; Hudson et al., 2005; Kuhn et al., 2010; NRP, 2000; Shanahan, 2016

Oral Reading Fluency Norms



- Compare your students' fluency scores to those of fourth-graders at the beginning, middle, and end of the year.
- Determine each student's fluency progress.
- Reflect on the type and intensity of fluency instruction needed to improve fluency outcomes.

There is significant evidence that supports all students reading at or near the 50th percentile to increase motivation, comprehension, and achievement.

(Hasbrouck, 2006)



Slide 13—Oral Reading Fluency Norms

(16:00–17:30)

Locate Handout 2: Oral Reading Fluency Norms.

Allow time for participants to locate the handout.

This handout presents the median range of reading fluency at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 90th percentiles of first- through fifth-grade students. Data were systematically collected in the fall, winter, and spring over the course of a nine-year study.

Look at the fourth-grade row. Locate the WCPM for the fall, winter, and spring for each percentile in this grade level.

Pause for participants to locate and review the row.

It is recommended that a score falling within 10 words above or below the 50th percentile should be interpreted as within the normal, expected, and appropriate range for a student at that grade level at that time of year.

By comparing your students' scores to those of fourth-graders at the beginning, middle, and end of the year, as shown on the handout, you can determine each student's fluency progress, as well as the intensity and type of fluency instruction he or she might need.

We will use Handout 2 in the Using Assessment Data section of the academy, so please place it in your folder.

Reference

Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006

Setting Oral Reading Fluency Goals

- Baseline fluency scores can be used to determine students' fluency goals.
- The recommended weekly improvement for fourth-grade students is 0.85 to 1.1 WCPM.



Slide 14—Setting Oral Reading Fluency Goals

(17:30–20:00)

Once you know a student's baseline fluency score, you can establish instructional goals for rate and accuracy. A recommended weekly rate of improvement for fourth-grade students is 0.85 (realistic) to 1.1 (ambitious) WCPM. Different sources suggest varying fluency goals.

One way to set realistic, attainable goals for your students is to map out a goal relative to the number of weeks remaining in the school year, along with the benchmark that is expected at the end of the year.

Locate **Handout 3: Setting Fluency Goals**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

We will analyze this fourth-grade student's fluency data and set fluency goals.

*Review step one with participants to calculate the total improvement needed to meet the end-of-year benchmark. Then, place the **Activity Resource** on the document camera.*

Now, review the rest of the handout and reflect on the following questions:

- How do you determine weekly or biweekly WCPM gains to meet the end-of-year fluency benchmark?
- How do you determine the intensity and type of instruction needed to help students in need of intervention meet their fluency benchmark?
- How do you set a midyear fluency benchmark?

Allow one minute for participants to review the remainder of the handout.

References

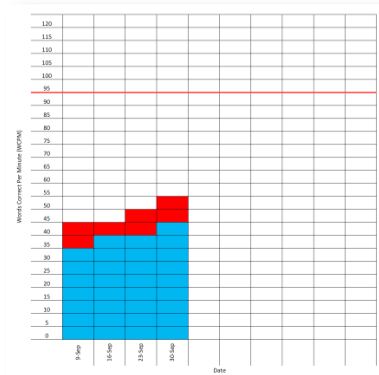
Armbruster et al., 2001; Fuchs et al., 1993; Gunning, 2006; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006

Monitoring Fluency Progress



One way to monitor students' fluency progress is to have students do the following:

- Individually read unpracticed text (cold read) to you and graph the WCPM
- Practice rereading the same text several times
- Individually read the same text again to you
- Graph the WCPM in a different color



Find customized fluency graphs at www.fluentreader.org



Slide 15—Monitoring Fluency Progress

(20:00–22:00)

Monitoring students' fluency progress provides valuable information about instruction and learning.

A helpful practice is to have students regularly graph their own fluency rate. Tracking their progress in visual and numerical forms can motivate students to improve their fluency. This motivation is critical for struggling readers who are easily discouraged. Without graphs, students often do not realize the progress they are making or the importance of rereading texts.

Keep in mind that it is more reliable to take an average WCPM from two or three readings of different texts than from a single read of one text. Also remember that students should read instructional-level text when practicing or being monitored.

Read and discuss the procedure described on the slide.

Locate **Handout 4: Fluency Monitoring Over Time**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

These graphs can be used to monitor students' progress in reading fluency.

An additional resource for customizing fluency graphs can be found at www.fluentreader.org

References

Armbruster et al., 2001; Gunning, 2006; Hasbrouck & Hougen, 2012; Hudson et al., 2005; Rasinski et al., 2011

Marking Fluency Errors



- Mark with a slash (/) substitutions, mispronunciations, omissions, hesitations greater than three seconds (when providing the student with the correct word), and reversals.
- Note that in some measures, mispronunciations of proper nouns are not counted as errors.
- Do not mark insertions, repetitions, and self-corrections.



Slide 16—Marking Fluency Errors

(22:00–24:00)

Mark different types of errors when monitoring fluency. We suggest marking the following errors with a slash:

- Substitutions
- Mispronunciations
- Omissions
- Hesitations greater than three seconds (when providing the word for the student)
- Reversals

Please note that in some measures, mispronunciations of proper nouns are not counted as errors. Other types of errors that typically are not marked include insertions, repetitions, and self-corrections. Insertions and repetitions are not

counted as errors because the extra time required for students to add words to the text or to repeat words increases the total reading time used to calculate fluency.

Activity

Procedures for informally assessing fluency are provided on **Handout 5: Monitoring Reading Fluency** in both English and Spanish. Practice for marking fluency errors is found on **Handout 6: Marking Fluency Errors Practice**. Please locate the handouts.

Pause for participants to locate the handouts. Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Read the procedures on Handout 5. Then, with a partner, practice identifying the types of errors in the first four sentences on Handout 6. Decide whether the errors count against the student in the assessment. You have one minute to complete this activity. I will place the answer key on the document camera after the one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to complete the activity. Then place Presenter Resource 1: Marking Fluency Errors Practice on the document camera and review with participants.

We will use Handout 5 in the Using Assessment Data section of the academy, so please place it in your folder.

References

Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 1992; Reutzel & Cooter, 1999

Measuring Students' Prosody



- Listen to a student orally read an independent-level text.
- Compare the characteristics of the student's prosody to a prosody rating scale, or rubric.
- Determine instruction in one or more areas of prosody—stress, phrasing, intonation, expression, or pausing.



Slide 17—Measuring Students' Prosody

(24:00–25:30)

Now that we have discussed automaticity (accuracy and rate), we will discuss another important component of fluency, prosody.

Prosody becomes more important as text difficulty increases—due in part to syntax becoming more relevant. When you listen to a student read, you should be able to understand the message because the student groups the words appropriately into phrases and clauses. To read in this way, a student has to use punctuation and meaning to quickly interpret the sentences.

Measuring prosody is more complex than measuring accuracy or rate because it is more subjective.

To measure prosody, select a text at the student's independent level that has approximately 200 words and a variety of dialogue, emotion, punctuation, and sentence structures. Listen to the student read the text. Then, compare the student's reading to a prosody rating scale, or rubric. Finally, determine instruction in one or more areas of prosody—stress, phrasing, intonation, expression, or pausing.

Locate **Handout 7: Measuring Prosody**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout is one example of a scale that can be used to score prosody. You will be provided with another example in the Using Assessment Data section of the academy. The handout is provided in English and Spanish.

References

Honig et al., 2013; Shanahan, 2016

Features of Effective Instruction and Reading Fluency

- **Explicit instruction with modeling**
Modeling of fluent and nonfluent reading
- **Systematic instruction with scaffolding**
Consistent routines and highly structured scaffolds that are reduced over time
- **Multiple opportunities for students to practice and respond**
Carefully orchestrated oral reading practice
- **Immediate and corrective feedback**
Monitoring of oral reading accuracy, rate, and prosody and adaptations of instruction as needed



Slide 18—Features of Effective Instruction and Reading Fluency

(25:30–26:00)

It is important to use the features of effective instruction when teaching fluency. Modeling fluent and nonfluent reading helps students learn how good reading sounds—and doesn't sound. Consistent routines for both fluency instruction and practice ensure a systematic approach. Evidence-based instructional practices, such as repeated oral reading, provide students with multiple opportunities for practice. And providing immediate and corrective feedback as students read helps to build their fluency.

We will now examine practices that include these four features and that support fourth-grade students' fluency.

Effective Fluency Instructional Practices

Teacher Support	Practice
Structured	Modeled reading Choral reading, teacher-led reading, echo reading, audio-recorded reading
Scaffolded	Phrase-cued reading Repeated reading
Facilitated	Partner reading Reading performances Readers theater, radio reading, TV performances Student-recorded reading Whisper reading



Slide 19—Effective Fluency Instructional Practices (26:00–27:00)

When using the practices listed on the slide, remember to take into consideration the level of the text and the fluency level at which the student is currently reading.

We will discuss each of these fluency practices, beginning with instruction that is very structured and teacher led. We will then discuss a less structured and more scaffolded level of instruction. Finally, we will talk about instruction in fluency in which your role is primarily to facilitate. We also will examine how these practices can be individualized.

Although you have all levels of fluent readers in your class, all of your students may benefit from each level of fluency instruction.

References

Armbruster et al., 2001; Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Hasbrouck & Hougen, 2012; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; Mastropieri et al., 1999; NRP, 2000; Samuels & Farstrup, 2002, 2006; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004; Worthy, 2005

Structured Fluency Instruction



- Demonstrate examples and nonexamples of fluent reading.
- Have students listen to recordings of different levels of fluent reading.
- Review fluency keywords and definitions.
- Help students chunk words into manageable phrases or statements.



Slide 20—Structured Fluency Instruction

(27:00–28:30)

Locate **Handout 8: Instructional Recommendations to Enhance Fluency**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

We will begin by looking at the first column. The top section lists ways to provide structured, explicit instruction in all fluency components. For example, you can model examples and nonexamples of fluent reading. Also, students can listen to audio-recorded reading and discuss observed fluency strengths and weaknesses.

Review fluency keywords and their definitions from the TEKS with students. Help students to use these words when rating your oral reading modeling and listening to the audio recordings you provide.

Train students to read fluently by chunking sentences into manageable phrases.

References

Armbruster et al., 2001; Hasbrouck & Hougen, 2012; Kuhn & Schwanenflugel, 2006; Fuchs et al., 1997; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; Mastropieri et al., 1999; Rasinski et al., 2011

Structured Fluency Instruction: Modeling Fluent Reading



- **Choral reading:** Students read aloud with you.
- **Teacher-led reading:** Students follow along as you read. Adjust your volume to highlight difficult parts of the text.
- **Echo reading:** Students read after you have read a section of the text.
- **Audio-recorded reading:** Students listen to, follow along, and read recorded texts at their independent level.



Slide 21—Structured Fluency Instruction: Modeling Fluent Reading

(28:30–31:00)

A strong instructional technique to use with all students, particularly struggling readers and ELLs, is modeling fluent reading. We will discuss and demonstrate four different techniques for modeling fluent reading, which are also listed in the first column of Handout 8.

With all the techniques, students need to see the words as they hear them being read. Thus, it is important that each student has a copy of the text to follow along.

In choral reading, students read aloud with you as a whole group. Use a pace that students can keep up with. Choral reading can be used instead of traditional round-robin reading, in which all students follow along while individual students take turns reading. Round-robin reading is not an effective strategy because it does not provide enough practice.

Notes continue on the next page.

Model choral reading the first paragraph of “The Ever-Changing Sky.” Each table has copies of the text for participants to follow along.

In teacher-led reading, you read aloud and students follow along with you. Raise your voice during the reading at points where students may need additional support, such as difficult words or phrases. Lower your voice when support is not needed.

Model teacher-led reading using the second paragraph of “The Ever-Changing Sky.” Raise your voice for the following words and phrases: “revolves,” “rotates,” “axis,” “imaginary line,” “rotation,” and “to complete one rotation on its axis—a day, that’s right!”

In echo reading, you read a segment of text aloud while students follow along, and then your students read the same segment of text aloud while tracking the print.

Model echo reading phrases and sentences from the third paragraph of “The Ever-Changing Sky.”

Students can listen to and follow along with audio recordings of a fluent reader reading texts at their independent level. Another option is a computer-based method that highlights text on the screen as it is read. Afterward, students complete a rereading of the text or a portion of the text, depending on length. It is important to use texts at the students’ independent reading level because a more proficient reader is not available to offer support.

References

Fuchs et al., 1997; Honig et al., 2013; Mastropieri et al., 1999

Scaffolded Fluency Instruction



- Remind students of the goals during fluency instruction.
- Provide immediate feedback.
- Ask follow-up fluency questions.
- Scaffold self-regulation of fluency components.
- Implement teacher-supported reading activities in small groups.



Slide 22—Scaffolded Fluency Instruction

(31:00–32:00)

Next, we will discuss scaffolded fluency instruction. This type of instruction is covered in the second column of Handout 8. Teacher-supported reading activities are used in small-group instructional settings.

Remind students that the goal during fluency instruction is to read in a natural manner as if they were speaking—not too quickly. A conversational pace of reading supports students' understanding of the text. You may still need to model fluent reading as a scaffold.

When students appeal to you for a word, be consistent in the amount of time you allow before correcting an error. This will help you gauge whether the student will self-correct or simply read words incorrectly and continue.

Ask follow-up questions regarding the student's fluency. For example, you could ask students the following:

Notes continue on the next page.

- “Did you read that passage at a proper rate?”
- “Did you really get into the character when you were reading?”
- “How could you reread that sentence with more emphasis on what the character is trying to say?”

Move students toward a more self-regulatory role in their fluency development. If you ask students questions regarding their fluency development and remind students that fluency is the goal of a lesson, they will be more conscious of what is expected of them.

Use text at students’ instructional and independent levels for teacher-supported activities in small groups. Listen to students read in groups and provide them with immediate and corrective feedback regarding their reading. Use unrehearsed text only if you feel that your students will read at the independent or instructional level on the first read.

Next, we will discuss two examples of teacher-supported small-group activities listed in the second column of Handout 8—phrase-cued reading and repeated reading.

References

Armbruster et al., 2001; Hasbrouck et al., 1999; Hasbrouck & Hougen, 2012; Honig et al., 2013; Kuhn & Schwanenflugel, 2006; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; O’Connor, White, & Swanson, 2007; Oddo, Barnett, Hawkins, & Musti-Rao, 2010; Rasinski et al., 2011

Scaffolded Fluency Instruction: Phrased-Cued Text



One of the chief characteristics / of the disfluent reader / is staccato, / word-by-word / oral reading. // Decoding tends to be so difficult for these readers / that they stumble / over nearly every word. // They do not easily grasp / the meaning of phrases / because they don't process text / in phrasal units. //

— Rasinski, 2003, p. 140



Slide 23—Scaffolded Fluency Instruction: Phrased-Cued Text

(32:00–33:30)

A phrase-cued text has phrases explicitly marked, or cued, for the reader. Phrase-cued reading can be used with students who read accurately and at an appropriate rate but have difficulty with prosody. Reading with appropriate phrasing means that words are chunked together into meaningful units.

When students practice phrase-cued reading, they should read text at their independent level.

Phrase-cueing text by marking phrase boundaries gives students added support in reading prosodically. Single slashes can be used to indicate boundaries within a sentence, usually short pauses, and double slashes can be used for boundaries at the end of a sentence, indicating a longer pause.

Notes continue on the next page.

On the slide is a phrase-cued quotation. Let's practice reading this phrased-cued text. We will read the slide together chorally, paying attention to the slash marks.

Read the slide chorally with participants.

Activity

Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

With a partner, discuss what kind of students might benefit from phrase-cued text and when you might use phrase-cued text in your classroom.

Provide time for participants to discuss.

Reference

Rasinski, 2003, p. 140

Scaffolded Fluency Instruction: Repeated Reading

- Has been shown to improve reading fluency
- Should be practiced with previously read text
- Can be implemented after most fluency instructional activities
- Works best when students are told that the goal is to improve fluency



Slide 24—Scaffolded Fluency Instruction: Repeated Reading

(33:30–34:30)

Words that students struggle with during a first read are not unfamiliar on subsequent reads, leading to fewer problems.

When rereading a passage during fluency instruction, whether a short passage or even a chapter book, have students begin at the same place. Have students mark where they began reading and return to the same place to reread.

Rereading can be used after most types of fluency instruction.

Do not have students reread passages that are too long or time consuming. If passages are too long, students may have less success self-correcting errors during the reread. Remind students that the goal during fluency instruction is to improve rate, accuracy, and/or prosody, depending on students' individual needs.

Facilitated Fluency Instruction



- Provide explicit reminders of fluency goals.
- Continue to review fluency components and keywords.
- Integrate the keywords into your feedback.
- Have students engage in activities such as reading performances, audio-recordings of their own reading, whisper phones, and partner reading.



Slide 25—Facilitated Fluency Instruction

(34:30–36:00)

Now, we will talk about instruction in fluency when your role is a facilitator. This type of fluency instruction is discussed in the third column of Handout 8.

As we have discussed for other types of fluency instruction, during facilitated fluency instruction, provide explicit reminders of fluency goals and continue to review fluency components and keywords. Integrate the keywords into your feedback.

Reading performances, or acting out texts while reading, help students to develop their oral reading fluency. The goal of these performances is to improve reading fluency. Students should devote the majority of their time reading and rereading the script that you have provided.

Students reading to younger students or to another class can also be considered a reading performance. Just be sure to provide the student with time to prepare and reread the text.

Another easy way to facilitate fluency development is to have students record their own reading. Choose texts with students that are at their independent or instructional level. Students can read into an audio-recording device, listen to their recording, and then reread the same text. This activity is a great way for students to develop their “voice” for reading.

Using whisper phones is a facilitated method to improve fluency. Students quietly read a text into the whisper phone, which amplifies and directs their voice to their ears. The teacher monitors and provides corrective feedback as necessary.

Model for participants how to hold the whisper phone to read text.

Another research-based activity is partner reading. We will look at partner reading in more depth now.

Facilitated Fluency Instruction: Partner Reading—The Basics



- An advanced reader is paired with a less advanced reader.
- Partners practice rereading text at the independent or instructional level of the less advanced reader.
- Each pair reads and receives feedback from each other or the teacher.



Slide 26—Facilitated Fluency Instruction: Partner Reading—The Basics

(36:00–39:00)

Partner reading is a research-based strategy that incorporates repeated reading and immediate, explicit feedback to aid fluency development.

Activity

Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Handout 9: Partner Reading provides guidance on how to strategically pair students and select appropriate text. On the second page is an example partner reading procedure. Review the handout and then explain to your partner how to pair students for partner reading. Then discuss what level of text should be used during partner reading. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to locate, review, and discuss the handout.

Partner reading is considered facilitated fluency instruction because your students do the brunt of the work. You prepare the text and select the pairs, but during the activity itself, you facilitate instruction.

It is important to model each step of the routine and have students practice with teacher feedback until the routine is up and running effectively. Partner reading may take up to six weeks to fully implement.

Partner Reading: A Teacher's Step-by-Step Outline



1. Prepare student folders, including two copies of the text and two graphs for students to use when recording their WCPM.
2. Have students move to their partner reading locations.
3. Distribute the folders.



Slide 27—Partner Reading: A Teacher's Step-by-Step Outline

(39:00–41:00)

We will now examine a six-step procedure for implementing partner reading.

The first step in the partner reading procedure is to prepare folders that include the text and graphs for students to use when graphing their WCPM.

In the next step, have students move to their designated partner reading locations. Many students reading at once is noisy, so try to arrange students so that they disturb each other as little as possible.

In the third step, hand out the student folders containing the graphs and reading passages. For your reference, **Handout 10: Fluency Folders** illustrates one way to organize students' fluency folders.

Provide time for participants to review the handout.

Partner Reading: A Teacher's Step-by-Step Outline (cont.)

4. Time students for one minute while they complete each of the following reads.
 - **Unrehearsed, or “cold,” read:** The less advanced reader reads first while the advanced reader provides error-correction support, then the advanced reader reads, and then both readers graph their WCPM.
 - **Practice read:** The advanced reader reads first, the less advanced reader practices the passage next, and then both students discuss differences in fluency from the cold read to the practice read.
 - **Final read:** The less advanced reader reads first; the advanced reader follows; and then both readers graph their WCPM, compare it to the cold read, and discuss goals.



Slide 28—Partner Reading: A Teacher's Step-by-Step Outline (cont.) (41:00–42:00)

In step four, time students for one minute each while they complete their reads.

In the unrehearsed, or “cold,” read, the less advanced reader reads first while the advanced reader provides error-correction support. Then the advanced reader reads. Both readers graph their WCPM.

The practice read occurs next. The more advanced reader reads the passage first this time while the less advanced reader follows along, and then the less advanced reader practices the passage. Students talk about the difference in their fluency compared to the cold read. Although students do not graph WCPM for the practice read, they can compare rate, accuracy, etc. Listen for students to use their fluency key words during these discussions.

In the final read, the less advanced reader reads the passage first, and then the advanced reader follows. Both readers graph their WCPM and compare it with

Notes continue on the next page.

the cold read. Students then discuss whether they met their fluency goals. If they were met, students should discuss increasing their goals for the next time. If not, students should talk about ways to improve for the next partner reading segment.

Partner Reading: A Teacher's Step-by-Step Outline (cont.)

5. Collect the folders.
6. Confer with student pairs about their fluency achievements and goal setting for their next partner reading.



Slide 29—Partner Reading: A Teacher's Step-by-Step Outline (cont.) **(42:00–42:30)**

The last two steps involve collecting folders and conferencing with student pairs about their fluency achievements.

Partner reading is a great way to build fluency, but it requires time to set up the procedures and teach the process to the students. In fact, it may take a full week of fluency instruction time to practice partner reading directions and protocol.

Partner Reading Resources



- Handout 11: Repeated-Reading Record
- Handout 12: Partner Reading With Error Correction
- Handout 13: Partner Reading With Retell
- Handout 14: Partner Reading With Comprehension Check
- Handout 15: Instructional Feedback



Slide 30—Partner Reading Resources

(42:30–44:00)

Let's quickly review several handouts that you can use for partner reading. Please locate Handouts 11 to 15.

Pause for participants to locate the handouts.

Handout 11: Repeated-Reading Record is a great way for students to see their improvement from the cold read to the practice read and final read. Students log the number of words read, subtract their errors, and calculate WCPM before graphing results. You may need to help your students calculate and fill in this information at first. This handout can also be used as a math activity. This handout is provided in English and Spanish.

The error-correction cue cards provided in **Handout 12: Partner Reading With Error Correction** can be used during all three reads. A procedure and two cards are provided both in English and Spanish.

Handout 13: Partner Reading With Retell includes a modified partner reading lesson that incorporates fluency and comprehension and uses retell cue cards provided in both English and Spanish.

Handout 14: Partner Reading With Comprehension Check is another way to link fluency to comprehension. You can use this lesson with narrative or expository text with your partner pairs. The lesson and cue cards are provided in English and Spanish.

Handout 15: Instructional Feedback helps students support their partners. This handout is provided in English and Spanish.

Remember, it is important to model the use of these resources before students work with their partners.

Fluency in the Classroom



- Examine the instructional checklist for fluency.
- Note that the third row contains the fluency activities and lessons that we have discussed.
- Use the checklist to examine grouping formats, explicit instruction elements, activities and lessons, and materials in a fluency lesson.
- After the video, work with your tablemates to compare notes.



Slide 31—Fluency in the Classroom

(44:00–50:00)

Let's watch students build their reading fluency through partner reading. Please locate **Handout 16: Systematic Instruction: Fluency Checklist**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Similar to the ones we have used in the previous sections, the checklist has grouping formats, explicit instructional components, and materials used for teaching fluency. In the third row are the activities and lessons that we have discussed throughout this session.

As you watch the video, check the boxes on the handout for the different instructional elements you see. Also, take notes in the Comments column.

Video: Partner Reading With Retell

Play the video.

Now compare your checklist and notes with those of your tablemates. I will give you two minutes to discuss.

Provide two minutes for participants to work.

More Ways to Support Students' Fluency

- Identify and teach challenging words before students read a text.
- Remind students that the purpose for reading is to understand the meaning of the text.
- If students begin to guess how to read challenging words instead of using the strategies they have been taught, temporarily reduce fluency practice and increase activities to support word-reading accuracy.



Slide 32—More Ways to Support Students' Fluency (50:00–51:00)

Listed on this slide are additional ways to support students' fluency development that were discussed in the Word Study and Recognition section of the academy.

Reference

Foorman et al., 2016

Elements Related to Fluency

- Regular, irregular, and multisyllabic word-reading automaticity
- Sight-word development
- Literary and informational text reading
- Handwriting fluency
- Writing fluency



Slide 33—Elements Related to Fluency

(51:00–52:00)

For fourth-grade students to read connected text fluently, they need a strong foundation. This foundation consists of accurately and automatically recognizing letters and sound-spelling patterns.

Students also need practice in many elements related to reading fluency. This slide lists some of those elements. The fluency assessments we reviewed today will help you determine which type of instruction is needed.

To read fluently, fourth-grade students must develop regular, irregular, and multisyllabic word-reading automaticity.

Some fourth-grade students also need to build their sight-word knowledge. Games such as word-wall races can make word identification fun and motivating. Other effective activities were provided in the Word Study and Recognition section.

Notes continue on the next page.

Like all literacy instruction, fourth-grade students should practice reading and interpreting a variety of genres, both literary and informational.

You may have noticed handwriting fluency and writing fluency on this list. Although the focus in this section is oral reading fluency, research has shown that poor handwriting influences judgments about the quality of written work and the education and intelligence of writers. The failure to develop decoding skills can impair comprehension in readers, thus interfering with content in writing. We will discuss handwriting and writing fluency in the Writing section of this academy.

References

Briggs, 1980; Honig et al., 2013, Jones & Christensen, 1999; Perfetti, 1985

English Language Learners



- English oral language development and comprehension are critical factors in ELLs' development of reading fluency.
- Strong English skills can help ELLs with their reading fluency.
- Ensure that all texts used for fluency instruction are accessible to ELLs.
- Provide an overview of the story and explain unknown words and topics before ELLs read texts.



Slide 34—English Language Learners

(52:00–53:00)

Research has shown that ELLs' English oral language development and comprehension are critical factors in the development of reading fluency. ELLs with strong English language skills can capitalize on these skills to read more fluently. Effective fluency instruction for ELLs should take into consideration their language needs and be linguistically accommodated to support their language learning.

Ensure that you provide **structured**, **scaffolded**, and **facilitated** fluency instruction to ELLs. Carefully select and modify texts used for all fluency instruction to make sure they are accessible and comprehensible to ELLs. For meaningful fluency practice, begin with an overview of the story and explain unknown words and topics through quick drawings or pictures. When ELLs understand the story, they can focus more on their reading rate and accuracy.

Locate **Handout 17: Fluency Instruction Considerations for English Language Learners**.

Notes continue on the next page.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Look over the handout and choose the consideration that you think is most important.

Allow one minute for participants to work.

References

Geva & Farnia, 2012; Geva & Zadeh, 2006; Jimerson, Hong, Stage, & Gerber, 2013; Koskinen et al., 1999; Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Quirk & Beem, 2012; Ramírez & Shapiro, 2007; Saenz, Fuchs, & Fuchs, 2005; Zadeh, Farnia, & Geva, 2012

Students With Special Needs

Use assessment to determine at which level of intervention to begin.

- Letter-sound correspondence
- Single-syllable word decoding
- Two-syllable or compound word decoding
- Fluency with phrases
- Fluency with decodable text
- Fluency with a variety of instructional-level text



Slide 35—Students With Special Needs

(53:00–54:00)

When a student has persistent fluency problems, it is important to provide appropriate intervention by using assessment data to determine where the student is having difficulty.

The list on the slide is in order from less complex to more complex skills.

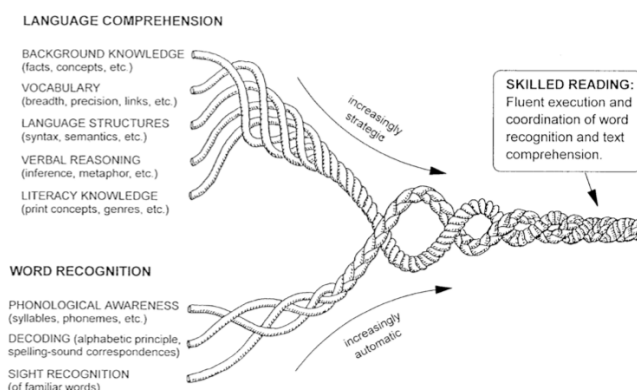
For example, if a student has not yet internalized the alphabetic principle, instruction should begin at the lowest level, letter-sound correspondence. The next levels are word decoding, first single-syllable and then multiple-syllable words. Next is fluency with phrases. After that is fluency with decodable text. Finally, use a wide range of instructional-level text until the student reads with prosody.

Reference

Moats, 2004

The Reading Rope

How could you use these instructional practices to improve the fluency of English language learners, struggling students, and gifted students?



Scarborough, 2001



Slide 36—The Reading Rope

(54:00–55:00)

We will represent the fluency part of our model of the reading rope at the end of our three days together. Fluency occurs when the two strands bind together seamlessly to create skilled readers who decode and comprehend text with automaticity. As fluency improves, students transition from learning to read to reading to learn. Therefore, we cannot represent fluency with only the word recognition strand completed in our model.

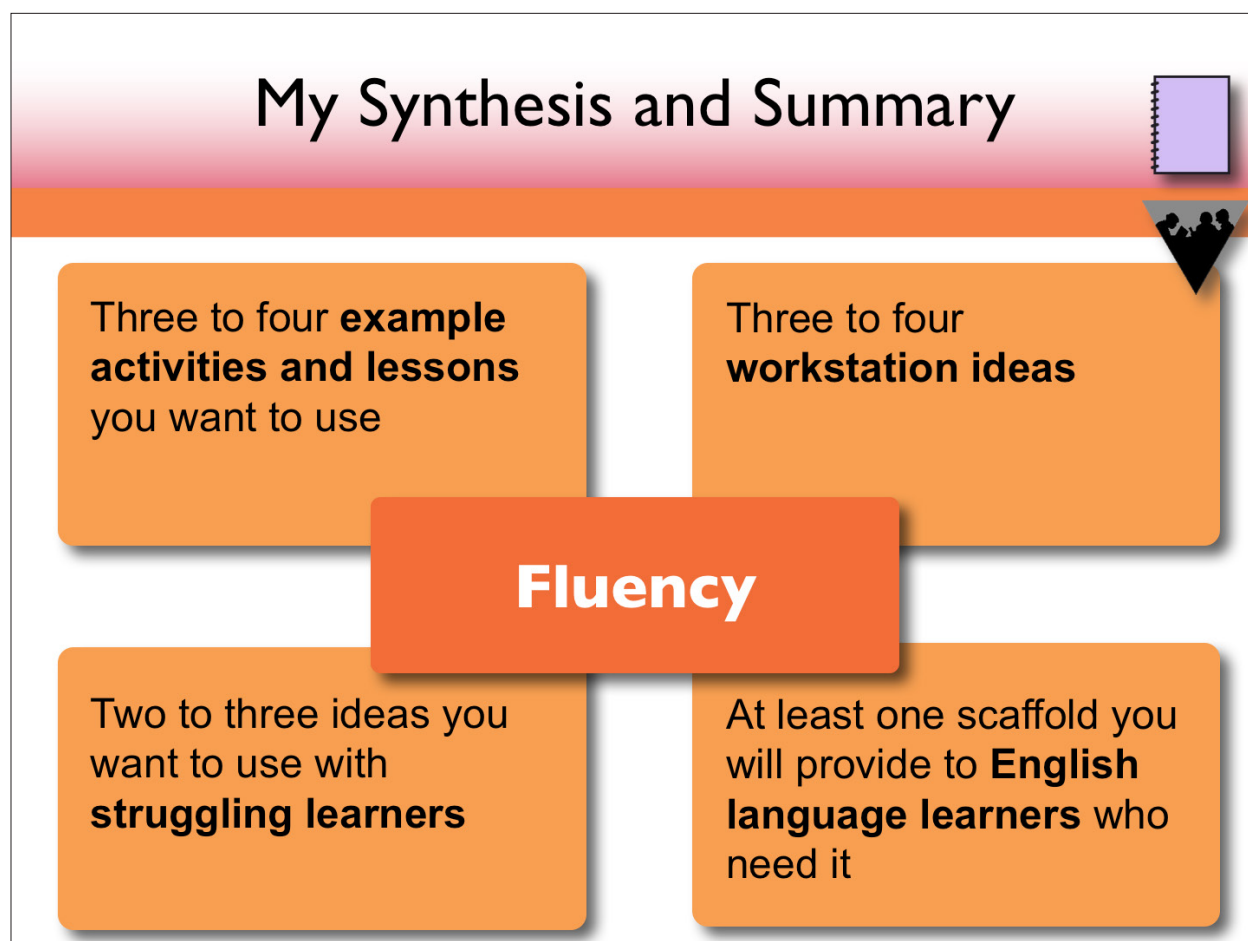
As we worked through this section on fluency, we continued to reflect on our guiding questions. When you are finished, please place your reading rope back into your folder.

Allow 30 seconds for participants to reflect on the questions.

Now that you have had time to reflect, let's see how our new learning can be applied to our daily instruction.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001



Slide 37—My Synthesis and Summary

(55:00–1:00:00)

Let's wrap up this section by synthesizing what we have learned and the implications of reading fluency within our literacy block.

Take out the Grade 4 Literacy Block and the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide from your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the resources.

As with the other sections, we will use these two documents to summarize what we have learned and how we can apply it to our literacy instruction when we get back to our classroom. On the Grade 4 Literacy Block handout, let's fill out the row for Fluency.

Display Presenter Resource 2 on the document camera.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Here is a model showing how I completed the Literacy Block document for this section.

Review the example on the presenter resource as needed.

When filling out the last column related to English language learners, you may refer to your English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide. Please take four minutes to fill out all four columns for this section.

Allow four minutes for participants to work.


Please place your Literacy Block and English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide back in your folder to use again in the next section.

We have finished the Fluency section of this academy. We will focus on vocabulary instruction next.



Fluency

Handouts

A graphic of a yellow pencil with a black eraser and a black band. The pencil is positioned horizontally, with its tip pointing to the left. The band has the text "GRADES 4 & 5" written on it in a black, sans-serif font.

READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Measuring Reading Accuracy and Reading Fluency Levels

1. Calculate the percent accuracy.

Divide the number of words read correctly by the total number of words read to calculate the percent accuracy level.

number of words read correctly ÷ total words read = percent accuracy

Example: If a student reads 48 words correctly out of 50 total words read, the percent accuracy is 96 percent.

$48 \div 50 = .96 = 96 \text{ percent}$

2. Determine the reading level of the text.

A 96 percent accuracy means that the text is at the student's independent reading level. See below.

Reading Level	Description	Accuracy Level*	Setting
Independent level	<p>This text is relatively easy for the student to read accurately without support.</p> <p>No more than approximately one in 20 words is difficult for the student.</p>	95 percent to 100 percent	The student reads independently with little or no instructional support.
Instructional level	<p>This text is challenging but manageable for the student to read accurately with support.</p> <p>No more than approximately one in 10 words is difficult for the student.</p>	90 percent to 94 percent	The teacher provides small-group instruction to allow for modeling, scaffolding, and feedback to support all components of fluency (accuracy, rate, prosody).
Frustration level	<p>This text is difficult for the student to read accurately.</p> <p>More than one in 10 words are difficult for the student.</p>	Less than 90 percent	The teacher models reading the text and facilitates discussion about the text.

*Reading accuracy levels vary from text to text.

Adapted from Gunning, 2006.

Oral Reading Fluency Norms

One way to determine whether a student may be struggling with reading grade-level materials is to compare the student's average score for words read correctly per minute (WCPM) to the following norms for the student's grade level at the closest time period: fall, winter, or spring. These norms were developed in a large-scale, multiyear study. It is recommended that a score falling within 10 words above or below the 50th percentile should be interpreted as being within the normal, expected, and appropriate range.

Grade	Percentile	WCPM Fall	WCPM Winter	WCPM Spring
1	90th	(Not reported in study)	81	111
	75th		47	82
	50th		23	53
	25th		12	28
	10th		6	15
2	90th	106	125	142
	75th	79	100	117
	50th	51	72	89
	25th	25	42	61
	10th	11	18	31
3	90th	128	146	162
	75th	99	120	137
	50th	71	92	107
	25th	44	62	78
	10th	21	36	48
4	90th	145	166	180
	75th	119	139	152
	50th	94	112	123
	25th	68	87	98
	10th	45	61	72
5	90th	166	182	194
	75th	139	156	168
	50th	110	127	139
	25th	85	99	109
	10th	61	74	83

Adapted from Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006.

Setting Fluency Goals

You can use oral reading fluency assessment scores to set short-term goals for students. Short-term goals help students see weekly progress. The following is an example of this process.

Step 1: Calculate Total Improvement Needed

At the beginning of the school year, a fourth-grade student's fluency score is 97 words correct per minute (WCPM). Calculate the total improvement needed to meet the end-of-year benchmark of 123 WCPM.

$$123 \text{ WCPM} - 97 \text{ WCPM} = 26 \text{ WCPM}$$

This student needs a minimum improvement of 26 WCPM to meet the benchmark.

Step 2: Determine Weekly or Biweekly Improvement Goal

This assessment was administered in September. Determine the number of weeks remaining in the semester and/or school year.

There are 30 weeks of instruction remaining in the school year.

Determine a weekly (or biweekly) improvement goal for the student to meet the end-of-year benchmark.

$$26 \text{ WCPM} \div 30 \text{ weeks} = 0.87 \text{ (1) WCPM gain per week}$$

The following findings from a research study (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hamlett, Walz, & Germann, 1993) can help teachers establish appropriate goals for weekly fluency improvement.

Grade	Recommended Weekly WCPM Gain
1	2 to 3
2	1.5 to 2
3	1 to 1.5
4	0.85 to 1.1
5	0.5 to 0.8

If appropriate, compare the student's scores to oral reading fluency norms to help determine the intensity and type of instruction needed to help the student meet benchmarks.

After two weeks of fluency instruction, the same fourth-grade student has gained seven WCPM. He has surpassed the weekly goal of 0.87 (1) WCPM. His fluency rate is now 104 WCPM. Based on the oral reading fluency norms in Handout 2, this student is in the bottom half of the fourth grade. Although improving, the student continues to need intervention to meet the benchmark.

If not already established, set a midyear benchmark to monitor the student's progress toward the end-of-year benchmark.

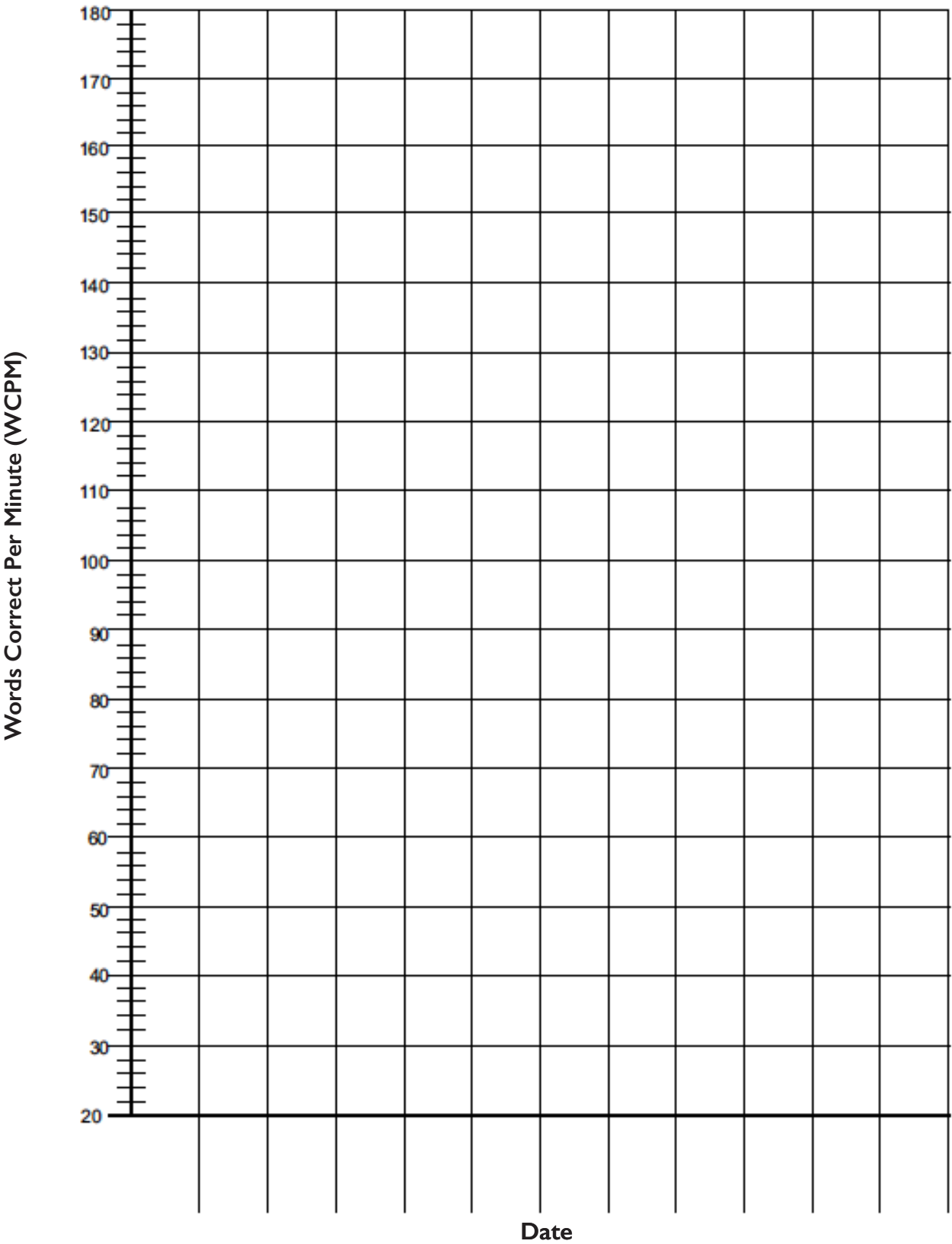
15 weeks remaining until midyear \times 0.87 WCPM gain per week = 13 WCPM

97 WCPM + 13 WCPM = 110 WCPM

This fourth-grade student's midyear fluency goal would be approximately 110 WCPM.

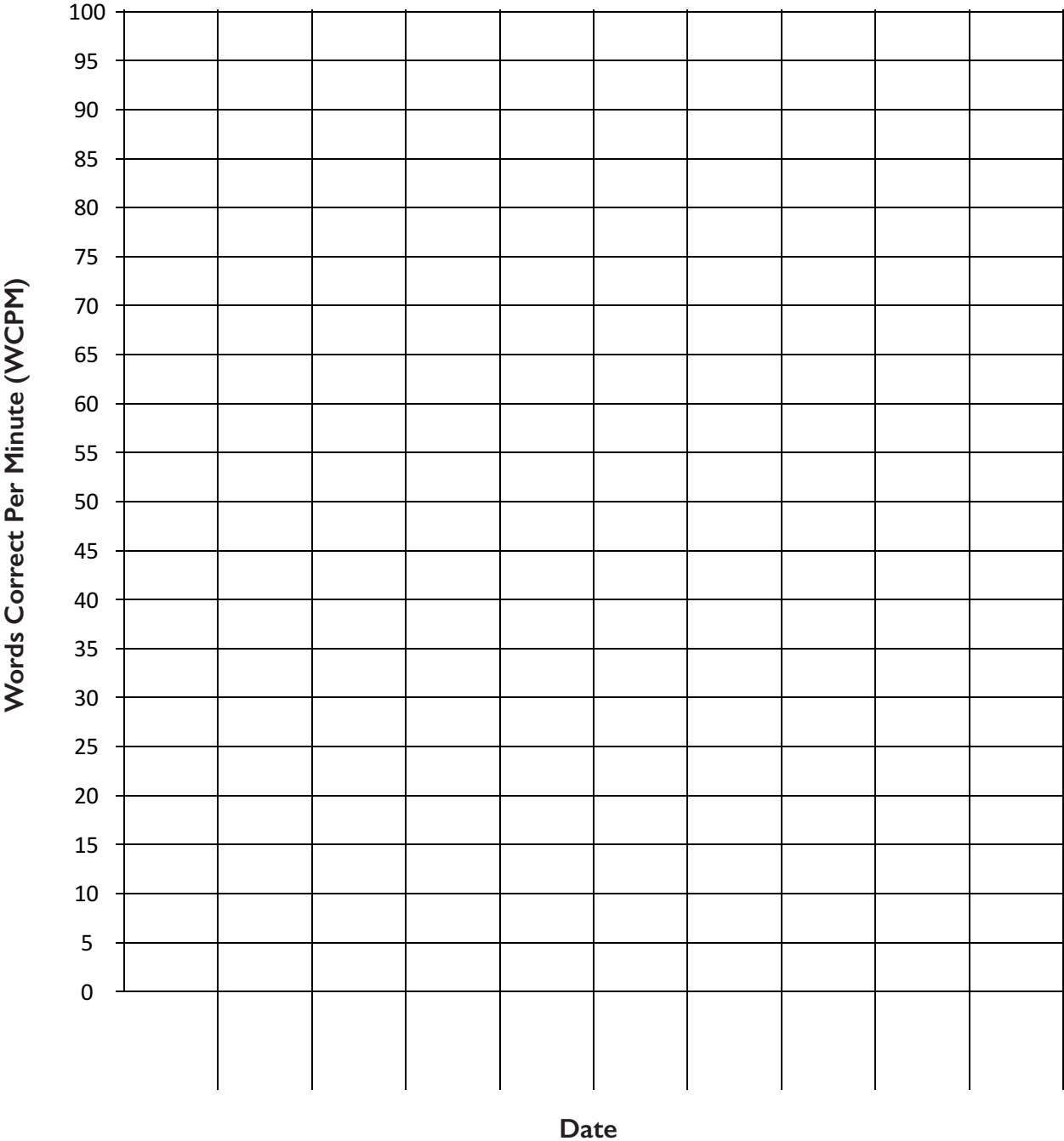
Fluency Monitoring Over Time

Name _____



Fluency Monitoring Over Time

Name _____



Monitoring Reading Fluency

Materials

- Two copies of text (one for recording errors and one for the student to read)
- Optional: Stopwatch and tape recorder

Procedure

“When I say to begin, start reading at the top of the page. Read across the page.”

Demonstrate by pointing.

“Try to read each word. If you come to a word you don’t know, I will tell it to you. Do your best reading.

“Are there any questions?”

Answer any questions.

“Begin.”

Start timing when the student begins reading aloud. If students “speed read,” stop and remind them to do their best reading, not their fastest reading.

Follow along on your copy. Put a slash (/) through words to reflect the following errors:

- *Substitutions*
- *Mispronunciations*
- *Omissions*
- *Hesitations of more than three seconds (say the word for the student)*
- *Reversals*

Do not count the following as errors:

- *Insertions*
- *Repetitions*
- *Self-corrections*

Stop timing at the end of one minute.

Mark the last word read. You may allow the student to finish reading to the end of the passage.

Adapted from Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Hasbrouck, & Tindal, 1992; Reutzel & Cooter, 1999.

Monitoreando la fluidez lectora

Materiales

- Dos copias de un texto (una para señalar los errores y otra para que el estudiante lea).
- Opcional: Cronómetro y grabadora

Procedimiento

“Cuando yo diga *empieza*, comienza a leer en voz alta al principio del texto.

“Lee de izquierda a la derecha.”

Demuestre con el dedo la dirección de la lectura.

“Trata de leer cada palabra. Si no puedes leer una palabra, yo te la diré. Lee lo mejor que puedas.

“¿Tienes alguna pregunta?”

Respuesta a alguna pregunta.

“Empieza.”

Empiece a contar el tiempo cuando el estudiante comience a leer en voz alta. Si el estudiante empieza a leer con mucha velocidad, deténgalo y diga, “Recuerda, lee lo mejor que puedas. No leas lo más rápido que puedas.”

Siga la lectura en su copia. Escriba una barra diagonal (/) sobre las palabras que sean leídas incorrectamente:

- *Substituciones*
- *Pronunciaciones incorrectas*
- *Omisiones*
- *Palabras que no sean leídas en 3 segundos o menos. Cuando el estudiante se tarde en leer una palabra más de 3 segundos, diga la palabra al estudiante y márkela como error.*
- *Cambio de orden de las letras*

No cuente como errores:

- *Palabras extras añadidas a la lectura*
- *Repeticiones*
- *Autocorrecciones*

Detenga el cronómetro al final de un minuto.

Marque la última palabra leída por el estudiante. Usted puede permitir que el estudiante acabe de leer el pasaje.

Adapted from Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Hasbrouck, & Tindal, 1992; Reutzel & Cooter, 1999.

Marking Fluency Errors Practice

In the table below, read each text excerpt and how the student read the text. Identify the kind of error the student made in the Kind of Error column (see the list below of types of student errors). Then decide whether the error is counted against the student. Write “yes” or “no” in the final column.

- Mispronunciation (mispronouncing a word)
- Substitution (saying a different word)
- Insertion (adding a word)
- Repetition (repeating a word or phrase)
- Reversal (reversing the order of the words)
- Hesitation (hesitating or struggling with a word for more than three seconds; provide the word for the student)
- Self-correction (self-correcting error within three seconds)
- Omission (leaving a word out)

Text	Student Reads	Kind of Error	Is Error Counted?
She saw the cat.	She saw a scary cat.		
I see the worm.	I see the word.		
He went to town.	He went to tent...town. (changed within three seconds)		
I see a bird.	I see the birb.		
He had a beach ball.	He had a beach ball, a beach ball.		
I was walking in a park.	I walking was in a park.		
I like his kindness.	I like his... (three-second pause)		
She went to school.	She went school.		

Measuring Prosody

Materials

- Two copies of text (one for recording observations and one for the student to read)
Select a text at the student's independent level that has approximately 200 words and a variety of dialogue, emotion, punctuation, and sentence structure.
- Prosody Assessment Summary Form (page 2 of this handout)

Procedure

1. Say: "I will listen to you read aloud. While you read, I will take some notes. The title of this text is _____. Please read the passage as if you are reading to someone who has never heard it before. If you come to a word you do not know, try to figure it out. Do your best reading. Any questions?"
2. As you listen, gauge the student's prosody. Consider the following elements:
 - **Stress:** Listen to how the student emphasizes various words. Do only the most important words receive stress? Underline words that the student stresses.
 - **Phrasing:** Listen to how the student chunks the words in phrases. For a short pause between word chunks, mark one slash (/). For a long pause between word chunks, mark two slashes (//).
 - **Intonation:** Note how punctuation is used to guide intonation. Does the student's pitch rise for questions marks, get louder for exclamation points, and dip for commas?
 - **Expression:** Is expression appropriate, including when reading dialogue?
 - **Pausing:** Does the student pause for punctuation (e.g., commas, periods)?
3. Use your notes to fill in the Prosody Assessment Summary Form. Circle the score that best characterizes the student's reading prosody. Add relevant comments.

Prosody Assessment Summary Form

Student:

Grade:

Teacher:

Text:

Date:

Overall Score:

Circle the score that best captures the characteristics of the student's reading. A score of 1 or 2 indicates nonprosodic reading, or that the student has not yet achieved a minimum level of prosody for that grade or difficulty level of text. A score of 3 or 4 indicates prosodic reading.

<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);">Nonprosodic</div> <div style="flex-grow: 1; border-left: 2px solid black; position: relative;"> <div style="position: absolute; top: 0; left: -10px;">Prosodic</div> <div style="position: absolute; bottom: 0; left: -10px;">Nonprosodic</div> </div> </div>	Score	Typical Characteristics	Comments
	4	Stresses all appropriate words in a sentence Reads primarily in larger, meaningful phrases Consistently pauses at the end of clauses and sentences Chunks words appropriately, preserving author's syntax Consistently changes pitch to reflect end marks Consistently uses voice to reflect characters' emotions or actions Consistently pauses appropriately for punctuation	
	3	Stresses the most important words in a sentence Reads primarily in three- or four-word phrases Often pauses between phrases, but occasionally pauses within them Often chunks words appropriately, preserving author's syntax Often changes pitch to reflect end marks Usually uses voice to reflect characters' emotions or actions Usually pauses at commas and end marks	
	2	Equally stresses each word in a sentence or stresses the unimportant words in a sentence Reads primarily in two-word phrases, but sometimes word by word Often pauses within phrases Chunks words with little attention to author's syntax Occasionally changes pitch to reflect end marks Occasionally uses voice to reflect characters' emotions or actions Pauses between sentences only when there is a period	
	1	Equally stresses each word in a sentence Reads primarily word by word Often pauses after every word and within words Chunks words with no attention to author's syntax or does not chunk them at all Does not change pitch to reflect end marks Reads in a monotone voice Reads from one sentence to the next without pausing for punctuation	

Instructional Options for Nonprosodic Readers

Questions for Interpretation	Instructional Options
Does the student's nonprosodic reading match the way he or she speaks?	A student cannot be expected to read at a different level of prosody than he or she speaks. Providing language instruction may be more appropriate than instruction in reading prosody.
Does the student equally stress each word in a sentence?	Have the student practice placing the stress, or emphasis, on different words in the same sentence. Example I am so happy . I am so happy. I am so happy.
Does the student read primarily word by word?	To group words into appropriate phrases, a student must first be able to automatically recognize the words. Providing instruction in decoding, word-reading accuracy, and automaticity may improve a student's prosody.
Does the student group words into appropriate phrases?	Provide instruction in recognizing phrase boundaries using phrase-cued text (text with phrases marked to help the student read in phrases).
Does the student use punctuation to guide intonation?	Provide contextualized instruction in the names and meaning of punctuation marks. Have the student read the same sentence with different end punctuation. Example Visiting the public library is fun! Visiting the public library is fun? Visiting the public library is fun.
Does the student read in a monotone voice?	Use reading performances to develop the student's expression.

Adapted from Honig et al., 2008.

Midiendo prosodia

Materiales

- Dos copias de un mismo texto (una para señalar las observaciones y otra para que el estudiante lea). El texto debe estar al nivel de lectura independiente del estudiante, tener alrededor de 200 palabras y tener una variedad de diálogo, emoción, puntuación y tipos de oraciones.
- Forma para la evaluación de prosodia (en la página siguiente)

Procedimiento

1. Diga: “Voy a escucharte leer en voz alta y tomar notas mientras lees. El título del texto es _____. Por favor lee el texto como si estuvieras leyéndoselo a alguien que nunca lo ha oído anteriormente. Si te atorras con una palabra desconocida, trata de leerla lo mejor posible. Lee de la mejor manera que puedas. ¿Tienes alguna pregunta?”
2. Al escuchar la lectura, circule las palabras que se pronuncian o se leen incorrectamente, subraye las palabras que se leen con mayor intensidad, indique el tiempo de cada pausa, y escriba cualquier nota adicional o comentarios en la forma.
 - **Intensidad:** Escuche cómo el estudiante hace hincapié en algunas palabras. ¿Puede el estudiante leer con más intensidad solo las palabras importantes? Subraye las palabras que se leen con mayor intensidad.
 - **Fraseo:** Escuche cómo el estudiante lee grupos de palabras como frases. Cuando el estudiante haga una pausa corta, marque con una barra diagonal (/). Cuando el estudiante haga una pausa más larga, marque con dos barras diagonales (/ /).
 - **Entonación:** Analice si el estudiante utiliza la puntuación para guiar la entonación de la lectura. ¿Lee el estudiante las preguntas con tono de pregunta y las exclamaciones con tono de asombro o sorpresa?
 - **Expresión:** ¿Utiliza el estudiante la expresión adecuada al leer diálogos?
 - **Pausas:** ¿Se detiene el estudiante apropiadamente después de puntos y comas?
3. Utilice las notas y señalizaciones de su copia del texto para llenar la forma. Circule la puntuación que mejor caracterize la prosodia lectora del estudiante. Añada comentarios relevantes. Una puntuación de 1 o 2 indica una lectura no prosódica o que el estudiante no ha logrado un nivel mínimo de prosodia de acuerdo a la dificultad de este texto. Una puntuación de 3 o 4 indica una lectura prosódica.

Forma para la evaluación de la prosodia

Estudiante:

Grado:

Docente:

Texto:

Fecha:

Puntuación general:

Circle la puntuación que mejor capture las características de la lectura del estudiante. Una puntuación de 1 o 2 indica una lectura no prosódica o que el estudiante no ha logrado un nivel mínimo de prosodia de acuerdo a la dificultad de este texto. Una puntuación de 3 o 4 indica una lectura prosódica.

<div>Con prosodia</div> <div>↑</div> <div>↓</div> <div>Sin prosodia</div>	Puntuación	Criteria para la evaluación de la prosodia	Comentarios
	4	Lee con más intensidad las palabras más apropiadas en una oración Lee utilizando frases significativas Siempre hace pausa al final de oraciones Continuamente agrupa palabras apropiadamente y respetando la sintaxis del autor Continuamente utiliza la entonación adecuada para mostrar la puntuación final Continuamente utiliza la voz apropiada para reflejar las emociones y acciones de los personajes Continuamente hace pausas apropiadas y correspondientes a los signos de puntuación	
	3	Lee con más intensidad las palabras más apropiadas en una oración Lee principalmente en frases de tres o cuatro palabras. Hace pausas entre frases frecuentemente pero ocasionalmente hace pausas inadecuadas dentro de una frase. Agrupa palabras apropiadamente y respetando la sintaxis del autor usualmente. Utiliza la entonación adecuada para mostrar la puntuación final ocasionalmente. Utiliza la voz apropiada para reflejar las emociones y acciones de los personajes ocasionalmente. Hace pausas apropiadas a los signos de puntuación ocasionalmente.	
	2	Lee con la misma intensidad todas las palabras en una oración o lee con más intensidad las palabras no importantes en la oración. Lee primariamente en frases de dos palabras y solamente palabra por palabra. Hace pausas dentro de una frase Agrupa palabras sin respetar la sintaxis del autor Utiliza la entonación adecuada para mostrar la puntuación final ocasionalmente Utiliza la voz apropiada para reflejar las emociones y acciones de los personajes ocasionalmente Hace pausa al leer solamente al llegar a un punto final.	
	1	Lee con la misma intensidad todas las palabras en una oración Lee primariamente palabra por palabra Hace pausas dentro de una frase y a veces dentro de palabras Agrupa palabras sin respetar la sintaxis del autor o no las agrupa No cambia la entonación para mostrar la puntuación final Lee una oración después de otra sin respetar puntuación.	

Instrucción para lectores no prosódicos

Preguntas	Opciones
¿Es la lectura no prosódica del estudiante similar a su habla?	No se puede esperar que la prosodia lectora de un estudiante sea diferente a su habla. Apoyo en el desarrollo del lenguaje podría ser más apropiado que más instrucción en la prosodia del lenguaje en este momento.
¿Lee el estudiante todas las palabras con la misma intensidad sin diferenciar las palabras más importantes?	Los estudiantes pueden practicar como leer con más intensidad diferentes palabras en una misma oración. Ejemplo Yo estoy muy feliz. Yo estoy muy feliz. Yo estoy muy feliz.
¿Lee el estudiante principalmente palabra por palabra?	Para agrupar palabras en frases apropiadas, los estudiantes deben primeramente reconocer y poder leer palabras automáticamente. Instrucción en decodificación y automaticidad en la lectura de palabras podrá mejorar la prosodia de los estudiantes.
¿Agrupa el estudiante las palabras en una frase apropiada?	Enseñe a los estudiantes a reconocer los límites de una frase utilizando textos que tenga las frases limitadas con algún tipo de marca. Estos textos podrán ayudar a los estudiantes a leer utilizando frases.
¿Utiliza el estudiante la puntuación para ayudarse a leer con la entonación apropiada?	Instrucción contextualizada en los nombres y significados de los signos de puntuación es esencial. Pida a los estudiantes que lean cada oración de diferente manera de acuerdo a los signos de puntuación. Por ejemplo: Ejemplo ¡Vamos a la biblioteca! ¿Vamos a la biblioteca? Vamos a la biblioteca.
¿Lee el estudiante con un tono monótono?	Utilice actividades como el Teatro del Lector para ayudar al estudiante a leer con la expresión adecuada.

Adaptado de Honig et al., 2008.

Instructional Recommendations to Enhance Fluency

Structured Fluency Instruction	Scaffolded Fluency Instruction	Facilitated Fluency Instruction
<p>Provide structured, explicit instruction in all fluency components.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate examples and nonexamples of fluent reading. • Have students listen to recordings of different levels of fluent reading. • Review fluency keywords and definitions. • Help students chunk words into manageable phrases or statements. <p>Use activities to model fluent reading.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choral reading: Students read with you as you read aloud. • Teacher-led reading: Students read along as you adjust your volume as needed. • Echo reading: Students repeat after you have read a section of text. • Audio-recorded reading: Students listen to, follow along with, and reread recorded texts at their independent level. 	<p>Provide explicit and scaffolded instruction in the fluency components.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Remind students of the goals during fluency instruction. • Provide immediate feedback. • Ask follow-up fluency questions. • Scaffold self-regulation of fluency components. <p>Use teacher-supported reading activities in small groups.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Phrase-cued reading: Use this activity to improve reading with natural syntactic phrasing and with expression for students who read accurately and at a good pace but need to improve prosody. • Repeated reading: Use previously read text. Inform students that the goal is to improve reading fluency. 	<p>For some activities, your role is to facilitate fluency instruction.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide explicit reminders of fluency goals. • Continue to review fluency components and keywords. • Integrate the keywords into your feedback. <p>Use research-based facilitated fluency activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading performances: Students act out a reading. • Self-recorded reading: Students audio-record their own reading, listen to the recording, and then reread the same text. • Partner reading: A more advanced reader is paired with a less advanced reader (see Handout 9 for more information) to practice rereading text at the independent or instructional level of the less advanced reader. Each pair reads and receives feedback from each other or the teacher. Partner reading benefits both partners; incorporates repeated reading with immediate, explicit feedback; improves oral reading fluency; and improves fluency-monitoring practices, including self-monitoring during reading.

Partner Reading

Partner reading increases the amount of time that students read text and enhances fluency. Partner reading involves pairing students to practice rereading text. Each pair reads and receives feedback from each other or the teacher. Model and explain partner reading procedures before students begin reading together.

Pairing Students

First, rank students according to their oral reading fluency data. Divide the list in half. Pair the top student in the upper half of the class with the top student in the lower half of the class.

For example, in the table below, Student 1, an advanced reader, is paired with Student 13, a less advanced reader. Student 2 is paired with Student 14. Continue this process until all students have a partner.

More Advanced	Less Advanced	Pairs
Student 1	Student 13	Pair A
Student 2	Student 14	Pair B
Student 3	Student 15	Pair C
Student 4	Student 16	Pair D
Student 5	Student 17	Pair E
Student 6	Student 18	Pair F
Student 7	Student 19	Pair G
Student 8	Student 20	Pair H
Student 9	Student 21	Pair I
Student 10	Student 22	Pair J
Student 11	Student 23	Pair K
Student 12	Student 24	Pair L

Selecting Text

Provide text at the less advanced reader's independent or instructional reading level. One easy way to match a text to a student's reading level is to give the student a list of words from the text. If the student has difficulty with no more than approximately one in 10 words, the text is considered to be at the student's independent or instructional level.

In some cases, you might have to find text that is at a lower grade level and that captures the students' interests. You can use text from various content areas to accomplish your fluency instruction goals.

Example Procedure

1. Assign roles to student pairs. (Do not explain to students why they are A or B.)
 - a. Partner A (more advanced reader)
 - b. Partner B (less advanced reader)
2. Give each student a copy of a text at Partner B's instructional or independent reading level.
3. Students take turns reading.
 - a. Partner A reads the text aloud (modeling fluent reading) for one minute. Partner B follows along.
 - b. Partner B reads aloud the same text for one minute.

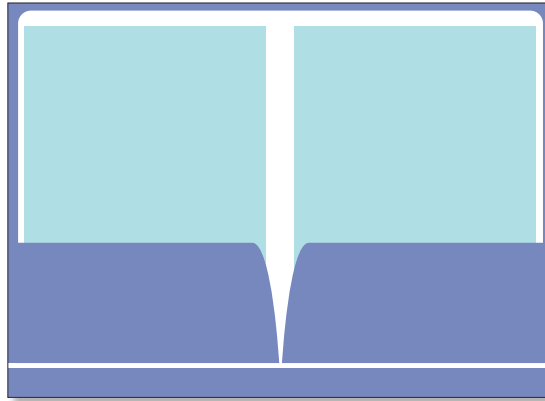
When using this procedure, the whole class can participate while you time the readings.

Variation: Students alternate reading a sentence, paragraph, or page, rather than reading for a specific amount of time. This procedure is often used while the teacher is working one-on-one with a student or teaching a small reading group.

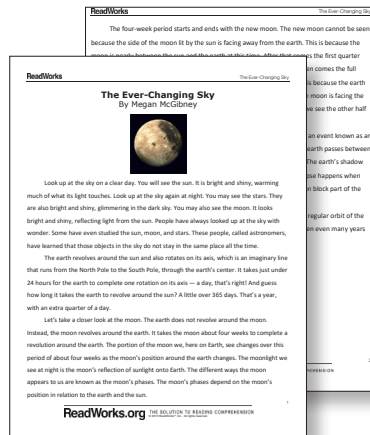
Adapted from Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997; Mastropieri, Leinart, & Scruggs, 1999.

Fluency Folders

Prepare folders for fluency partners. Include the following.



Two copies of a text at the independent or instructional level of the lower-performing reader



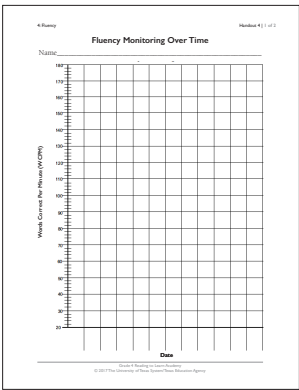
Two copies of a form for students to record their words correct per minute for each practice

See Handout 11: Repeated-Reading Record.

Repeated-Reading Record	
Name: _____	Date: _____
Title: _____	Page: _____
First Read	
Number of words read: _____	
Subtract the number of errors: _____	
Words correct per minute: _____	
Circled the words.	
Practice reading the text alone to four times.	
Second Read	
Number of words read: _____	
Subtract the number of errors: _____	
Words correct per minute: _____	
Practice more or, if you improved your words correct per minute, check with the teacher.	
Third Read	
Number of words read: _____	
Subtract the number of errors: _____	
Words correct per minute: _____	
Check with the teacher and then graph your words.	

Two copies of a fluency-monitoring graph

See Handout 4: Fluency Monitoring Over Time.



Laminated cards for comprehension questions

See Handout 14: Partner Reading With Comprehension Check.

Comprehension Questions	
1	WHO are the characters in the story?
2	WHEN did the story take place?
3	WHERE did the story take place?
4	WHAT was the problem in the story?
5	HOW did the problem get solved?
6	WHY might others want to read this story?

Laminated cards for retell questions

See Handout 13: Partner Reading With Retell.

Retell Cue Card	
1	What did you learn first?
2	What did you learn next?

Laminated cards for error-correction script

See Handout 12: Partner Reading With Error Correction.

Error Correction 2	
1	Point to a missed word and say: "You missed that word. Can you figure it out?"
Error Correction 1	
1	Point to a missed word and say: "You missed that word. Can you figure it out?"
2	Wait four seconds.
3	If the reader figures out the word, say: "Good. Start the sentence again."

Repeated-Reading Record

Name:

Date:

Title:

Pages Read:

First Read

Number of words read: _____

Subtract the number of errors: _____

Words correct per minute: _____

Graph the results.

Practice reading the text three to four times.

Second Read

Number of words read: _____

Subtract the number of errors: _____

Words correct per minute: _____

Practice more or, if you improved your words correct per minute, check with the teacher.

Third Read

Number of words read: _____

Subtract the number of errors: _____

Words correct per minute: _____

Check with the teacher and then graph your results.

Registro de lectura repetidas

Nombre:

Fecha :

Título:

Páginas leídas:

1era lectura

Número de palabras leídas: _____

Resta el número de errores: _____

Palabras leídas correctas por minuto: _____

Grafica los resultados.

Practica la lectura 3 o 4 veces más.

2da lectura

Número de palabras leídas: _____

Resta el número de errores: _____

Palabras leídas correctas por minuto: _____

Practica la lectura más o avísale a tu maestra si el número de palabras correctas aumentó en esta segunda lectura.

3era lectura

Número de palabras leídas: _____

Resta el número de errores: _____

Palabras leídas correctas por minuto: _____

Grafica los resultados después de que tu maestra los haya verificado.

Partner Reading With Error Correction

Objective

Students read text using cue cards that prompt the reader to self-monitor and self-correct errors.

Materials

- Reading material at the lower-performing student's instructional reading level
- Error-correction cue cards

Procedure

The higher-performing reader, Reader 1, reads a section orally while the lower-performing reader, Reader 2, follows along. Reader 2 listens and requests that errors be corrected while Reader 1 reads. Error correction cue cards help the listener prompt the reader when an error has been made. Then readers change roles.

Error Correction 1

1. Point to a missed word and say: "You missed that word. Can you figure it out?"
2. Wait four seconds.
3. If the reader figures out the word, say: "Good. Start the sentence again."

Error Correction 2

1. Point to a missed word and say: "You missed that word. Can you figure it out?"
2. Wait four seconds.
3. If the reader doesn't figure out the word, say: "That word is _____. What word?"
4. Wait for the reader to respond and then say: "Good. Start the sentence again."

Adaptations

- For English language learners, preview any unfamiliar vocabulary.
- To reinforce comprehension, stop students at intervals throughout the text to review what has happened up to that point.

Error-Correction Cue Cards

Error Correction 1	
1	Point to a missed word and say: “You missed that word. Can you figure it out?”
2	Wait four seconds.
3	If the reader figures out the word, say: “Good. Start the sentence again.”

Error Correction 2	
1	Point to a missed word and say: “You missed that word. Can you figure it out?”
2	Wait four seconds.
3	If the reader doesn’t figure out the word, say: “That word is _____. What word?”
4	Wait for the reader to respond and then say: “Good. Start the sentence again.”

Adapted from Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta, & Hall, 1986; Fuchs, Fuchs, Kasdan, & Allen, 1999; Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997.

Lectura en parejas con corrección de errores

Objetivo

Los estudiantes leerán el texto correctamente usando las tarjetas de apoyo que ayudan al lector a monitorear su lectura y corregir sus errores.

Materiales

- Material de lectura que esté al nivel de lectura de instrucción del lector menos avanzado
- Tarjetas de apoyo para corregir errores (inglés y español)

Procedimiento

Los dos estudiantes leen el texto tomando turnos. El lector más avanzado, Lector 1, lee una sección oralmente mientras que el lector menos avanzado, Lector 2, sigue la lectura en silencio. El Lector 2 escucha y pide que los errores sean corregidos durante la lectura del Lector 1. Las tarjetas de apoyo para corregir errores ayudan al estudiante oyente a pedirle al lector que corrija el error cuando se ha cometido uno. Los lectores se intercambian los roles.

Corrección de errores 1

1. Señala la palabra que se leyó equivocadamente y di: “Te falló esa palabra. ¿Puedes tratar de leerla?”
2. Espera cuatro segundos.
3. Si el lector lee la palabra correctamente, di: “Bien. Empieza la oración otra vez.”

Corrección de errores 2

1. Señala la palabra que se leyó equivocadamente o que se saltó y di: “Te falló esa palabra. ¿Puedes tratar de leerla?”
2. Espera cuatro segundos.
3. Si el lector no puede leer la palabra correctamente, di: “Esa palabra es _____. ¿Qué palabra es?”
4. Espera hasta que el lector lea la palabra correctamente y di: “Bien. Empieza la oración otra vez.”

Adaptaciones

Repase el vocabulario que sea desconocido para los estudiantes que aprenden inglés como segunda lengua. Para reforzar la comprensión, deténgase a menudo durante la lectura para repasar lo que ha sucedido hasta ese punto en la historia.

Tarjetas para corregir los errores

Corrección de errores 1	
1	Apunte la palabra leída incorrectamente y diga: “No leíste bien esa palabra. ¿La puedes descifrar?”
2	Espera cuatro segundos.
3	Si el lector la lee correctamente, di, “Bien. Empieza la oración otra vez.”

Corrección de errores 2	
1	Apunte la palabra leída incorrectamente y diga: “No leíste bien esa palabra. ¿La puedes descifrar?”
2	Espera cuatro segundos.
3	Si el lector no puede leer la palabra correctamente, di: “Esa palabra es _____. ¿Qué palabra es?”
4	Espera hasta que el lector lea la palabra correctamente y di: “Bien. Empieza la oración otra vez.”

Adapted from Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta, & Hall, 1986; Fuchs, Fuchs, Kasdan, & Allen, 1999; Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997.

Partner Reading With Retell

Objective

Students focus on the sequence of the text.

Materials

- Instructional-level text
- Retell cue card (English and Spanish)

Procedure

1. Give each partner a copy of the same text.
2. The lower-performing reader reads a section of the text.
3. The higher-performing reader asks the following questions:
 - “What did you learn first?” This question is asked only once at the beginning of each section.
 - “What did you learn next?” This question is asked as many times as needed to cover all the information that the student learned while reading that section.
4. The lower-performing reader retells each section after he or she finishes reading it.
5. As each pair reads, the teacher circulates, listens to each pair, provides error correction, and conducts comprehension checks.

Retell Cue Cards

Retell Cue Card	
1	What did you learn first?
2	What did you learn next?

Retell Cue Card	
1	What did you learn first?
2	What did you learn next?

Adapted from Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta, & Hall, 1986; Mathes, Howard, Allen, & Fuchs, 1998; Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997.

Lectura en pares y recuento

Objetivo

Los estudiantes se enfocaran en la secuencia de la historia.

Materiales

- Copia del mismo libro para cada estudiante
- Tarjeta de estimulo para recontar la historia

Procedimiento

1. Darles a los estudiantes el mismo libro.
2. El lector con bajo nivel de lectura lee una sección del texto.
3. El lector con alto nivel de lectura o entrenador hace las siguientes preguntas:
 - ¿Que fue lo que aprendistes primero? Esta pregunta se hace solo al principio de cada sección.
 - ¿Que aprendistes después? Esta pregunta se hace tantas veces se necesite para cubrir toda la información que el estudiante aprendió mientras leía la sección.
4. El estudiante de bajo nivel de lectura recuenta cada sección después de terminar al leerla.
5. Esta práctica da la oportunidad de ir alrededor del salón y escuchar cada pareja mientras leen, para revisar la comprensión.

Tarjetas claves de relatar

Tarjeta clave de relatar	
1	¿Qué aprendiste primero?
2	¿Qué aprendiste despues?

Tarjeta clave de relatar	
1	¿Qué aprendiste primero?
2	¿Qué aprendiste despues?

Adapted from Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta, & Hall, 1986; Mathes, Howard, Allen, & Fuchs, 1998; Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997.

Partner Reading With Comprehension Check

Objective

Students develop a thorough understanding of the text that they read during partner reading.

Materials

Text at the lower-performing student's instructional reading level

Procedure

1. Partners read the story using the partner reading procedure.
2. Partners take turns asking questions about the story. The following sample questions are provided on cue cards.
 - WHO are the characters in the story?
 - WHEN did the story take place?
 - WHERE did the story take place?
 - WHAT was the problem in the story?
 - HOW did the problem get solved?
 - WHY might others want to read this story?

Adaptations

For expository text, students ask questions about the main idea and supporting details, such as the following sample questions.

- Who or what is the text mainly about?
- What is the most important thing you learned?

For English language learners, preview unfamiliar vocabulary.

To reinforce comprehension, stop at intervals throughout the text to review what happened up to that point.

Sample Comprehension Question Cards

Comprehension Questions

WHO are the characters in the story?

WHEN did the story take place?

WHERE did the story take place?

WHAT was the problem in the story?

HOW did the problem get solved?

WHY might others want to read this story?

Comprehension Questions

WHO are the characters in the story?

WHEN did the story take place?

WHERE did the story take place?

WHAT was the problem in the story?

HOW did the problem get solved?

WHY might others want to read this story?

Adapted from Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta, & Hall, 1986; Fuchs, Fuchs, Kazdan, & Allen, 1999; Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997.

Lectura en parejas con revisión de la comprensión

Objetivo

Los estudiantes entenderán completamente el texto que han leído durante la lectura en parejas.

Materiales

Material de lectura al nivel de instrucción de los estudiantes.

Procedimiento

Primero los estudiantes leen la historia. Después los estudiantes se turnan para hacer preguntas acerca de la historia.

Ejemplo de las preguntas:

- ¿QUIÉNES fueron los personajes?
- ¿CUÁNDO ocurrió el cuento?
- ¿DÓNDE ocurrió el cuento?
- ¿CUÁL era el problema?
- ¿CÓMO se resolvió el problema?
- ¿POR QUÉ otros quieran leer esta historia?

Adaptaciones

Si el pasaje de lectura es un texto expositivo, invite a los estudiantes a hacer preguntas sobre la idea principal y detalles que complementan la idea principal.

- ¿De quién o de qué se trató el texto?
- ¿Qué fue lo más importante que leíste?

Asegúrese de repasar el vocabulario desconocido con los estudiantes que aprenden inglés como segunda lengua.

Para reforzar la comprensión, deténgase varias veces durante la lectura de la selección para repasar lo que ha sucedido hasta ese momento y verificar que los estudiantes han comprendido los eventos.

Tarjetas de ejemplos de preguntas

Ejemplos de preguntas

¿QUIÉNES fueron los personajes?

¿CUÁNDO ocurrió el cuento?

¿DÓNDE ocurrió el cuento?

¿CUÁL era el problema?

¿CÓMO se resolvió el problema?

¿POR QUÉ otros quieran leer esta historia?

Ejemplos de preguntas

¿QUIÉNES fueron los personajes?

¿CUÁNDO ocurrió el cuento?

¿DÓNDE ocurrió el cuento?

¿CUÁL era el problema?

¿CÓMO se resolvió el problema?

¿POR QUÉ otros quieran leer esta historia?

Adapted from Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta, & Hall, 1986; Fuchs, Fuchs, Kazdan, & Allen, 1999; Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Simmons, 1997.

Instructional Feedback

Prompts to Help Students Notice Errors	Prompts to Help Students Find Errors
<p>There is a tricky word on this line. Does it [look or sound] right?</p> <p>You're nearly right. Try that again.</p> <p>Try it another way.</p> <p>You've almost got that.</p>	<p>Find the part that's not right.</p> <p>Look carefully to see what's wrong.</p> <p>You noticed that something was wrong. Where is the part that's not right? What made you stop?</p> <p>Can you find the problem spot?</p>
Prompts to Help Students Fix Errors	Prompts to Help Students Write Words
<p>What do you hear first? Next? Last? What word starts with those letters?</p> <p>Do you think it [looks or sounds] like ____? What does an <i>e</i> do at the end of a word? What do you know that might help?</p> <p>What could you try?</p> <p>You said _____. Does that make sense? Can you think of a better way to say _____?</p>	<p>That sounds right, but does it look right? One more letter will make it right.</p> <p>It starts like _____. Now check the last part.</p> <p>Did you write all the sounds you hear? Did you write a vowel for each syllable? What do you hear first? Next? Last?</p> <p>It [starts or ends] like _____.</p> <p>There's a silent letter in that word.</p>
Prompts of Encouragement	
<p>The results are worth all your hard work.</p> <p>You've come a long way with this one.</p> <p>That was some quick thinking.</p> <p>That looks like an impressive piece of work.</p> <p>You've put in a full day today.</p> <p>I knew you could finish it.</p> <p>You make it look so easy.</p> <p>You really tackled that assignment.</p> <p>This shows you've been [thinking or working.]</p> <p>It looks like you've put a lot of work into this.</p>	<p>That's a powerful argument.</p> <p>That's coming along.</p> <p>You're really settling down to work.</p> <p>You've shown a lot of patience with this.</p> <p>You've been paying close attention.</p> <p>You're right on target.</p> <p>You're on the right track now.</p> <p>That's an interesting way of looking at it.</p> <p>Now you've figured it out.</p> <p>That's quite an improvement.</p> <p>That's quite an accomplishment.</p>

Adapted from Fry, Kress, & Fountoukidis, 1993; Pinnell & Fountas, 1998.

Retroalimentación para el aprendizaje

Para ayudar a los estudiantes a notar los errores	Para ayudar a los estudiantes a encontrar los errores
<p>Revisa para ver si eso se oye o se ve bien.</p> <p>Hay una palabra difícil en este renglón.</p> <p>Casi es correcto.</p> <p>Trata otra vez.</p> <p>Trata de otra manera.</p>	<p>Encuentra la parte de o la palabra que se leyó incorrectamente.</p> <p>Ve con cuidado para ver lo que leíste incorrectamente.</p> <p>Te diste cuenta de que leíste algo incorrectamente. ¿Qué parte leíste incorrectamente? ¿Qué te hizo detenerte?</p> <p>¿Puedes encontrar la parte más problemática?</p>
Para ayudar a los estudiantes a corregir los errores	Para ayudar a los estudiantes a escribir palabras
<p>¿Qué sonido oyes primero? ¿Después? ¿Qué palabra empieza con esas letras?</p> <p>¿En qué te equivocaste al leer esta palabra? ¿Cómo puedes leerla correctamente?</p> <p>Leíste _____. ¿Tiene sentido con esa palabra?</p> <p>¿Puedes tratar de leer la palabra correctamente fijándote con cuidado en las letras?</p>	<p>Eso se oye bien pero, ¿se ve bien? ¿Qué letra o letras faltan?</p> <p>La palabra empieza con _____. Ahora escribe la parte final de la palabra.</p> <p>¿Escribiste todos los sonidos que escuchaste? ¿Qué sonido escribiste al principio? ¿Después?</p> <p>La palabra empieza con _____.</p> <p>Hay una letra que no suena en esa palabra.</p>
Para alentar a los estudiantes	
<p>Has aprendido mucho.</p> <p>Pensaste muy bien cómo hacer eso.</p> <p>Eso parece un trabajo excelente.</p> <p>Trabajaste muy duro el día de hoy.</p> <p>Yo sabía que terminarías.</p> <p>Lo haces que se vea muy fácil.</p> <p>Trabajaste muy bien en este proyecto.</p> <p>Esto me indica que has trabajado mucho.</p> <p>Parece que has puesto mucho empeño en esto.</p>	<p>Eso es un argumento muy bueno.</p> <p>Vas muy bien.</p> <p>Has demostrado mucha paciencia con este trabajo.</p> <p>Has puesto atención.</p> <p>Vas por muy buen camino.</p> <p>Esa es una manera muy interesante de verlo.</p> <p>Ya pudiste lograrlo.</p> <p>Has mejorado mucho.</p> <p>Has logrado mucho.</p>

Adapted from Fry, Kress, & Fountoukidis, 1993; Pinnell & Fountas, 1998.

Systematic Instruction: Fluency Checklist

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

Category	Instructional Methods and Strategies (Check All Observed)		Observed Time(s)	Comments
Grouping Formats	<input type="checkbox"/> Whole group <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher-led small groups <input type="checkbox"/> Independent work	<input type="checkbox"/> Mixed-ability small groups (e.g., workstations) <input type="checkbox"/> Partners		
Explicit Instruction Components	<input type="checkbox"/> Identifies objective <input type="checkbox"/> Activates background knowledge <input type="checkbox"/> Models (e.g., thinks aloud) <input type="checkbox"/> Uses consistent language <input type="checkbox"/> Scaffolds when needed <input type="checkbox"/> Uses examples and nonexamples (as appropriate) <input type="checkbox"/> Paces instruction appropriately <input type="checkbox"/> Provides guided practice	<input type="checkbox"/> Checks for understanding <input type="checkbox"/> Provides multiple response opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides extended practice opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides immediate feedback (corrective when needed) <input type="checkbox"/> Uses established routines and procedures		
Fluency Activities and Lessons	<input type="checkbox"/> Choral reading <input type="checkbox"/> Echo reading <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher-led reading <input type="checkbox"/> Audio-recorded reading <input type="checkbox"/> Phrased-cued reading	<input type="checkbox"/> Repeated reading <input type="checkbox"/> Reading performance <input type="checkbox"/> Self-recorded reading <input type="checkbox"/> Partner reading		
Materials Used	<input type="checkbox"/> Fluency graphs <input type="checkbox"/> Whisper phones <input type="checkbox"/> Independent-level text <input type="checkbox"/> Instructional-level text <input type="checkbox"/> Audio recordings of text <input type="checkbox"/> Fluency folders <input type="checkbox"/> Phrased-cued text	<input type="checkbox"/> Anticipation-reaction guide <input type="checkbox"/> Audio recorders <input type="checkbox"/> Timers <input type="checkbox"/> Error-correction cards <input type="checkbox"/> Retell cue cards <input type="checkbox"/> Comprehension question cards <input type="checkbox"/> Other material:		

Fluency Instruction Considerations for English Language Learners

Like monolingual English-speaking students, English language learners (ELLs) benefit from sound fluency instruction. Research has shown that ELLs' oral language development and English comprehension are critical factors in the development of reading fluency. Students with strong English language skills can capitalize on these skills to read fluently. Effective fluency instruction for ELLs takes into consideration their language needs and is linguistically accommodated to support their language learning.

Carefully select and modify texts used for fluency instruction to make sure they are accessible and comprehensible to ELLs. Begin fluency work with an overview of the story and explain unknown words and topics through quick drawings or pictures. When ELLs understand the story, they can focus more on their reading rate and accuracy.

ELLs benefit from **structured**, **scaffolded**, and **facilitated** fluency instruction. Examples of and considerations for each type of instruction for ELLs are provided below.

Structured Fluency Instruction for ELLs

- Model fluent reading and examples of appropriate English pronunciation, accuracy, rate, and prosody.
- Explicitly discuss and model English stress patterns in words and the stress and intonation patterns in sentences. For example, the word *elephant* is stressed in the first syllable, and the Spanish cognate *elefante* is stressed in the third syllable. Spoken English has a specific sentence stress and cadence that might be different from ELLs' native language.
- Choral reading, teacher-led reading, echo reading, and audio-based reading activities are especially beneficial for ELLs. By reading at the same time as others, ELLs engage in a low-anxiety activity that scaffolds their fluency, pronunciation, and prosody.

Scaffolded Fluency Instruction for ELLs

- Model unique English sounds and focus on the fluency components. ELLs often have fewer opportunities for corrective feedback when reading aloud in English. Keep in mind their different levels of English proficiency and expect pronunciation errors.
- Offer multiple practice opportunities by implementing repeated reading in all content areas.

Facilitated Fluency Instruction for ELLs

- Provide a substantial amount of reading practice that allows ELLs to develop confidence when reading aloud in English.
- Have ELLs participate in reading performances, but be sure to use texts at their independent fluency level that are familiar to them.
- Remember not to confuse fluency with accent. ELLs can read fluently in English with a native language accent.

Adapted from Geva & Farnia, 2012; Geva & Zadeh, 2006; Jimerson, Hong, Stage, & Gerber, 2013; Koskinen et al., 1999; Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Quirk & Beem, 2012; Ramírez & Shapiro, 2007; Saenz, Fuchs, & Fuchs, 2005; Zadeh, Farnia & Geva, 2012.

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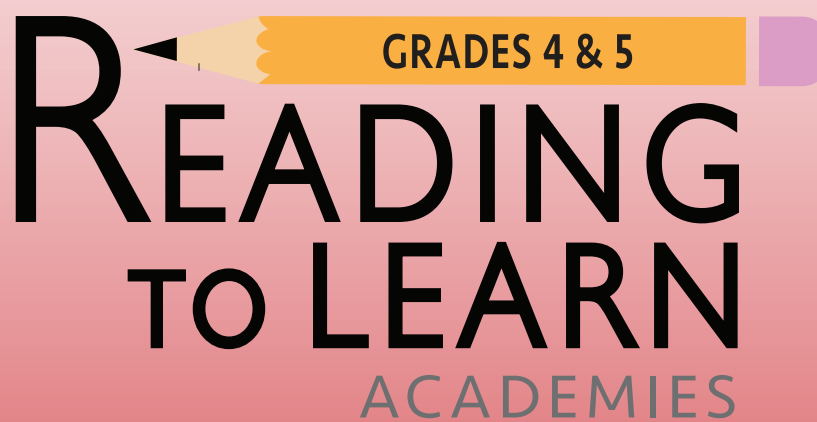
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Fluency

Presenter Resources



GRADE 4

Marking Fluency Errors Practice

In the table below, read each text excerpt and how the student read the text. Identify the kind of error the student made in the Kind of Error column (see the list below of types of student errors). Then decide whether the error is counted against the student. Write “yes” or “no” in the final column.

- Mispronunciation (mispronouncing a word)
- Substitution (saying a different word)
- Insertion (adding a word)
- Repetition (repeating a word or phrase)
- Reversal (reversing the order of the words)
- Hesitation (hesitating or struggling with a word for more than three seconds; provide the word for the student)
- Self-correction (self-correcting error within three seconds)
- Omission (leaving a word out)

Text	Student Reads	Kind of Error	Is Error Counted?
She saw the cat.	She saw a scary cat.	Substitution Insertion	Yes No
I see the worm.	I see the word.	Substitution	Yes
He went to town.	He went to tent...town. (changed within three seconds)	Self-correction	No
I see a bird.	I see the birb.	Substitution Mispronunciation	Yes Yes
He had a beach ball.	He had a beach ball, a beach ball.	Repetition	No
I was walking in a park.	I walking was in a park.	Reversal	Yes
I like his kindness.	I like his... (three-second pause)	Hesitation	Yes
She went to school.	She went school.	Omission	Yes

Grade 4 Literacy Block

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Word study and recognition (30–45 minutes)			
Fluency (10–15 minutes)			
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Modeling of fluent reading• Progress monitoring and goal setting• Multiple practice opportunities with feedback across all content areas• Choral reading• Echo reading• Partner reading with fluency folders• Phrase-cued reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Partner reading• Phrase-cued reading• Independent reading using appropriate leveled text• Word-wall games• Flash cards with high-frequency phrases from curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Use assessment to determine where intervention is needed and begin there.• Use choral and echo reading.• Use appropriate leveled text.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Explicitly discuss and model English stress patterns in words and sentences.• Have students echo read parts of text that contain unfamiliar sounds for ELLs.

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners	
Vocabulary (10–15 minutes)			
Comprehension (25–30 minutes)			


Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Writing (20–30 minutes)			

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Small groups and workstations			



Fluency

Activity Resources

A graphic of a yellow pencil with a black eraser and a pink eraser, positioned horizontally. The pencil is pointing to the left, and its body is yellow with a black eraser and a pink eraser.

GRADES 4 & 5

READING TO LEARN

ACADEMIES

GRADE 4



Slide—Setting Oral Reading Fluency Goals



Review the rest of the handout **Setting Fluency Goals** and reflect on the following questions:

- How do you determine weekly or biweekly WCPM gains to meet the end-of-year fluency benchmark?
- How do you determine the intensity and type of instruction needed to help students in need of intervention meet their fluency benchmark?
- How do you set a midyear fluency benchmark?



Slide—Marking Fluency Errors



Read the procedures on the handout **Monitoring Reading Fluency**. Practice identifying the errors in the first four sentences on the handout **Marking Fluency Errors Practice**. Decide whether the errors count against the student in the assessment.



Slide—Scaffolded Fluency Instruction: Phrased-Cued Text



With a partner, discuss what kind of students might benefit from phrase-cued text and when you might use phrase-cued text in your classroom.



Slide—Facilitated Fluency Instruction: Partner Reading—The Basics

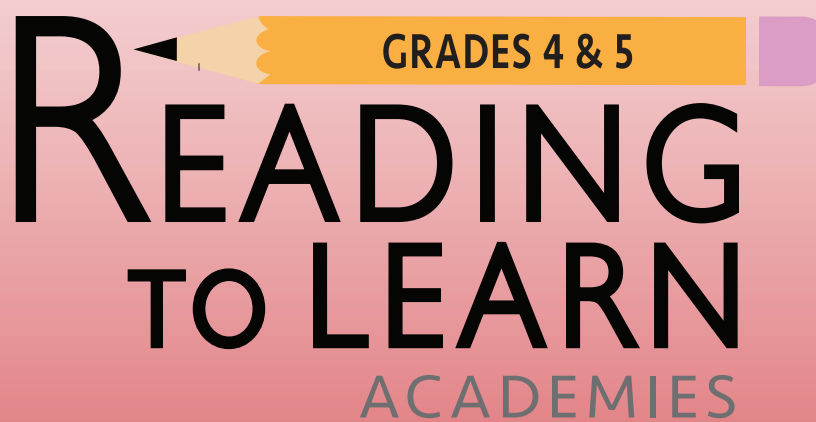


- Review the handout **Partner Reading**.
- Explain to your partner how to pair students for partner reading.
- What level of text is used during partner reading?



Vocabulary

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Document camera
- Clipboard with blank paper for recording participant responses to show on document camera
- Narrative or expository text to model activities
- Chart paper
- Markers
- Blank sheet of paper
- Laser pointer
- Two pink pipe cleaners
- Adhesive tabs
- Pink highlighter
- Folder containing the following documents: Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary, Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope
- Video: Word-Learning Strategies
- Video: Content Area Vocabulary Instruction

Participant Materials

- Name tent
- Narrative or expository text that participant brought
- Blank sheet of paper
- Calculator
- Folder containing the following documents: Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary, Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope
- Supply pouch containing green, yellow, and pink highlighters; sticky notes; and adhesive tabs

Materials to Provide Each Table

- Guiding Questions document (two per table)
- Markers
- Two pink pipe cleaners per participant



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Vocabulary

Slide I—Title Slide

(0:00–0:45)

Raise your hand if, when you were a young student, you had to look up words in a dictionary and copy definitions.

Pause as hands are raised.

Keep your hands up if you looked forward to and loved studying vocabulary.

Most hands will go down.

Combining what you learned in the Word Study and Recognition section with what you learn in this section will help you see that developing a deep understanding of words can be fascinating and engaging—not only for you, but also for your students.

Section Objectives



This section will enhance your knowledge of the following:

- The difference between depth and breadth of vocabulary
- The vocabulary instruction continuum to plan engaging vocabulary lessons and create a language-rich environment



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:45–2:00)

Take a moment to review the objectives on the slide. These objectives should guide your learning for this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.

In your folder, find Handout 1: The Reading Rope from the Overview section of the academy.

As participants locate the handout, display your copy on the document camera.

As students read to learn, they grow their vocabulary, which allows for comprehension of more complex texts across a wide range of genres and topics.

With your pink highlighter, highlight two of the upper threads, vocabulary and language structures, to call attention to the skills we will focus on during this section. As we dive into vocabulary, keep in mind how these two strands are integral parts of comprehension.

Model by highlighting your copy of the handout with your pink highlighter. Allow 30 seconds for participants to complete the highlighting. Then ask participants to place the handout back in the folder.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Effective Vocabulary Instruction



“Good vocabulary instruction helps children gain ownership of words, instead of just learning words well enough to pass a test. Good vocabulary instruction provides multiple exposures through rich and varied activities to meaningful information about the word.”

— Stahl & Kapinus, 2001, p. 14



Slide 3—Effective Vocabulary Instruction

(2:00–4:00)

Here is what real vocabulary instruction is all about.

Read the quotation on the slide.

Activity

What do the researchers mean by “gain ownership of words?” Think about it.

Pause a few seconds for participants to think about the phrase.

Now, turn to a partner at your table and talk about what “gain ownership of words” looks and sounds like in a classroom.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss. Have a few participants share their thinking. Optional: Use the overhead accountability energizer to share responses.

Reference

Stahl & Kapinus, 2001, p. 14

Vocabulary Is Essential



“One of the most enduring findings in reading research is the extent to which students’ vocabulary knowledge relates to their reading comprehension.”

— Lehr, Osborn, & Hiebert, 2004, p. 3



Slide 4—Vocabulary Is Essential

(4:00–6:00)

Vocabulary is essential for reading comprehension and for all students, especially students with limited exposure to English, such as English language learners. Because vocabulary development is so important, let’s discuss the instructional time we devote to it.

Activity

On the inside of your name tent, write the following:

- The number of minutes per day you spend directly teaching vocabulary in your classroom
- One word that comes to mind when you think about vocabulary instruction

Pause for participants to write their numbers and words.

Notes continue on the next page.

Now, share your number and word with a partner at your table. Explain why you chose that word.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss. Have a few participants share their thinking. Optional: Use the overhead accountability energizer to share participant responses.

These research findings provide the strongest reason to teach vocabulary in the early grades—students' vocabulary predicts whether they will have adequate reading comprehension later.

References

Biemiller, 2001; Cain, 2016; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Elwér et al., 2015; Farstrup & Samuels, 2008; Foorman et al., 2006; Lehr, Osborn, & Hiebert, 2004; Nagy, 2005; Nagy & Scott, 2000; National Reading Panel, 2000; National Research Council, 1998; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Wright & Neuman, 2014

Vocabulary



- **Definition:** Words that make up speech or text and their meanings
- **Receptive vocabulary:** Requires a listener or reader to associate a specific meaning with a given label; includes listening vocabulary and reading vocabulary
- **Expressive vocabulary:** Requires a speaker or writer to produce a specific label for a particular meaning; includes speaking vocabulary and writing vocabulary

	Expressive	Receptive
Oral	Speaking	Listening
Text	Writing	Reading



Slide 5—Vocabulary

(6:00–9:30)

We will begin with a few definitions. Vocabulary includes the words that make up speech or text and their meanings.

We can distinguish between receptive and expressive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary is the collection of word meanings that we use to understand what is said to us or what we read. Expressive vocabulary, on the other hand, includes the words we know deeply enough to use in our own speaking or writing.

Each of these categories can be broken into oral vocabulary (listening and speaking) and text vocabulary (reading and writing). The visual on the slide illustrates the interplay of these concepts.

Let's apply these terms to literacy instruction.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Locate **Handout 1: Pinch Paper**.

Show your copy of Handout 1. Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This is an example of a pinch paper or a pinch card. You can use pinch papers in different types of lessons to provide multiple response opportunities and to gauge student understanding. On our pinch paper are two vocabulary terms we just discussed—*receptive* and *expressive*. To use the pinch paper, we first need to fold it along the vertical line.

Model folding your pinch paper. Pause for participants to fold theirs.

The pinch paper has the terms on both sides so that both the student and the teacher can see the terms.

I will ask you three questions. For each, pinch the paper next to the term you think is the correct answer—*receptive* or *expressive*.

Here is the first scenario. A student in your class correctly uses the words *unavailable*, *apparent*, and *fabulous* in an expository essay. Does the essay demonstrate that these words are part of the student's receptive or expressive vocabulary?

Pause for participants to pinch their papers to show you their responses.

Yes, the answer is *expressive*. But if the words are part of the student's expressive vocabulary, they are most likely part of the student's receptive vocabulary, too. Our receptive vocabulary is generally much larger than our expressive vocabulary. For English language learners, this gap can be much larger, depending on their stage of English language acquisition.

Here is the next scenario. During a math lesson, you tell students to find the sum of each equation, and most students immediately begin working. As you walk around the room, you ask a few students to tell you what they are doing. These students reply, "I am finding the answer" or "I am adding." Think about the words *sum* and *equation*. Are the students' responses indicative of their expressive or receptive vocabulary?

Pause for participants to pinch their papers to show you their responses.

Yes, the answer is *receptive*. Following directions that include these terms shows that the terms are most likely in the students' receptive vocabulary. But the students

did not use these words when telling the teacher what they were doing, which indicates that these words are not yet a part of the students' expressive vocabulary.

One last question: Which vocabulary type demonstrates true ownership of a word—receptive or expressive?

Pause for participants to pinch their papers to show you their responses.

Yes, the answer is *expressive*. To have a word in your expressive vocabulary requires much deeper knowledge of that word than being able to understand it within the context of listening or reading.

References

Graves, 2006; Moats, 2009

Breadth Versus Depth of Vocabulary

- Breadth of vocabulary: The number of words a person knows
- Depth of vocabulary: How much a person knows about specific words
- Both correlate with and predict reading ability (word reading and comprehension).



Slide 6—Breadth Versus Depth of Vocabulary

(9:30–10:30)

Let's discuss another distinction—breadth versus depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Breadth refers to the number of words a person knows—not how well the person knows the words. Depth, on the other hand, refers to how much a person knows about a word. Have you simply heard it before? Can you use it in context? Can you give a definition for it?

Research demonstrates that both of these aspects correlate with and predict one's reading ability. Breadth relates to both word reading and comprehension, and depth demonstrates strong relationships with reading comprehension.

The deeper your knowledge about a word, the more likely that you can use it both to understand what you read or hear and to speak or write in a more precise and possibly more complex way.

References

Binder, Cote, Lee, Bessette, & Vu, 2016; Farstrup & Samuels, 2008; Li & Kirby, 2015; Ouelette, 2006; Qian, 1999; Proctor, Silverman, Harring, & Montecillo, 2012; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Tannenbaum, Torgesen, & Wagner, 2006

Assessing Your Vocabulary Depth



	I own this term.	I know something about this term.	I don't know this term.
morphology			
hink pink			
polysemous			
connective			
nominalization			

TEA
Texas Education Agency

Slide 7—Assessing Your Vocabulary Depth

(10:30–12:00)

Let's check the depth of your vocabulary knowledge with some words related to the English language and vocabulary instruction.

Activity

On your slide notes page, write a check mark in the column that most accurately describes the depth of your knowledge about each of these words. Then, share your knowledge with your tablemates to see whether you can work together to create deeper knowledge of each word.

Allow one minute for participants to fill out the chart and discuss.

Notes continue on the next page.

Note to Presenter

morphology: Study of meaningful units of language and how they are used to form words

hink pink: Riddle with rhyming words for an answer (e.g., imitation serpent = fake snake, bird's visitor = nest guest)

polysemous: Having multiple meanings

connective: Word that relates words, phrases, or ideas within a text; also called a glue word or cohesive device (e.g., “since,” “yet,” “despite,” “therefore”)

nominalization: Process of turning a verb or adjective (or other part of speech) into a noun (e.g., “decide” into “decision,” “scarce” into “scarcity”)

You can use this kind of activity to check student understanding and differentiate vocabulary instruction.

References

Crosson & Lesaux, 2013; Moats, 2010; Nagy & Townsend, 2012; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Vocabulary Instructional Elements



Develop Depth of Vocabulary

- Teach individual words directly
- Teach relationships among words
- Teach and have students practice word-learning strategies

Develop Breadth of Vocabulary

- Model and practice word consciousness.
- Embed definitions during read-alouds or discussions.
- Use sophisticated academic language.
- Read books aloud to students.
- Involve students in academic discussions.
- Have students read widely.



Slide 8—Vocabulary Instructional Elements

(12:00–14:00)

We should teach for both depth and breadth of vocabulary.

The instructional elements listed on the slide are based on research findings from the past several decades. Studies of student vocabulary knowledge and effective instructional practices show us that all of these teaching elements support vocabulary development, which leads to improved comprehension. Research has also shown that these instructional practices are effective with English language learners.

Locate **Handout 2: Vocabulary Instruction Continuum**.

Pause for participants to locate Handout 2. Put your copy of the handout on the document camera while you wait.

The chart in Handout 2 has the elements from the slide listed in the top row.

Notes continue on the next page.

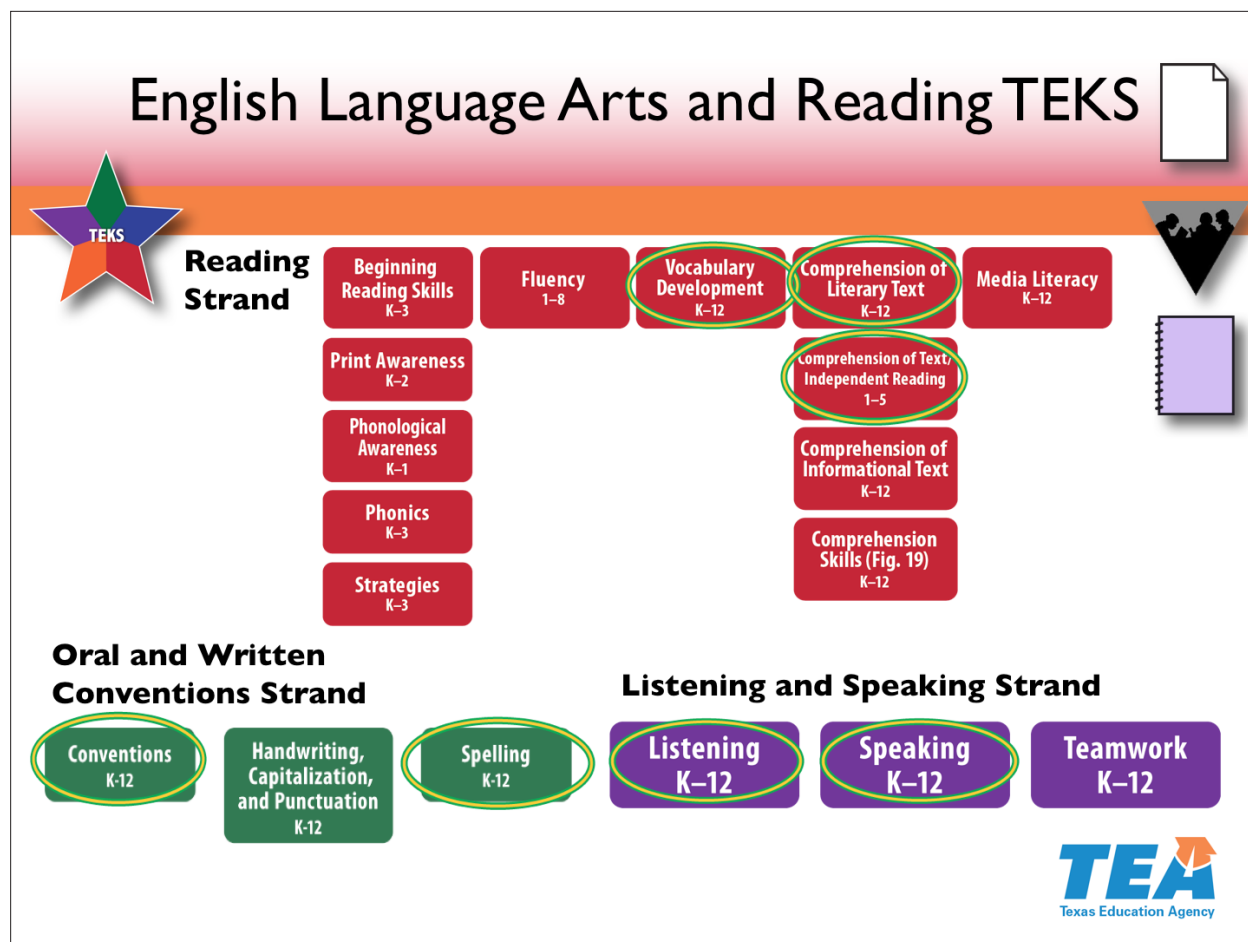
On the document camera, point to the elements across the top of the chart.

As you can see, the instructional activities on the left develop vocabulary depth, and the elements on the right develop vocabulary breadth. Take a moment to examine the handout. We will use it for an activity in a minute.

Allow a minute for participants to examine the handout. Keep your copy on the document camera to use with the next slide.

References

August, Artzi, & Barr, 2016; August, Carlo, Dressler, & Snow, 2005; August, Carlo, Lively, McLaughlin, & Snow, 2005; August, McCardle, Shanahan, & Burns, 2014; Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2008, 2013; Farstrup & Samuels, 2008; Graves, 2006; Hiebert & Kamil, 2005; Hiebert & Lubliner, 2008; Moats, 2009; Neuman & Wright, 2014; Stahl & Nagy, 2006



Slide 9—English Language Arts and Reading TEKS (14:00–20:30)

From your folder, locate the Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment document.

Pause for participants to find the document.

We will use this TEKS chart with the chart in Handout 2 to see how the TEKS align with these instructional elements. I will model the activity with the first column in Handout 2: Teach individual words directly.

Point to the first column of the chart in Handout 2. Then, display the first page of the TEKS alignment chart to model looking for student expectations that align with this instructional element.

Looking at the first page of the TEKS alignment chart, I notice that students are expected to understand and use, which means they have to develop deep

Notes continue on the next page.

knowledge of, many different kinds of words—verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc. So, I will write that category, Grammar and Syntax, in the first column of Handout 2.

Write “Grammar and Syntax” in the first column.

Let’s look for other expectations that might relate to this instructional element.

Turn to page 5 of the TEKS alignment chart.

I see on page 5 that the TEKS discuss antonyms and synonyms. I know that one method for teaching words directly is to use synonyms, antonyms, examples, and nonexamples, so I will also add that category, Word Relationships, to the first column of Handout 2.

Write “Word Relationships” in the first column.

Activity

Now it’s your turn. Work with your tablemates to find one or two categories that contain expectations that would be taught within each instructional element. You may put a category in more than one column. You have five minutes to work.

Allow five minutes for participants to work. After the five minutes, you can display Presenter Resource 1 for participants to check their responses against the possible responses provided.

We will spend the rest of the session discussing each instructional element on Handout 2, starting with developing depth of vocabulary knowledge through explicit instruction of individual words.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2009

Teach Individual Words Directly

- Purposefully select words to teach from a text that you will read aloud or that students will read in partners or groups.
- Create an instructional plan for teaching each word—before, during, and after reading.
- Create extension activities to provide students with multiple opportunities to use the words.



Slide 10—Teach Individual Words Directly

(20:30–21:30)

The first instructional element we will examine is teaching individual words directly.

Direct instruction of specific words must be purposeful, which requires effective planning. After you have decided on a text to read aloud or for students to read together, select a few words that you would like students to own. For this deep instruction, some researchers recommend selecting three to five words per lesson. Then, plan how to teach each word, including preteaching before reading, methods for interacting with the words during reading, and activities for using the words after reading.

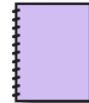
After the initial lesson and read-aloud, provide follow-up activities so that students continue to use the words across contexts. Such extensive practice is the only way to help students truly own these words.

Now we will discuss how to select words to teach directly.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Beck et al., 2008, 2013; Moats, 2009; Neuman & Wright, 2014; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Purposefully Select Words



- Learn to distinguish among
 - basic words (Level 1),
 - words to own (Level 2), and
 - content area words (Level 3).
- Choose Level 2 words that
 - help students understand the text,
 - are likely not in students' receptive or expressive vocabularies, and
 - can be used across contexts.



Slide 11—Purposefully Select Words

(21:30–28:30)

In their book *Bringing Words to Life*, Isabel Beck and her colleagues describe the following three types of words:

- Level 1 words: Students typically know the meaning of these basic words, which usually do not need to be taught.
- Level 2 words: These words are crucial to understanding the text, are most likely not in students' receptive or expressive vocabularies, and can be used across various contexts. These are the words to explicitly teach.
- Level 3 words: These words are specific to a content area and are not typically used across contexts.

Locate **Handout 3: Selecting Vocabulary Words to Teach Directly**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout describes factors to consider as you choose vocabulary words to teach explicitly. The second page provides examples of each word type. The third page has examples in Spanish.

Pause for participants to examine the handout. You may want to point out specific examples from page 2 and discuss why each one is considered Level 1, Level 2, or Level 3.

Activity

Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

With your partner, select one of the texts you brought with you. Determine words that fit within each category and write them at the bottom of page 2 on Handout 3.

Then, circle the three Level 2 words from your text that you want students to own. Share your words with others at your table and discuss why you chose those words. You have five minutes.

Provide five minutes for participants to work. As they work, ask volunteers to write one or two of their words on charts at the front of the room.

After the five minutes, call on a few of the volunteers to share their reasoning for choosing their words.

Note to Presenter

This activity can address the needs of diverse learners. The purposeful selection of words inherently targets students' needs. Teachers can choose Level 2 words for whole-group direct instruction and can choose additional words for small groups targeting English language learners or advanced students.

References

Beck et al., 2013; Neuman & Wright, 2014

Create an Instructional Plan: Before Reading



- First, plan specific elements of a word to teach, such as the following:
 - Student-friendly definition
 - Examples and nonexamples
 - Synonyms and antonyms
 - Graphic organizers or visuals
 - Questions for deeper processing
- Then, use an instructional routine to plan your lesson delivery.



Slide 12—Create an Instructional Plan: Before Reading

(28:30–39:00)

Before reading, create a plan for teaching each word. Locate **Handout 4: Planning Explicit Vocabulary Instruction**.

Pause for participants to locate Handout 4. Put your copy of the handout on the document camera while you wait.

You can use this planning sheet to think through the definition, examples, nonexamples, synonyms, etc. that you will use to teach each word. The second page of the handout provides examples with three Level 2 words—*equivalent*, *hilarious*, and *mumble*. I will model how to use the planning form with another word, *infinite*.

On the document camera, write “infinite” as the first word on page 1 of Handout 4. Use Presenter Resource 2 to model filling in the chart for “infinite.”

Activity

Now it's your turn. Choose one of your Level 2 words and use Handout 4 to plan connections you can make to the word. You have four minutes.

Provide four minutes for participants to work.

We now can use this information to plan our lesson delivery with the word. Locate **Handout 5: Routine for Explicit Vocabulary Instruction**.

Pause for participants to locate Handout 5. Put your copy of the handout on the document camera while you wait.

The chart on page 1 lists six steps for providing explicit instruction with your word. The first four steps occur before reading the text, so we will plan those four steps first. The last two occur after reading. We will plan for those later.

Page 2 shows the same steps in Spanish. Turn to page 3. Here we see an example plan for teaching the word *infinite* using the information I brainstormed in Handout 4.

Pause to let participants examine page 3.

Now, you will do the same thing. Using the information you wrote in Handout 4, create a lesson delivery plan for your Level 2 word on page 7 of Handout 5.

Show the blank planning form on the document camera.

Do only the four steps on this page. We will do the other two steps on the next page in a moment. You have four minutes to work.

Provide four minutes for participants to work.

We have planned our instruction for before reading. Now we will plan what we will do with the vocabulary words during reading.

Note to Presenter

This activity can address the needs of diverse learners. For example, planning to use visuals is particularly effective for English language learners.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Beck et al., 2008, 2013; Giroir, Grimaldo, Vaughn, & Roberts, 2015; Neuman & Roskos, 2012; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Create an Instructional Plan: During Reading



- Identify places in the text where you will stop while reading aloud.
- Use flags or sticky notes to remind yourself where to pause, what to ask, and how to have students respond, such as in the example below.

Why did the character think the situation was hilarious?
Think-pair-share

Which of our vocabulary words describes this character?
Pinch paper

Can you use the word *splendid* in a sentence to describe the setting?
Turn to your partner



Slide 13—Create an Instructional Plan: During Reading

(39:00–44:00)

During reading, stop in certain places to ask students questions about the words. Plan these questions and the way you want students to respond. It is helpful to write these questions and the response formats on sticky notes to place in the text. The slide shows three examples of questions and response formats.

Read the examples on the slide.

Activity

Let's practice writing questions and planning ways for students to respond. Using your sticky notes, take four minutes to write questions and student response methods for the three vocabulary words you chose to explicitly teach.

Provide four minutes for participants to work.

Note to Presenter

This activity can address the needs of diverse learners. For example, teachers can choose various levels of vocabulary questions and response formats to target individual students' needs.

References

Beck et al., 2008, 2013; Giroir et al., 2015; Neuman & Roskos, 2012; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Create an Instructional Plan: After Reading



- Review the vocabulary words in various ways.
- Have students use the words in different contexts.
- Use activities that have students do more with the words (e.g., fill out graphic organizers, answer deep-processing questions).



Slide 14—Create an Instructional Plan: After Reading (44:00–49:30)

Now, we will practice planning after-reading vocabulary activities. Your after-reading activities should allow students to gain deeper knowledge of the words. These activities could include creating graphic organizers, using activities to build relationships among words, acting out words, or using words in sentences. Pages 3 and 4 of Handout 5 provide examples of deep-processing activities with the word *infinite*.

Pause for participants to find pages 3 and 4 of Handout 5. Put your copy on the document camera.

The first activity is a semantic map. A blank map is provided on page 5.

The second activity is a word web with *infinite*'s root, *fin*. An example web is provided on page 6.

The next activity has students brainstorm things they'd like to have an infinite supply of.

The final activity in step 6 has the students use the words in sentences. Notice that the teacher has posted sentence stems to scaffold this activity for students. Sentence stems can serve to support English language learners and struggling students as they acquire new vocabulary. Students above grade level students may not need sentence stems when learning new words.

Activity

With your Level 2 word, use Handout 4 and page 8 of Handout 5 to plan deep-processing and sentence activities for after reading. You have four minutes to work.

Provide four minutes for participants to work.

We have now planned an entire lesson with one word. Let's practice using our planned instructional routine to teach the word.

Note to Presenter

This activity can address the needs of diverse learners. Discussing what is already known about a word, perhaps by using a circle map, is a great way to connect familiar concepts with a new vocabulary word.

References

Beck et al., 2008, 2013; Giroir et al., 2015; Neuman & Roskos, 2012; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Practice: Teaching Words Directly



Use your planned instructional routine to teach your Level 2 word to your partner.

- Preteach the word before reading.
- Ask one or two questions related to the word during reading.
- Engage in after-reading activities like asking deep-processing questions and using the word in sentences.



Slide 15—Practice: Teaching Words Directly

(49:30–1:02:30)

Activity

Work with your partner, taking turns being the teacher and student. One of you will be the teacher first and use your planned instructional routine in Handout 5 and your sticky notes to teach the word to your partner. Then, you will switch roles.

Allow 12 minutes. As you hear effective practices, write the name of the participant and the practice. Record examples from across the instructional routine (student-friendly definitions, deeper-processing activities, etc.). Write the examples on chart paper and display it. Use the list to lead a discussion. Ask questions such as “What’s effective about this deep-processing activity?” or “Which parts of the routine were most difficult to plan?”

We have planned and practiced vocabulary instruction before, during, and after reading. To own these vocabulary words, though, students need to do more with the words. So you will need to plan extension activities for students to continue to practice using the words across contexts.

Plan Extension Activities

- Combine vocabulary words from across lessons for extended review and practice.
- Create a vocabulary word wall to use with activities.
- Create a workstation with activities with previously learned words.



Slide 16—Plan Extension Activities

(1:02:30–1:02:40)

Activities and games provide students opportunities to practice previously learned vocabulary words. These extension activities are critical for deep processing and gaining ownership of words.

References

Beck et al., 2008, 2013; Neuman & Roskos, 2012; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Teaching Relationships Among Words



- Helps students “store” words by building connections among them
- Aids effective, efficient retrieval of words when speaking or writing
- Can be done by using the following:
 - Graphic organizers
 - Feature analyses
 - Word categorizing
 - Knowledge of morphological word families



Slide 17—Teaching Relationships Among Words (1:02:40–1:11:30)

The next instructional element we will examine is teaching relationships among words.

We do not store single words in isolation. Instead, we create neural networks of words, and the better we store these words by building connections among them, the more easily we can retrieve them when we need to use them in our speaking or writing.

The slide lists several methods for teaching word relationships. Locate **Handout 6: Vocabulary Graphic Organizers**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Put your copy of the handout on the document camera. As you read the list of various graphic organizers, show them on the document camera.

This handout provides multiple examples of graphic organizers to extend students' vocabulary learning, including

- concept maps,
- semantic and word maps,
- a word wrap,
- a circle map for students to brainstorm their knowledge about a word,
- bubble maps,
- a four-square vocabulary map, and
- word webs.

Note to Presenter

In a circle map, the vocabulary word goes in the middle, and then students brainstorm ideas that will go in the outer circle.

Activity

Let's do a quick activity with the first word web on page 15, which shows word relationships through morphology—specifically having the same prefix, *in-/im-/il-/ir-*. Based on the word it's added to, this prefix's spelling changes, which is why it's called a "chameleon" prefix. Work with a partner to answer the question in the star next to the word web. I will give you a minute.

Allow one minute for participants to decide when the prefix is "in-," "im-," "il-," or "ir-." As you walk around, listen for the correct answer. If you hear it, have that person share. If not, provide the following explanation.

When this prefix is added to a word, most of the time, it's spelled "in-." If it's added to a word that starts with a bilabial sound, which means it's produced by putting your lips together, it changes to "im-." Bilabial sounds are /m/, /b/, and /p/. This change occurs because in English, we put similarly produced sounds next to each other. The /n/ in "in-" changes to an /m/ to make it easier to produce these words. When "in-" is added to a word that starts with an "l," it changes to "il-." Similarly, when it's added to a word that starts with an "r," it changes to "ir-."

Besides graphic organizers, students can participate in other activities like feature analyses, categorizing words, and examining morphological relationships. **Handout 7: Feature Analysis** provides a feature analysis template and two other examples.

Pause for participants to examine the handout.

Notes continue on the next page.

Putting words into various categories and drawing connections among these categories, like hierarchical relationships, can also build deeper word knowledge. **Handout 8: Sorting Words Into Hierarchical Categories** provides an example of such a sorting and connecting activity with some familiar vocabulary words.

As you pause for participants to find the handout, place a blank copy on the document camera. Provide a few words for participants to start the activity.

Activity

Working in partners, sort the words and place them into the hierarchical categories. You have four minutes.

*Allow four minutes for participants to work. At the end of four minutes, you can put **Presenter Resource 3** on the document camera for participants to check their responses against the possible responses provided in that resource.*

Finally, one last way to help students see the relationships among words is to teach morphological word families based on prefixes, suffixes, base words, or roots. We saw two examples with the word webs in Handout 6. Locate **Handout 9: Morphology Information**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Take a moment to examine the handout and think about how you can use this information when planning morphology instruction in your classroom.

Pause for participants to examine the handout.

Activity

Now, turn and talk with your partner for one minute about the information in Handout 9 and how you will use it when you go back to work on vocabulary with your students.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss the handout and how they will use the information.

The information in this handout is also helpful for our next instructional element—teaching and practicing word-learning strategies.

References

Anderson & Nagy, 1991; Archer & Hughes, 2011; Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2014; Moats, 2009; Neuman & Wright, 2014; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Teach and Practice Word-Learning Strategies

- Starting in upper elementary school, students come across 10,000 new words a year in their reading.
- More than half of these words are morphologically complex, meaning they have multiple meaningful parts that can be used along with context to infer their meanings.
- It is not realistic to teach all of these words.
- Students must have strategies for figuring out these words on their own.



Slide 18—Teach and Practice Word-Learning Strategies

(1:11:30–1:12:00)

The next instructional element we will examine is teaching word-learning strategies.

Research demonstrates that as students move into upper elementary and middle school, they see thousands of new words every year. It is not feasible to teach all of these words. Instead, students must learn to infer word meanings from context and the meaningful parts within the words themselves.

References

Blachowicz, Fisher, Ogle, & Watts-Taffe, 2006; Edwards, Font, Bauman, & Boland, 2004; Kearns et al., 2016; Padak, Newton, Rasinski, & Newton, 2008; Scott, 2005; Wolter & Green, 2013

Teach and Practice Word-Learning Strategies (cont.)



- Teach multiple strategies for figuring out the meanings of new words.
 - Using context clues
 - Breaking words up into meaningful parts
 - Using a dictionary
- Teach students to be flexible when using these strategies.
- Ensure that students take part in a lot of guided and independent practice using the strategies.



Slide 19—Teach and Practice Word-Learning Strategies (cont.)

(1:12:00–1:21:00)

Research also shows that explicit instruction in word-learning strategies, like effectively using context clues, morphemes, and dictionaries, can improve both vocabulary development and reading comprehension.

Gaining information about a word's meaning from context can help build a reader's knowledge of that word over time. In this way, context supports a more gradual, long-term learning of words. The chances of using a single context to derive a word's meaning are slim (only about 15 percent of the time), and doing so often requires an extensive amount of inference. Still, research supports teaching students to

- reread a sentence or group of sentences with an unknown word,
- think about what that context tells about the word's meaning,
- form an initial hypothesis about the word's meaning, and

- combine that hypothesis with other information, such as the word's morphological structure.

Developing students' morphological awareness has a much stronger research base, which has expanded tremendously over the past decade. Numerous studies demonstrate a strong relationship between students' morphological awareness and both their vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension.

Dictionaries are also helpful tools when teaching students word-learning strategies, but be careful. These reference materials are not easy to use. Before a dictionary can be used successfully, the student must be able to

- alphabetize and use the guide words,
- spell effectively enough to find the word,
- understand how a definition is constructed, and
- use context to support choosing from among several definitions, as most words have more than one meaning.

These are all complex skills in and of themselves. For students to use dictionaries effectively, it is necessary to provide explicit instruction and modeling related to this skill and its component skills.

Please locate **Handout 10: Guidelines for Teaching and Practicing Word-Learning Strategies**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Take a moment to examine the handout. Think about how these guidelines may influence your instructional decisions.

Pause for participants to examine the handout.

Once you have taught and modeled these word-learning strategies, provide many opportunities for students to practice using the strategies. The only way for students to become flexible in their use of strategies is through extensive practice.

Let's watch a video of a teacher providing guided practice in word-learning strategies to her students. As you watch, note the strategies the students use to figure out unknown words.

Notes continue on the next page.

Video: Word-Learning Strategies

Play the video.

Take two minutes to discuss the strategies you observed students using and effective instructional elements.

Allow two minutes for participants to discuss what they observed in the video.

This teacher used the first routine on page 3 of Handout 10.

Pause for participants to find the description of the routine.

Handout 11: Word-Learning Strategy Cards provides sample cards you can use for teaching this word-learning routine in your classroom.

References

Apel, Wilson-Fowler, Brimo, & Perrin, 2012; Baumann, Font, Edwards, & Boland, 2005; Bear et al., 2014; Blachowicz et al., 2006; Bowers & Kirby, 2010; Bowers, Kirby, & Deacon, 2010; Carlisle, 2010; Deacon, Kieffer, & Laroche, 2014; Ebbers, 2011; Edwards et al., 2004; Klingner, Vaughn, Boardman, & Swanson, 2012; Moats, 2009; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Swanborn & de Glopper, 1999

Model and Practice Word Consciousness

- Motivate students to pay attention to words and ask questions about them.
- Help students see the power of words.
- Create an atmosphere that supports experimenting with words and language.
- Be willing to admit (often) that you don't know a word or phrase and model your interest in figuring out its meaning.



Slide 20—Model and Practice Word Consciousness

(1:21:00–1:22:30)

Let's discuss another important vocabulary element—developing students' word consciousness. Word consciousness moves students toward developing vocabulary breadth rather than depth.

Words are fascinating! For students to agree, we must model an interest in words and language. This interest is called being word conscious, and it is not taught in a single lesson or even a set of lessons. It is an attitude or a belief that the English language is amazing and that we can learn a lot about it if we pay attention and ask questions.

We need to show students the power of words. Help them see that knowing words helps us think and speak more deeply and precisely. Students will not buy into this idea, though, unless we create an atmosphere in which trying out words and language is supported and encouraged. Students have to be willing to use new

Notes continue on the next page.

words on their own, even when they are not exactly sure that they are using the words correctly. Such experimentation creates learning and eventual ownership of words.

To develop such an atmosphere, you also have to admit when you do not know a word or phrase, which mirrors your students' experience. Then, show them how you ask questions and use strategies and resources to figure out these words.

Modeling and practicing word consciousness is especially important for English language learners, as they will realize that they are not alone in the process of learning new words because, in fact, we are all English language learners!

References

Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Graves, 2006; Moats, 2009; Scott & Nagy, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Model and Practice Word Consciousness (cont.)



- Have students watch or listen for previously learned words in texts, conversations, etc.
- Use word-play activities such as puns and hink pinks.
- Have students use a word journal or bookmark to keep track of words they find interesting and want to know more about.
- Ask students to discuss words they hear or see at home, on TV, on the Internet, in text messages, in the grocery store, on signs, etc.
- Encourage students to use new words in their speaking and writing.



Slide 21—Model and Practice Word Consciousness (cont.)

(1:22:30–1:24:30)

Many of the vocabulary extension activities and word-learning strategies we have discussed can help students develop and practice word consciousness. Other activities such as puns and hink pinks allow children to play with words. You can also use books like *Play Ball*, *Amelia Bedelia* from the *Amelia Bedelia* series by Peggy Parish or Fred Gwynne's picture books, such as *The King Who Rained*, to see the humor in multiple-meaning words.

Other activities include simple ideas like

- having students keep a word journal or bookmark with new words they come across in their listening or reading,
- asking students to discuss words they hear or see outside of school, and
- encouraging students to use new words in their speaking and writing.

Notes continue on the next page.

If you want students to do these things, though, you have to model them yourself. You cannot create word conscious students if you do not exhibit an interest in and fascination with words.

Locate **Handout 12: Guidelines for Developing Word Consciousness**.

Pause for participants to locate Handout 12.

Take a moment to examine the recommendations in the handout. Then, we will play one set of the word games.

Allow one minute for participants to examine the handout.

References

Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Graves, 2006; Gwynne, 1988; Moats, 2009; Parish, 1962; Scott & Nagy, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Word Play: Hink Pinks and Hinky Pinkies



Hink Pinks

Synonymous Phrase	Hink Pink
obese feline	fat cat
intelligent beginning	smart start
unhappy father	sad dad
tidy road	neat street

Hinky Pinkies

Synonymous Phrase	Hinky Pinky
great detective	super snooper
smarter boxer	brighter fighter
tired flower	lazy daisy
numeral sleep	number slumber



Slide 22—Word Play: Hink Pinks and Hinky Pinkies

(1:24:30–1:27:30)

Turn to page 2 of Handout 12.

Pause for participants to turn to page 2.

Activity

Work with a partner to figure out the hink pinks, hinky pinkies, and hinkety pinketies in the middle of the page. I will give you three minutes to work.

Allow three minutes for participants to work on the activity. At the end of the three minutes, click to reveal the answers for the riddles on the slide. Answers for the hinkety pinketies are on the following slide.

References

Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006, 2007; Graves, 2006

Word Play: Hinkety Pinketies



Synonymous Phrase

drum talk
smoggy driver
evil preacher
happier dog

Hinkety Pinkety

percussion discussion
polluter commuter
sinister minister
merrier terrier



Slide 23—Word Play: Hinkety Pinketies

(1:27:30–1:28:00)

Click to reveal the answers for each of the riddles on the slide.

Using word-play activities like hink pinks and puns can get students thinking about relationships among words and linguistic elements, including homophones, multiple-meaning words, synonyms, idioms, and metaphors.

References

Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006, 2007; Graves, 2006

Embed Definitions in Read-Alouds and Discussions

- Provide quick definitions or synonyms, or act out the word.
- Make sure these embedded explanations do not interfere with the flow of the text or discussion.
- Example:
 “Some stars send out **lethal** (*deadly*) amounts of **radiation** (*energy*), which fry the surrounding planets and their moons. Our sun is a long-lived, **stable** (*lasting*) star—perfect for supporting life.”

Source: Aguilar, 2013



Slide 24—Embed Definitions in Read-Alouds and Discussions

(1:28:00–1:29:00)

The next instructional element we will examine is embedding vocabulary definitions within discussions and read-alouds. Use these more implicit teaching methods with words that may not merit a great deal of instructional time, but that students need to know to understand a text or conversation.

For example, when you say or read a word that students may not understand, provide quick definitions or synonyms, or act out the word. During a discussion about making predictions, you might say, “Do you have a hypothesis, or good guess, as to what the character will do next?” Or perhaps, when reading a science text about space aloud to a class, you might read one paragraph this way.

Read the example on the slide.

Words in bold are Level 2 words or phrases that may need scaffolding. Italicized words in the parentheses are examples of embedded definitions or synonyms.

Notes continue on the next page.

Note to Presenter

Not all bolded words on the slide necessarily need scaffolding or embedded definitions. This will depend on students' needs.

References

Aguilar, 2013; Archer & Hughes, 2011; Coyne, Kame'enui, & Carnine, 2010; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Stahl, 2005

Embedding Definitions: Practice



“The moon is our closest companion in space. Only three days away by spacecraft, it’s a dramatic reminder of how violent and chaotic the early solar system was. With just a pair of binoculars, we can see how the moon’s terrain was smoothed by the lava flows of ancient volcanoes or scarred with impact craters a hundred miles in diameter.”

Source: Aguilar, 2013



Slide 25—Embedding Definitions: Practice

(1:29:00–1:29:30)

Note to Presenter

If time is limited, quickly review this and the next slide.

Optional Activity

Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Let’s practice embedding definitions or synonyms. Here is another passage from the same space text. Work with your partner to figure out Level 2 words or phrases after which you might need to embed a definition or synonym or act it out. Try to determine student-friendly methods for quickly telling or showing what each word or phrase means. You have two minutes to work.

Allow two minutes for participants to work on the activity. At the end of the two minutes, go to the next slide with possible embedded definitions, synonyms, or actions.

Reference

Aguilar, 2013

Embedding Definitions: Possible Definitions, Synonyms, or Actions

“The moon is our closest **companion** (*friend*) in space. Only three days away by **spacecraft** (*rocket*), it’s a **dramatic reminder of** (*it helps us remember*) how **violent and chaotic** (*full of powerful, wild forces*) the early solar system was. With just a pair of **binoculars** (*SHOW*), we can see how the moon’s **terrain** (*land*) was smoothed by the lava **flows** (*streams*) of **ancient** (*very old*) volcanoes or **scarred** (*marked*) with **impact craters** (*where meteorites hit*) a hundred miles in **diameter** (*across—DRAW*).”



Slide 26—Embedding Definitions: Possible Definitions, Synonyms, or Actions (1:29:30–1:30:00)

Here are possible embedded scaffolds for the Level 2 words and phrases in this passage.

Read the passage, going over the embedded words, definitions, and actions. There are other possible responses, so you may want participants to share a few of their scaffolds for the Level 2 words and phrases if time permits.

We have selected multiple words today to illustrate this strategy. You should carefully select the words for which students need support to avoid disrupting the text too much.

Use Academic Language Effectively



- Model the use of newly learned words across contexts.

Word	Arrival	Snack time	Dismissal
<i>fortunate</i>	Everyone came in and began working so diligently. What a fortunate teacher I am!	Were you fortunate enough to get the snack you wanted today?	At home tonight, ask your parents what makes them feel fortunate .

- Use more sophisticated or precise terms.
 - *Magnificent* rather than *really good*
 - *Bounded* instead of *jumped*
- Use more advanced syntax with connectives that link ideas together.



Slide 27—Use Academic Language Effectively (1:30:00–1:36:30)

The next instructional element we will examine is using academic language effectively.

Embedding synonyms or definitions within discussions and read-alouds makes it possible for us to use advanced academic language that our students have not yet mastered. We must continue to talk in sophisticated ways so that we immerse students in the kind of language they are expected to use in their own academic speaking and writing. Creating such a language-rich environment allows students to consistently encounter new words, building their breadth of vocabulary knowledge.

Using academic language effectively includes modeling the use of newly learned words across contexts.

Go over the example (“fortunate”) on the slide.

Notes continue on the next page.

Using academic language effectively also includes

- using more sophisticated or precise terms like *magnificent* rather than *really good* or *bounded* instead of *jumped* and
- using more advanced syntax with connectives, like transition words and subordinating conjunctions that link ideas together.

Using academic language with students effectively requires intentional planning. We will now peruse a few resources. Please locate **Handout 13: Academic Word List**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

This handout lists 180 of the most common academic words in English. Take a moment to highlight in green the words that you already use consistently in your classroom. Then, highlight in yellow 10 words that you could add to the academic vocabulary you consistently use when talking with students.

Allow two minutes for participants to work on the activity and discuss the words at their tables. At the end of the two minutes, have a few participants share one of the academic words they chose to add to their vocabulary.

Now, locate **Handout 14: Connectives**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides lists of different kinds of connectives. Use these connectives in your classroom discussions and conversations with students. Turn to page 2.

Pause for participants to turn to page 2. Put your copy on the document camera.

Activity

The chart at the top is taken from the work of Crosson and Lesaux. It compares more familiar and less familiar connectives. Take one minute to look at the less familiar, or academic, connectives. Highlight the three academic connectives that you want to use more often when talking with students. Then, quickly share those at your table.

Allow two minutes for participants to work on the activity and discuss the words at their tables. At the end of the two minutes, have a few participants share one of the connectives they chose (if time permits).

References

Bowers & Vasilyeva, 2011; Crosson and Lesaux, 2013; Dickinson & Porche, 2011; Gámez & Lesaux, 2015; Graves, 2006; Huttenlocher, Vasilyeva, Cymerman, & Levine, 2002; Stahl & Stahl, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Read Texts Aloud to Students



- Choose texts that are one to three grade levels above the grade level you teach.
- Find texts that contain Level 2 words that your students will have to read and understand in the next few years.
- To ensure student understanding of the reading, build background knowledge before reading the text.
- Embed synonyms or definitions as you read the text.
- Ask questions to check for understanding during and after reading.



Slide 28—Read Texts Aloud to Students

(1:36:30–1:37:30)

The next instructional element we will examine is reading texts aloud to students.

One of the best methods for frequently exposing students to sophisticated vocabulary is reading aloud various texts—picture books, chapter books, newspaper articles, science articles, etc. These texts should connect to themes or content that you are teaching across the curriculum. They should also contain plenty of Level 2 words, including ones that your students will be expected to read in the next few years.

To ensure that students understand the text, provide a context for the reading. Build students' background knowledge by bringing in concrete objects, sharing multimedia, or preteaching vocabulary. Embed synonyms or definitions as needed and ask questions to check for understanding during and after the reading.

Note to Presenter

The following activity is optional. If time is short, proceed to the next slide.

Locate **Handout 15: Texts for Read-Alouds: Evaluating the Level of Vocabulary**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Optional Activity

This handout provides three sample lessons with excerpts from texts that a teacher has chosen to read aloud. Work with a partner at your table to follow the directions at the top of the handout to identify the Level 2 words, determine the percentage of these words in each excerpt, and decide whether, based on this information, you believe the text would effectively develop students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge. You will have three minutes to work.

*Allow three minutes for participants to work on the activity. At the end of the three minutes, put **Presenter Resource 4** on the document camera to show possible Level 2 words and discuss the level of language within each excerpt.*

This process is a critical part of planning vocabulary read-alouds, and with continued practice, this process will become second nature.

References

Coyne, Simmons, & Kame'enui, 2004; Cunningham, 2005; Graves, 2006; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Involve Students in Academic Discussions



- Use response techniques, such as
 - think-turn-talk and
 - think-write-share.
- Allow students to work in collaborative groups to
 - scaffold and support one another at literacy workstations,
 - discuss their thinking while practicing comprehension strategies,
 - brainstorm and organize ideas for writing, and
 - provide feedback on one another's writing.
- Provide scaffolds like sentence and question stems and academic vocabulary word walls.



Slide 29—Involve Students in Academic Discussions

(1:37:30–1:38:30)

The next instructional element we will examine is involving students in academic discussions.

In addition to you using academic language effectively and reading aloud texts with high-level vocabulary, students should practice using academic language and high-level vocabulary. Instructional methods include

- using partnering techniques, such as think-turn-talk or think-write-share;
- having students work in cooperative groups during literacy workstations or other activities;
- allowing students to work together during planning, revising, and editing activities within the writing process; and
- providing oral language scaffolds, such as sentence or question stems and academic vocabulary word walls.

If your students are unfamiliar with the think-turn-talk procedures, **Handout 16: Lesson Plan for Introducing Think-Turn-Talk** provides an introductory lesson.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Graves, 2006; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Have Students Read Widely

“Although not a substitute for direct and explicit instruction in reading, independent reading increases reading ability and is a particularly potent mechanism of increasing language skills.”

— Cunningham, 2005, p. 58



Slide 30—Have Students Read Widely

(1:38:30–1:39:30)

One final method for building students' vocabulary knowledge is to encourage them to read often and across different genres. Students are much more likely to encounter new vocabulary while reading than while watching television or even talking with a college-educated adult.

Take a moment to read the quotation on the slide to yourself.

Allow participants to read the slide.

Research shows that students who read more demonstrate greater vocabulary knowledge than students who read less. Some ways to encourage independent reading include creating comfortable reading spaces, having accessible and well-labeled classroom libraries, and keeping reading journals. As this quotation states, though, such independent reading should not replace explicit, systematic vocabulary instruction.

Of course, the relationship is reciprocal, meaning those who have greater vocabulary and comprehension abilities also tend to read more, which helps

them improve their vocabularies and comprehension. The continuum in Handout 2 shows us what we have to do. We must provide all types of support—both embedded and explicit—to develop both breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge.

References

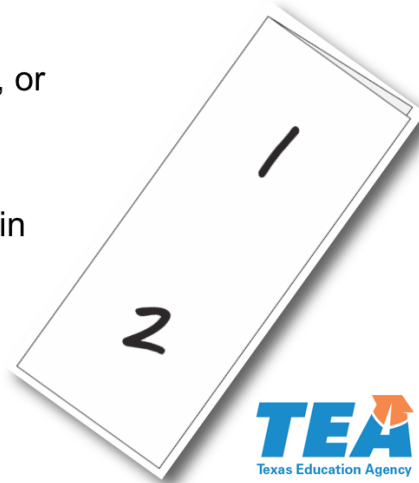
Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Cunningham, 2005, p. 58; Hiebert & Kamil, 2005; Neuman & Wright, 2014; Stahl & Nagy, 2006

Assessing Vocabulary



Use assessments such as the following:

- Answering open-ended questions
- Using words in written sentences or more extended texts
- Completing analogies
- Matching words with pictures, synonyms, or antonyms
- Examining a word's morphology
- Evaluating students' vocabulary use within written assignments
- Using pinch papers
- Using portfolios, anecdotal records, or informal checklists



Slide 31—Assessing Vocabulary

(1:39:30–1:41:00)

This slide lists several ways to assess vocabulary. **Handout 17: Examples of Vocabulary Assessments** describes more formal types of vocabulary assessments. Take a moment to review the handout.

Pause for participants to find and examine the handout.

In students' writing and speaking, pay attention to their use of vocabulary and linguistic elements, such as idioms and analogies. Keeping track of such language use in portfolios, anecdotal records, and checklists can help you evaluate student vocabulary development over time.

Let's try an informal assessment using our pinch papers to check for understanding with one of our new vocabulary words.

Activity

Fold a sheet of paper in half and write the numbers 1 and 2 on it similar to the example on the slide.

Use your laser pointer to point to the pinch paper on the slide.

Pause for participants to create their pinch papers.

I will say two sentences with the word *polysemous*. Listen to both sentences as I read them. If I use *polysemous* correctly in sentence 1, pinch the 1. If I use it correctly in sentence 2, pinch the 2.

Sentence 1: The word *run* is polysemous because it has many different meanings.

Sentence 2: A rectangle is polysemous because it has more than one side.

Pause for participants to pinch. The answer is 1 because “polysemous” means “having multiple meanings.”

I can look around the room and note who hesitated with their pinching and may need additional instruction.

References

Biemiller, 2005; Farrall, 2012

Taking a Closer Look



- Examine the instructional checklist for vocabulary.
- Note that row three contains the vocabulary activities and lessons that we have discussed.
- Use the checklist to examine grouping formats, explicit instruction elements, activities and lessons, and materials within a vocabulary lesson.
- After the video, work with your tablemates to compare notes.



Slide 32—Taking a Closer Look

(1:41:00–1:47:00)

We have now discussed many methods for building students' vocabulary knowledge and assessing this knowledge. Please locate **Handout 18: Systematic Instruction: Vocabulary Checklist**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Similar to ones we have used in previous sections, the checklist has grouping formats, explicit instructional components, and materials used for teaching vocabulary. In the third row, you will also see the activities and lessons that we have discussed throughout this session. We will now use the checklist to examine a vocabulary lesson.

In a moment, I will play a video. As you view the video, check the boxes on the handout for the different instructional elements you see. Also, make additional notes in the Comments column.

Video: Content Area Vocabulary Instruction

Play the video.

Now, compare your checklist and notes with those of your tablemates. I will give you two minutes to discuss.

Allow participants two minutes to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the two minutes, share ideas you heard that were interesting.

Consider Diversity: English Language Learners



Explicit and contextualized vocabulary instruction is essential for English language learners.



Slide 33—Consider Diversity: English Language Learners

(1:47:00–1:51:00)

Developing English vocabulary can be challenging for English language learners. These students can become excellent decoders but might struggle to comprehend texts due to limited English vocabulary.

Studies have shown that English language learners in all grades respond as well as English-only students to effective explicit vocabulary instruction that encompasses some of the strategies previously discussed. Research has also shown that some considerations will strengthen instruction for English language learners.

Activity

Locate **Handout 19: Vocabulary Instruction Considerations for English Language Learners**. Take three minutes to review this handout and discuss these considerations with your tablemates.

Allow participants three minutes to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the three minutes, have participants share with the whole group or share ideas you heard that were interesting.

References

August et al., 2005; August et al., 2006; Baker et al., 2014; Calderon et al., 2005; Carlo et al., 2004; Coyne, Kame'enui, & Carmine, 2010; Crevecoeur, Coyne, & McCoach, 2014; Francis et al., 2006; Gámez & Levine, 2013; Gersten et al., 2007; Graves, August, & Mancilla-Martinez, 2012; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Shanahan & Beck, 2006

Remember

“A person who knows more words can speak, and even think, more precisely about the world... Words divide the world; the more words we have, the more complex ways we can think about the world.”

— Stahl & Nagy, 2006, p. 5



Slide 34—Remember

(1:51:00–1:51:30)

Take a moment to read the quotation on the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Building students' vocabulary knowledge is not just about reading or writing. It is about thinking. The more words we know and understand, the more precisely we can think about the world and how to interact with others in it.

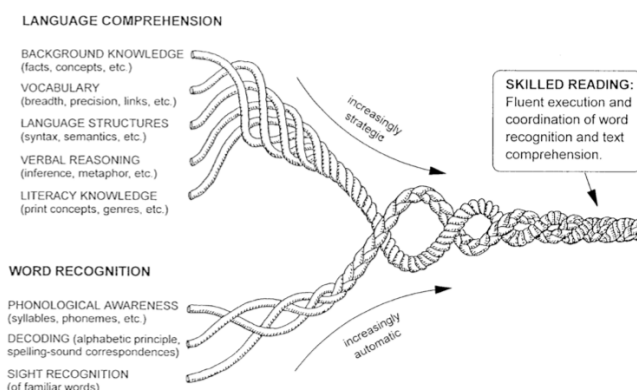
Reference

Stahl & Nagy, 2006, p. 5

The Reading Rope



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



Scarborough, 2001



Slide 35—The Reading Rope

(1:51:30–1:54:30)

Locate Handout 1: The Reading Rope and the reading rope model from your folder, two pink pipe cleaners on your table, and two adhesive tabs from your supply pouch.

Show these materials on the document camera as participants locate them.

Activity

Each pink pipe cleaner represents one strand of the skills needed for students to be proficient in language comprehension. Use the adhesive tabs to label one pink pipe cleaner “vocabulary” and the other “language structures.”

On the document camera, model how to label the tabs.

Notes continue on the next page.

Next, you will twist the pipe cleaners together to represent two components of the language comprehension strand in the reading rope model. While you weave, discuss with your table the guiding question on the slide.

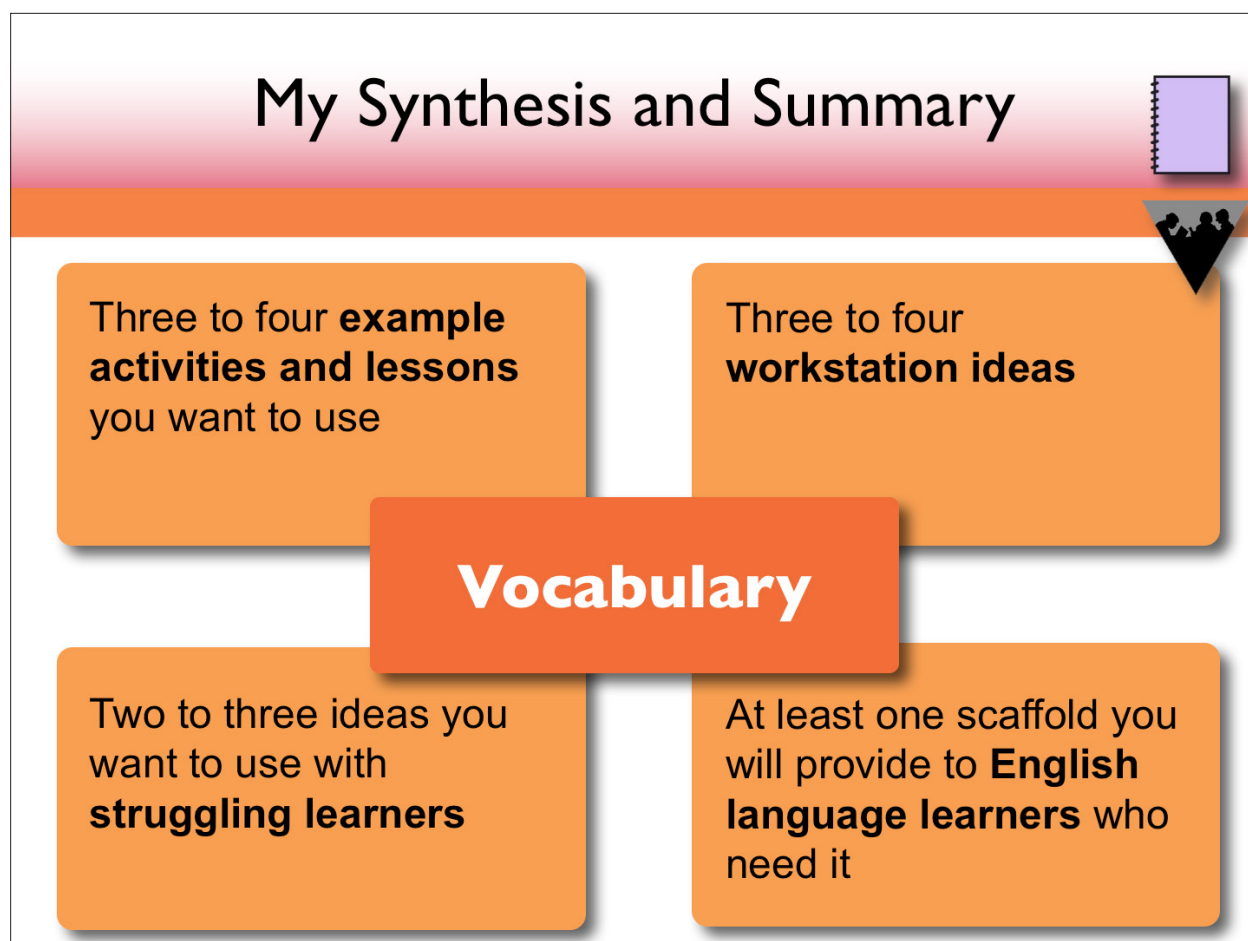
Provide two minutes for participants to work and discuss.

Place your reading rope handout and model back into your folder. We will continue to add to them in our next section.

Now that you have had time to reflect, let's see how our new learning can be applied to our daily instruction.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001



Slide 36—My Synthesis and Summary

(1:54:30–2:00:00)

To conclude this section, we will synthesize what we have learned and what it means for vocabulary within our literacy block. Take out the Grade 4 Literacy Block and the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide from your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the resources.

As with the other sections, we will use these two documents to summarize what we have learned and how we can apply it to our literacy instruction when we get back to our classroom. On the Grade 4 Literacy Block handout, complete the third row for Vocabulary.

Display Presenter Resource 5 on the document camera.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Here is a model showing how I completed the Literacy Block document for this section.

Review the example on the presenter resource as needed.

When filling out the last column related to English language learners, you may refer to your English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide. Please take four minutes to fill out all four columns for this section.

Allow four minutes for participants to work.


Please place your Literacy Block and English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide back in your folder to use again in the next section.

We have finished the vocabulary section. We will focus on comprehension instruction next.



Vocabulary

Handouts

 **GRADES 4 & 5**

READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Pinch Paper

Receptive

Receptive

Expressive

Expressive

Vocabulary Instruction Continuum

DEPTH Fewer words More time spent per word		CREATING A LANGUAGE-RICH ENVIRONMENT						BREADTH More words Less time spent per word											
DIRECT TEACHING AND STRATEGY USE																			
Teach individual words directly	TEKS:	Teach relationships among words	TEKS:	Teach word-learning strategies	TEKS:	Have students use word-learning strategies	TEKS:	Model and practice word consciousness	TEKS:	Embed definitions during read-alouds or discussions	TEKS:	Use academic language effectively	TEKS:	Read texts aloud to students	TEKS:	Involve students in academic discussions	TEKS:	Have students read widely	TEKS:

The continuum extends from instructional activities that involve interaction with fewer words and more time spent per word to instructional activities that involve interaction with more words and less time spent per word. The left side of the continuum includes more teacher direction and strategy use, and the right side involves creating a language-rich environment.

Adapted from Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Hiebert & Kamil, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Selecting Vocabulary Words to Teach Directly

Preview the passage, even if the publisher has already selected vocabulary words.

Read the passage and identify vocabulary your students will find unfamiliar. Ask yourself, “How difficult is this passage to understand?”

Determine the importance of the words. Ask yourself, “Will this word appear again and again? Will knowledge of the word help in other content areas? Is the word necessary to comprehend the passage?” Words that fit these descriptions are Level 2 words.

Level 2 words are

- frequently encountered in other texts and content areas,
- crucial to understanding the main ideas,
- not a part of students’ prior knowledge,
- unlikely to be learned independently through context or structural analysis.

Select Level 2 words that are related to the main ideas and crucial to understanding the text.

List words that are challenging for your students. These words may or may not be related to one another. You may not be able to teach all of these words. Research supports teaching only a few words before reading to help students comprehend what they read.

Determine which words are adequately defined in the text. Some words may have a direct definition, and others may be defined through context. Expand on these words after reading, rather than directly preteaching them.

Identify words that students may be able to define based on their prefixes, suffixes, and base or root words. If structural elements help students determine words’ meanings, do not teach the words directly. Instead, use these words to teach word-learning strategies in a different lesson.

Consider student needs. Words that are likely to be in students’ prior knowledge may not require direct teaching. These words can be discussed as you activate and build prior knowledge before reading or expanded after reading. These are Level 1 words.

Examples of Word Types

Basic Words (Level 1)	Words to Own (Level 2)	Content Area Words (Level 3)
house	contrast	amoeba
children	dominant	mammal
teacher	sequence	photosynthesis
mother	transportation	planetary
dirt	provoke	digestive
sun	reluctant	gravity
star	legitimate	cell
food	define	
table	calculate	obtuse
blanket	memory	symmetry
book	debris	trapezoid
box	widespread	polygon
good	splendid	sum
happy	detest	
feel	mumble	onomatopoeia
jump	prohibit	alliteration
sit	hilarious	literature
smile	liberty	dialogue
eat	sensitive	
friend	elegant	government
apple	savage	judicial
like	abuse	legislate
picture	leisure	nationality
name	infinite	justice

Words From My Text

Level 1 Not Necessary to Teach	Level 2 Teach Deeply	Level 3 Teach Within Content Area

Adapted from Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Examples of Word Types in Spanish

Palabras básicas (Nivel 1)	Palabras para aprender (Nivel 2)	Palabras de áreas específicas (Nivel 3)
casa estudiantes maestra madre tierra sol estrella comida mesa cobija libro caja bueno contento sentir saltar sentar sonrisa comer amiga manzana gustar fotografía nombre	contraste dominante secuencia automático proteger legítimo definir calcular memoria escombros andamiaje espléndido extendido detestar prohibir correspondiente excitante libertad sensible elegante salvaje abuso placer infinito	ameba mamífero fotosíntesis planetario digestivo célula obtuso simetría trapezoide polígono onomatopeya aliteración literatura gramatical gobierno judicial legislatura nacionalidad justicia

Palabras de mi texto

Nivel 1 No enseñar	Nivel 2 Enseñar en profundidad	Nivel 3 Enseñar dentro la materia específica

Adapted from Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Planning Explicit Vocabulary Instruction

Word			
Student-Friendly Definition			
Examples			
Nonexamples			
Synonyms			
Antonyms			
Visual or Graphic Organizer			
Deep-Processing Activities			

Explicit Vocabulary Instruction (Example)

Word	<i>equivalent</i>	<i>hilarious</i>	<i>mumble</i>
Student-Friendly Definition	The same or equal	Very, very funny	Talk unclearly
Examples	Two sides of an equation $\frac{1}{2}$ and 50%	Chris Rock Mandy (one of our classmates who always makes everyone laugh)	How a shy person speaks How you speak when you are not sure When you call someone a name that you do not want the person to hear
Nonexamples	3 and 300 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 12	My dad when he is mad Me when I've lost my favorite toy	How you speak when you are really excited How you speak when you present in front of the class
Synonyms	equal alike comparable	amusing comical entertaining	mutter murmur burble
Antonyms	different unlike dissimilar	serious somber humorless	speak out shout raise your voice
Visual or Graphic Organizer	Math examples and nonexamples (same-sized circles, different-sized triangles, percentages and fractions)	Show students what I look like when I think something is hilarious	Demonstrate for students what mumbling sounds like
Deep-Processing Activities	What things should be equivalent? What things should not be equivalent?	Do you cry when something is hilarious? What do you sound or look like as you say, "That's hilarious"?	Do cheerleaders mumble? Would you mumble if you won \$100? Do you sometimes mumble when you respond to your parents?

Adapted from Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Instrucción explícita de vocabulario

Palabra			
Definición a nivel de estudiante			
Ejemplos			
Contra-ejemplos			
Sinónimos			
Antónimos			
Apoyo visual u organizador gráfico			
Actividades para procesamiento intensivo			

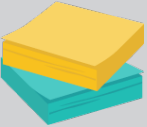
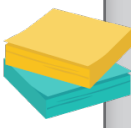
Instrucción explícita de vocabulario (ejemplo)

Palabra	<i>escasez</i>	<i>desolado*</i>	<i>orgulloso*</i>
Definición a nivel de estudiante	Muy poco de algo o falta de una cosa	Lugar que casi no tiene casas, personas, o animales	Sentirse contento por algo bien hecho
Ejemplos	Desierto – escasez de agua Tienda vacía durante una tormenta	Ártico Marte Luna Pueblo abandonado	Mi maestra cuando aprendemos Mis papás cuando saco buenas calificaciones
Contra-ejemplos	Un almacén lleno de cosas Un restaurante lleno de comida	Ciudad de Nueva York Centro comercial en Navidad	Mi mamá cuando me meto en problemas
Sinónimos	necesidad carencia pobreza	abandonado deshabitado solo	satisfecho contento gozoso
Antónimos	abundancia riqueza	lleno poblado	avergonzado triste insatisfecho
Apoyo visual u organizador gráfico	Enseñe fotos del desierto donde hay una escasez de agua o fotos de tiendas vacías durante un huracán, por ejemplo	Muestre a los estudiantes fotos de lugares o planetas desolados como Marte, pueblos fantasma, la Luna, etc.	Comente con los estudiantes algo de lo que usted se sienta orgullosa Explique a los estudiantes algo que ellos hayan hecho y por la que usted se sienta orgullosa
Actividades para procesamiento intensivo	¿En qué lugares hay escasez de comida? ¿En qué lugares no hay escasez de comida?	¿Les gustaría visitar lugares desolados? ¿Por qué? ¿Cuáles son las ventajas y desventajas de estar en un lugar desolado?	Sobre las siguientes acciones, pida a los estudiantes digan si se sentirían orgullosos o no: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Estudié para el examen • Tiré basura al piso • Ayudé a mi abuela a subirse al carro • Toqué el piano bien en el recital

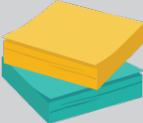

*Estas palabras tienen otros significados que no son utilizados en estas explicaciones.

Adapted from Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Routine for Explicit Vocabulary Instruction

Steps	Tips														
1. Have students say the word.															
2. Provide a definition of the word using student-friendly explanations and visuals .	Use a Post-It to help plan your instruction. 														
3. Have students discuss what is known about the word.															
4. Provide examples and nonexamples of the word.															
5. Engage in deep-processing activities by asking questions , using graphic organizers , or having students act out the word.	<p>Choose a deep-processing word from the box. Using a Post-It, plan questions and/or activities that incorporate the word. </p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="2">Deep Processing Words</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Compare</td><td>Decide</td></tr> <tr> <td>Categorize</td><td>Justify</td></tr> <tr> <td>Design</td><td>Create</td></tr> <tr> <td>Contrast</td><td>Verify</td></tr> <tr> <td>Rate</td><td>Imagine</td></tr> <tr> <td>Recommend</td><td>Predict</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	Deep Processing Words		Compare	Decide	Categorize	Justify	Design	Create	Contrast	Verify	Rate	Imagine	Recommend	Predict
Deep Processing Words															
Compare	Decide														
Categorize	Justify														
Design	Create														
Contrast	Verify														
Rate	Imagine														
Recommend	Predict														
6. Scaffold students to create powerful sentences with the new word.	<p>Remember the</p> <div> <p>"Seven-Up" Rule:</p> </div> <p>Powerful sentences are seven words and up!</p>														

Rutina para la instrucción explícita de vocabulario

Pasos	Ideas														
1. Pedir a los estudiantes que digan la palabra.															
2. Proveer una definición de la palabra usando explicaciones a nivel de los estudiantes e ilustraciones.	Use una nota adherible para ayudar a planear su instrucción. 														
3. Pedir a los estudiantes que discutan lo que saben sobre la palabra.															
4. Dar ejemplos y contra-ejemplos de la palabra.															
5. Utilizar actividades de procesamiento intensivo ; haciendo preguntas , usando organizadores gráficos , o dramatizando la palabra.	<div>Escoja una palabra. Usando una nota adherible, planee preguntas y/o actividades que incorporen la palabra. </div> <table><tr><th colspan="2">Palabras de procesamiento intensivo</th></tr><tr><td>Comparar</td><td>Decidir</td></tr><tr><td>Categorizar</td><td>Justificar</td></tr><tr><td>Diseñar</td><td>Hacer</td></tr><tr><td>Contrastar</td><td>Verificar</td></tr><tr><td>Calificar</td><td>Imaginar</td></tr><tr><td>Recomendar</td><td>Predecir</td></tr></table>	Palabras de procesamiento intensivo		Comparar	Decidir	Categorizar	Justificar	Diseñar	Hacer	Contrastar	Verificar	Calificar	Imaginar	Recomendar	Predecir
Palabras de procesamiento intensivo															
Comparar	Decidir														
Categorizar	Justificar														
Diseñar	Hacer														
Contrastar	Verificar														
Calificar	Imaginar														
Recomendar	Predecir														
6. Ayudar a los estudiantes a crear oraciones poderosas con la palabra nueva.	Acuérdese de la regla <div>"Siete o Más"</div> <p>¡Las oraciones poderosas tienen siete palabras o más!</p>														

Routine for Explicit Vocabulary Instruction Example: *infinite*

Before-Reading Routine

1. Have students say the word.
 - “Say the word *infinite*.” (Students echo.)
 - Show the word: *infinite*.
 - Say, “infinite.” (Students echo.)
2. Provide a student-friendly explanation.
 - “*Infinite* means ‘going on and on forever and ever.’ What does *infinite* mean?” (Students echo.)
 - Use the word in a sentence: “The universe is infinite. It has no boundaries.”
 - Use a visual.
3. Have students discuss what is known about the word.
 - “Think about the word *infinite*. What do you already know about the word?” Pause.
 - “Turn and tell your partner one idea about *infinite*. Be ready to share with the whole group.”
4. Provide examples and nonexamples of the word.
 - “Think about numbers. There are hundreds, then thousands, and then millions, billions, and trillions. It goes on and on. Are our numbers infinite?” (Thumbs up)
 - “Think about a basketball court.” Show a picture. “Is it infinite?” (Thumbs down)
 - “When someone asks me how much I love my children, I can’t quantify it. I tell them it has no limits. Could you describe my love for my children as infinite?” (Thumbs up)
 - “You all know me. Is my patience infinite?” (Thumbs down)

After-Reading Routine

5. Engage in deep-processing activities by asking questions, using graphic organizers, or having students act out the word.

Semantic map:

- “Think about the word *infinite*. What is it? What does it mean?” (It’s an adjective that means “going on and on forever and ever.”)
- “What are some examples of the word *infinite*?” (The universe, your imagination, a child’s love for his parents)
- “What are some nonexamples of the word *infinite*?” (Soccer field, my bank account, a room)
- “What are some other words that are similar to *infinite*?” (*endless, limitless, never-ending*)
- “What are some words that mean the opposite of *infinite*?” (*limited, restricted, finite*)
- “What would we say that *infinite* is like?” (It’s when something is very difficult to define. These are things like the universe that are difficult to get your mind around.)

Word web with *fin*: “The root word in *infinite* is *fin*. Let’s work together as a class to brainstorm other words with this root. We’ll use a word web to show the relationships among these words.” (Create a web similar to the one on page 6 of this handout.)

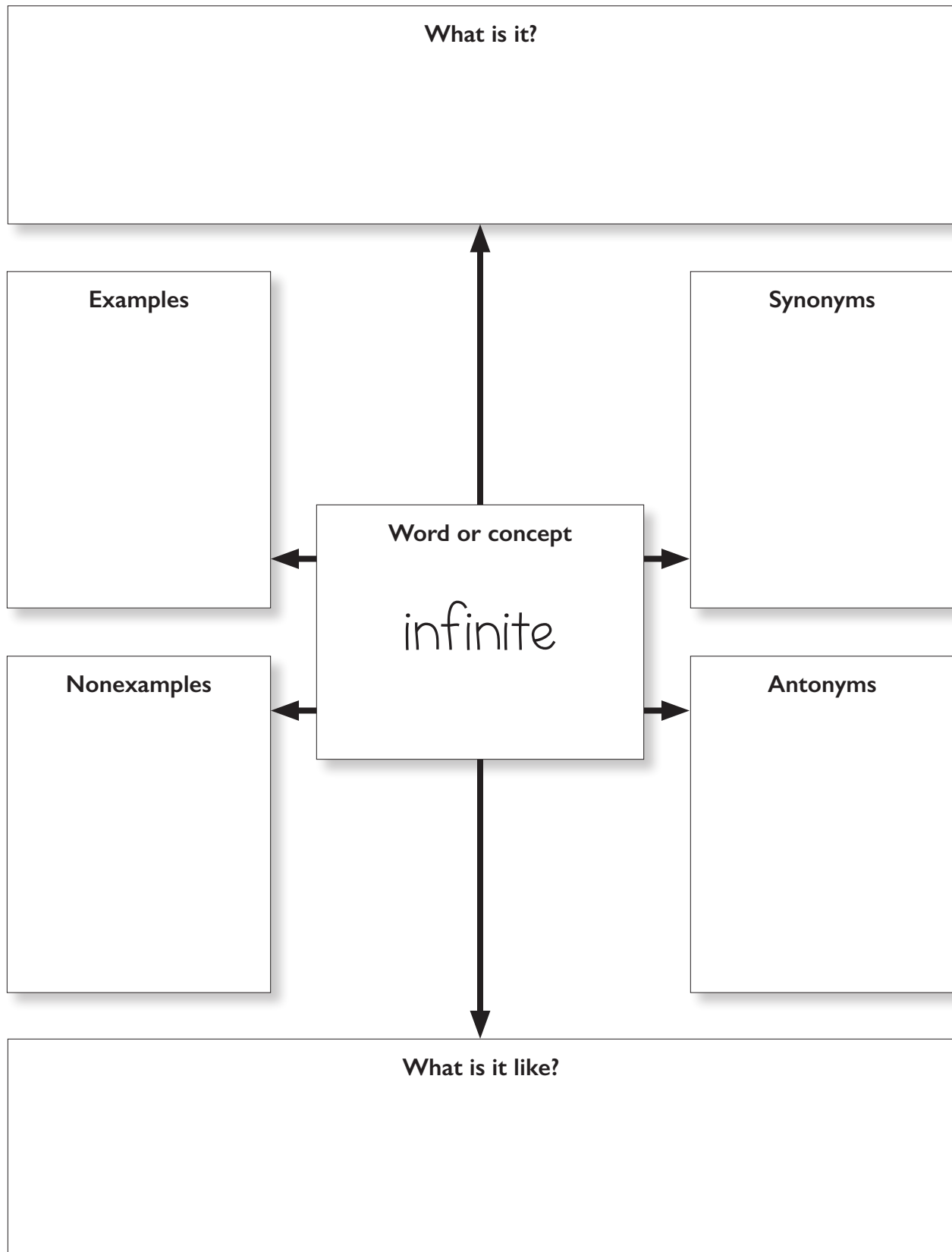
Naming three things you wish you had an infinite supply of: “Working in partners, brainstorm at least three things that you would like an infinite supply of. Be prepared to explain why you’d want an infinite supply of these particular things.”

6. Scaffold students to create powerful sentences with the new word.

Have students work in partners to create sentences using posted sentence starters:

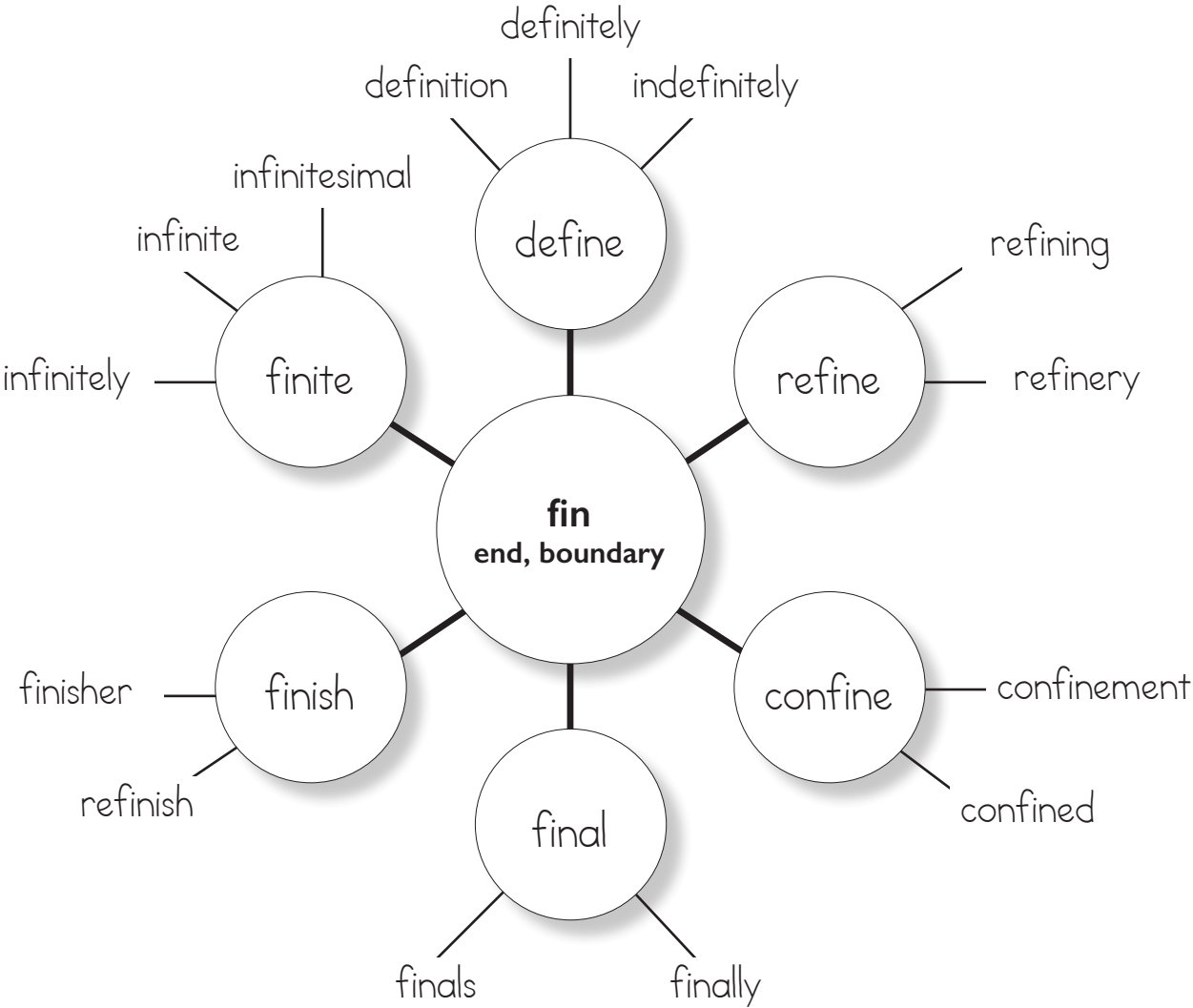
- “When I hear the word *infinite*, I think of _____ because...”
- “I would describe _____ as infinite because...”
- “Infinite _____ would be [good/bad] because...”

Semantic Map



Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Word Web for *fin*



Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Explicit Vocabulary Instruction Planning Template

BEFORE-READING ROUTINE	
1. Have students say the word.	
2. Give a student-friendly explanation. Use the word in a sentence. Use a visual.	
3. Have students discuss what is known about the word.	
4. Provide examples and nonexamples of the word.	

AFTER-READING ROUTINE	
5. Engage in deep-processing activities by asking questions, using graphic organizers, or having students act out the word.	
6. Scaffold students to create powerful sentences with the new word.	

Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Rutina para la instrucción explícita de vocabulario en español

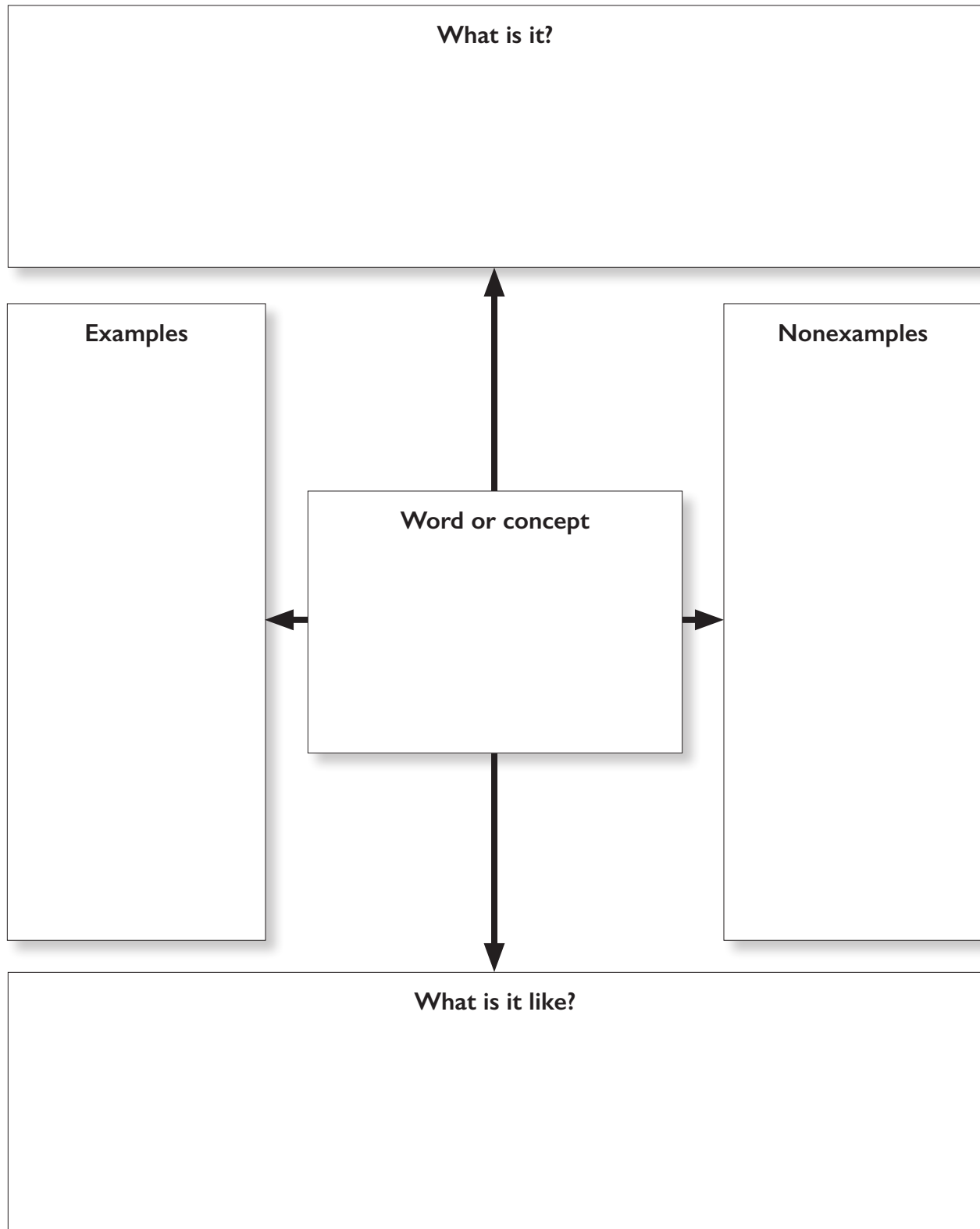
Rutina para antes de la lectura	
1. Pida a los estudiantes que digan la palabra.	
2. Provea una definición a nivel del estudiante. Utilice la palabra en una oración. Utilice un apoyo visual.	
3. Pida los estudiantes que discutan lo que saben sobre la palabra.	
4. Provea ejemplos y contraejemplos de la palabra.	

Rutina para despues de la lectura	
5. Utilice actividades de procesamiento intensivo haciendo preguntas, usando organizadores gráficos, o dramatizando la palabra.	
6. Ayude a los estudiantes a crear oraciones poderosas con la nueva palabra.	

Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Stahl, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

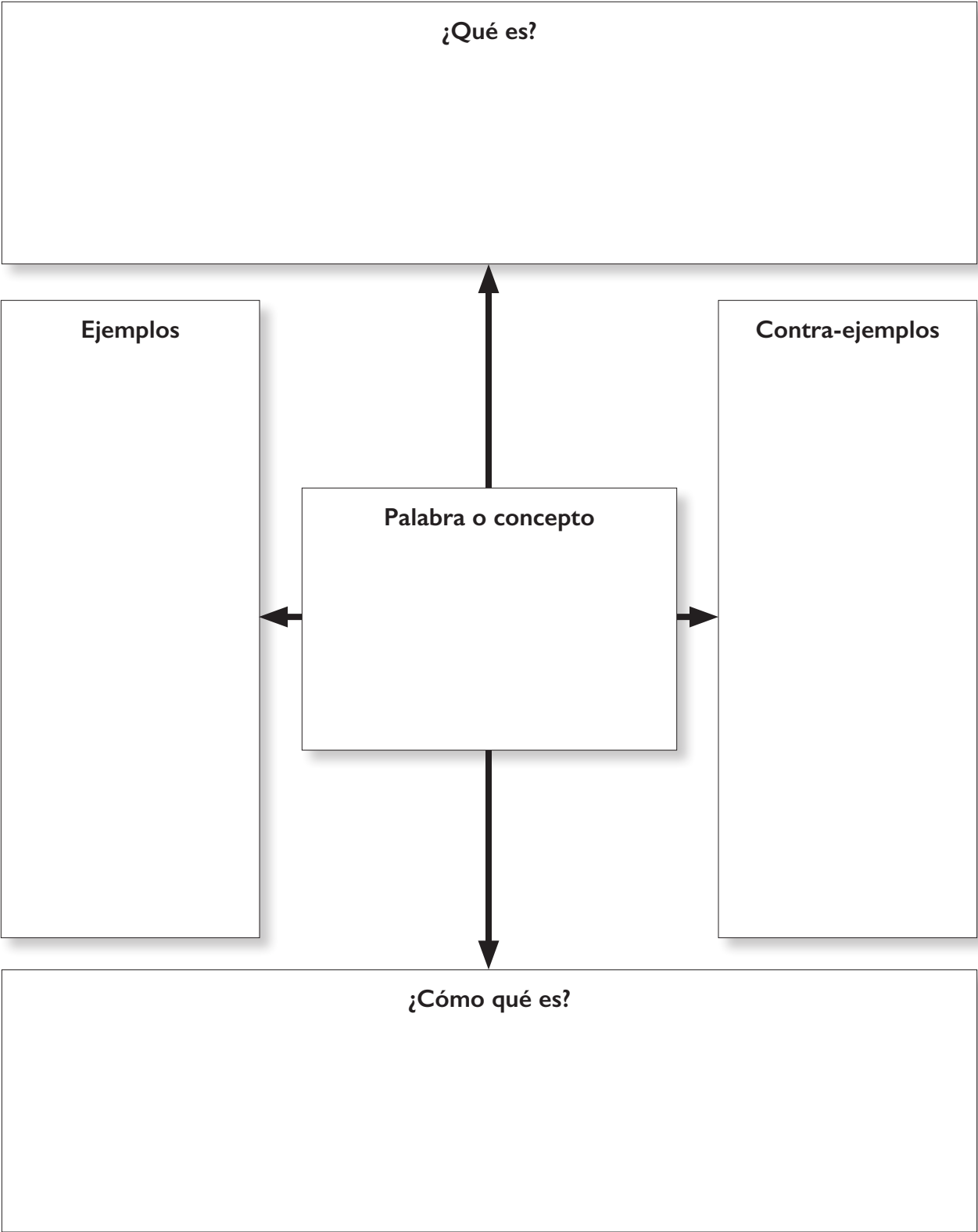
Vocabulary Graphic Organizers

Concept Word Map



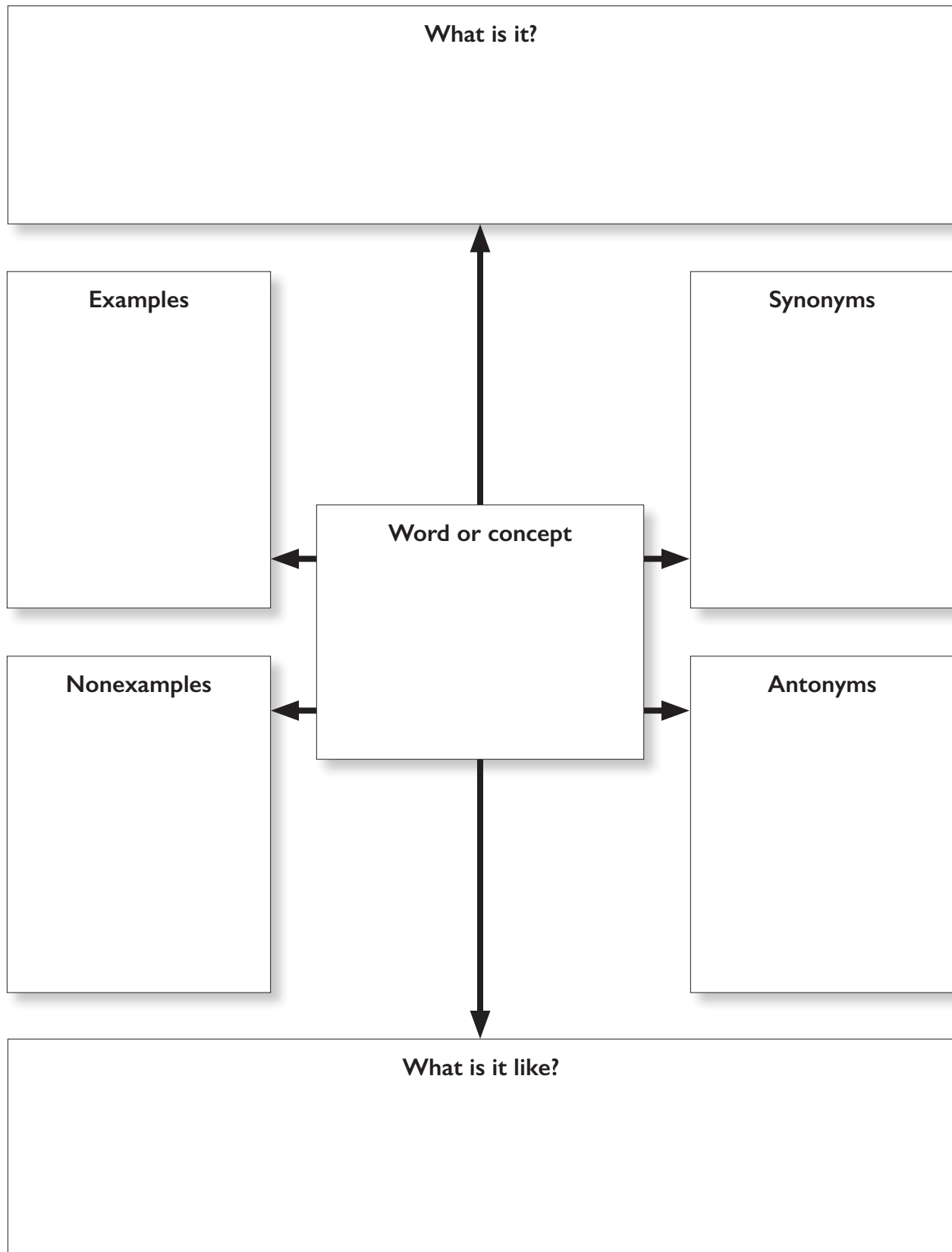
Adapted from Schwartz & Raphael, 1985.

Mapa para conceptos



Adapted from Schwartz & Raphael, 1985.

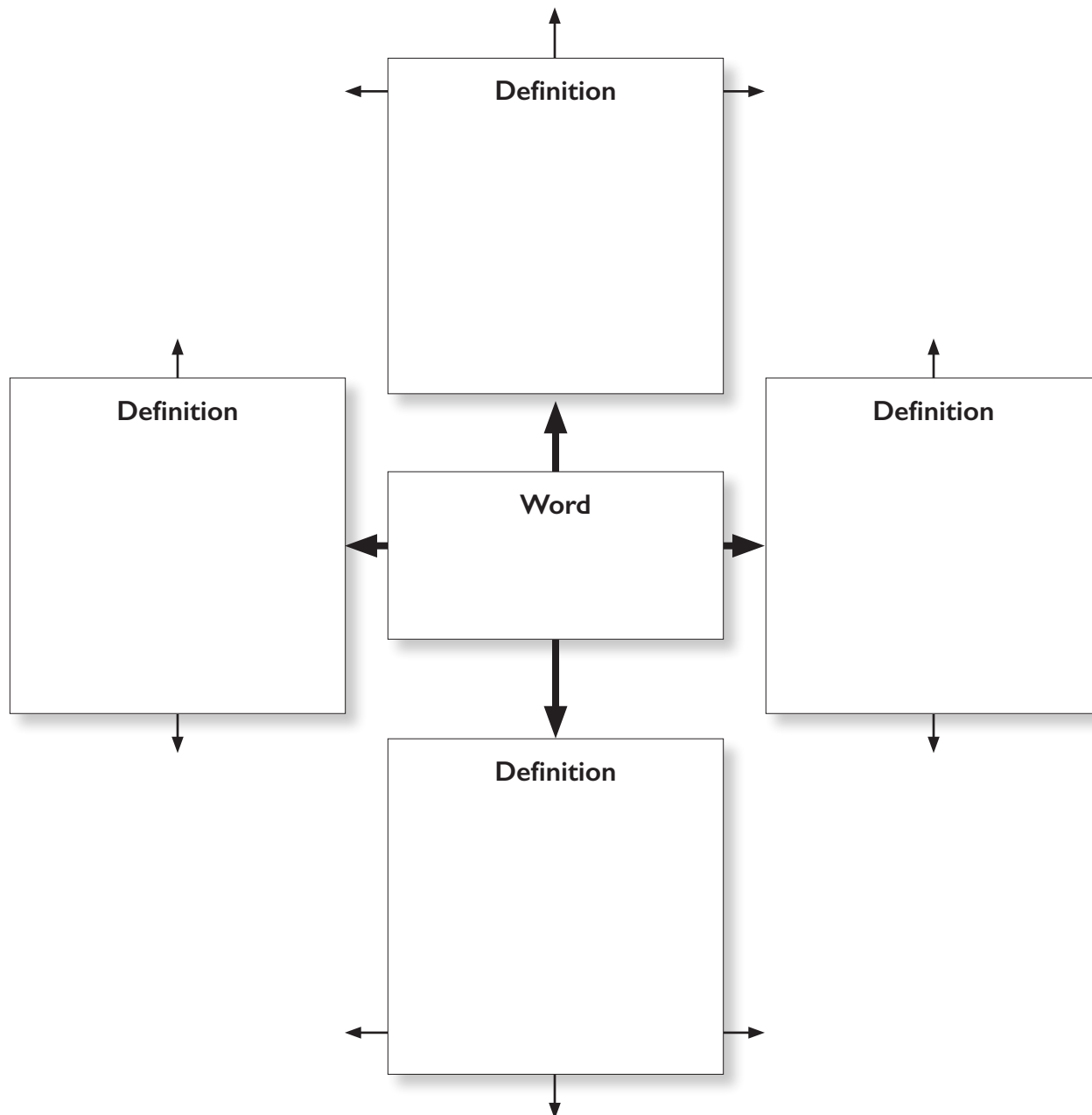
Semantic Map



Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011.

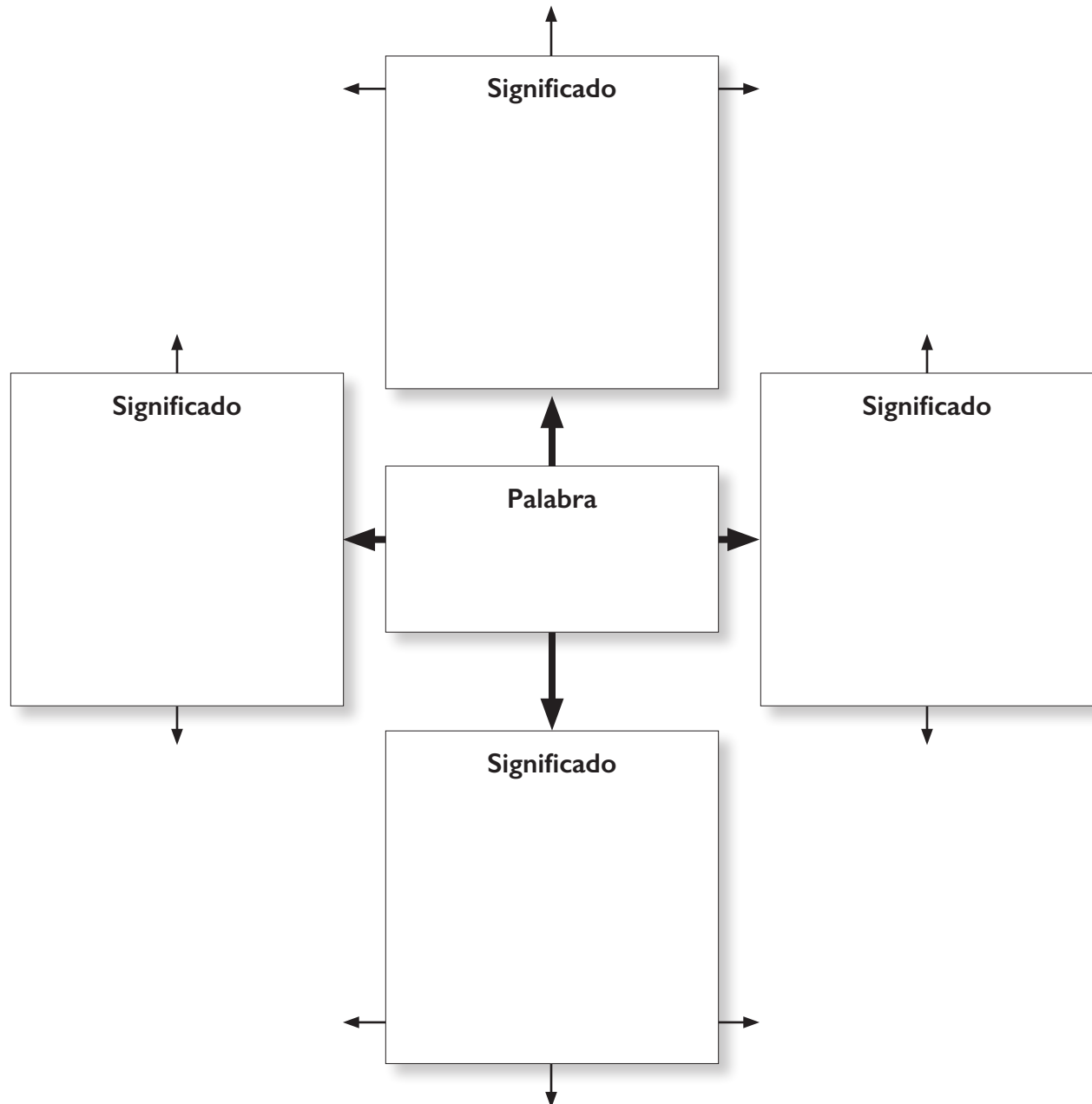
Multiple-Meaning Word Map

1. Record the definitions of a word.
2. Locate examples of the word in the text.
3. Match the word with the definition used in the text.

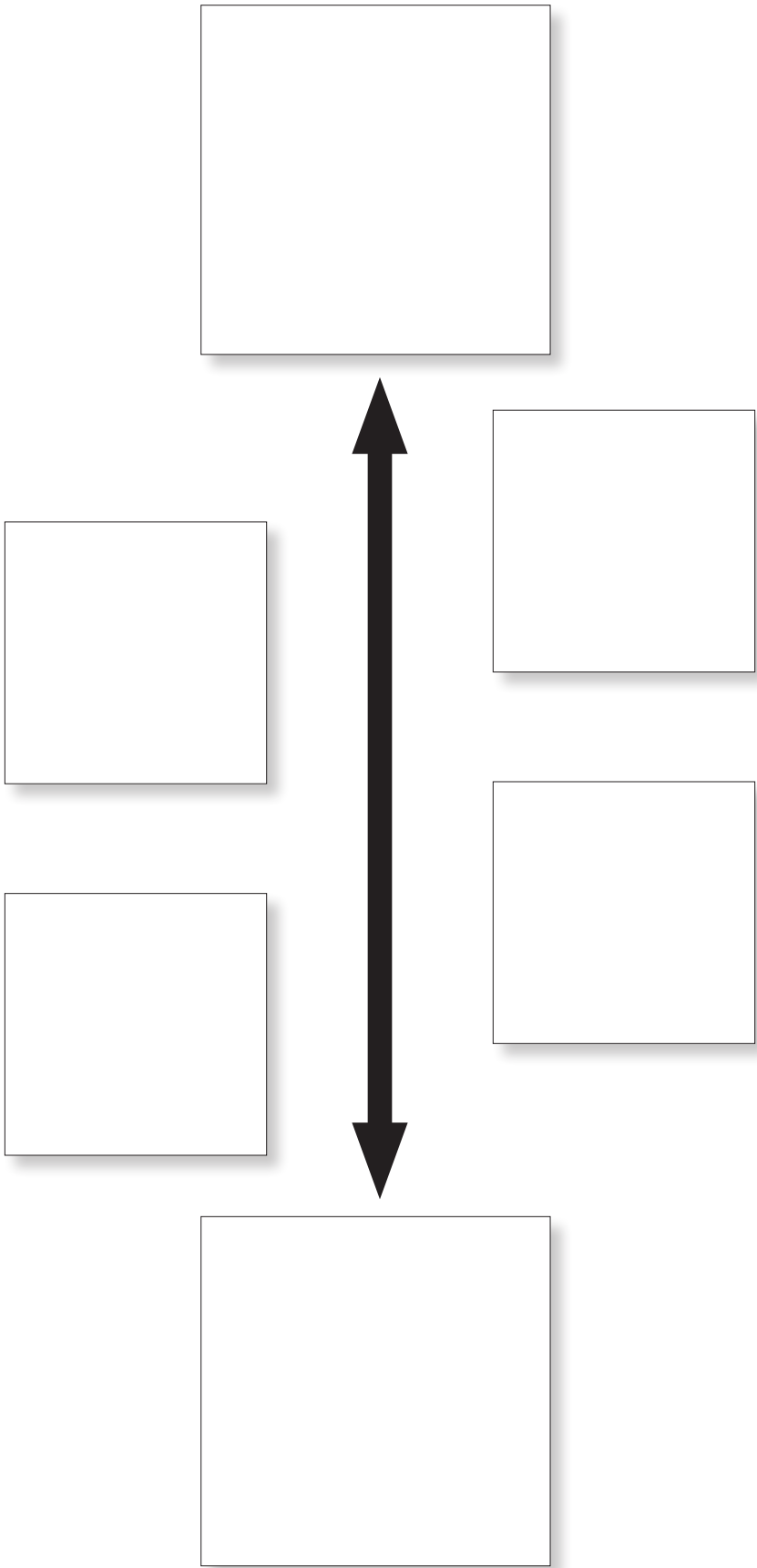


Ejemplos de mapas de palabras con significados múltiples

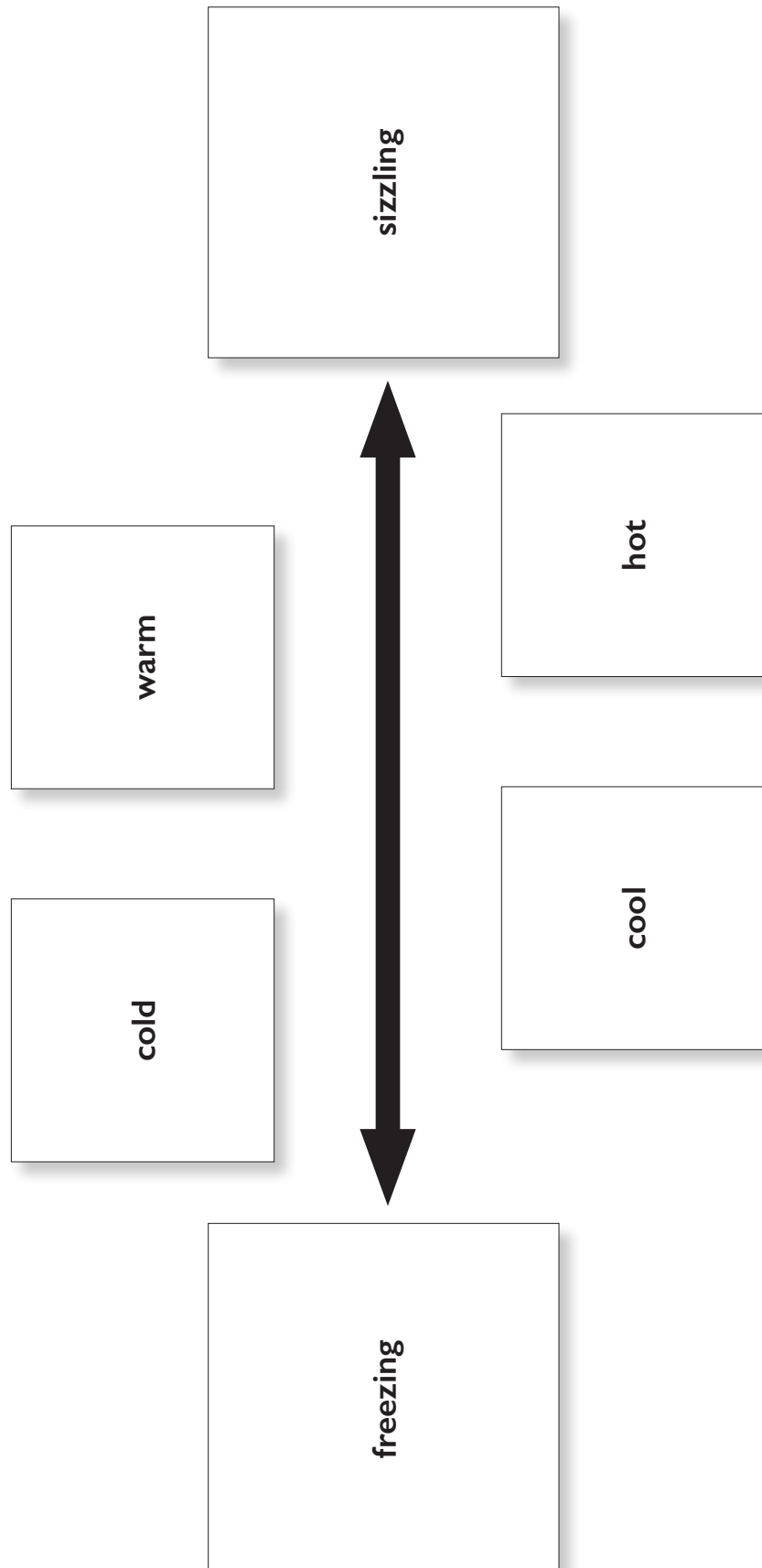
1. Apunte los significados múltiples de la palabra.
2. Encuentre ejemplos de la palabra en el texto.
3. Empareje la palabra con el significado usado en el texto.



Antonym Continuum



Antonym Continuum Example



Word Wrap

<p>Word</p>	<p>What are some examples?</p>
<p>What is it?</p>	<p>What is it like?</p>

Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006.

Word Wrap in Spanish

Palabra

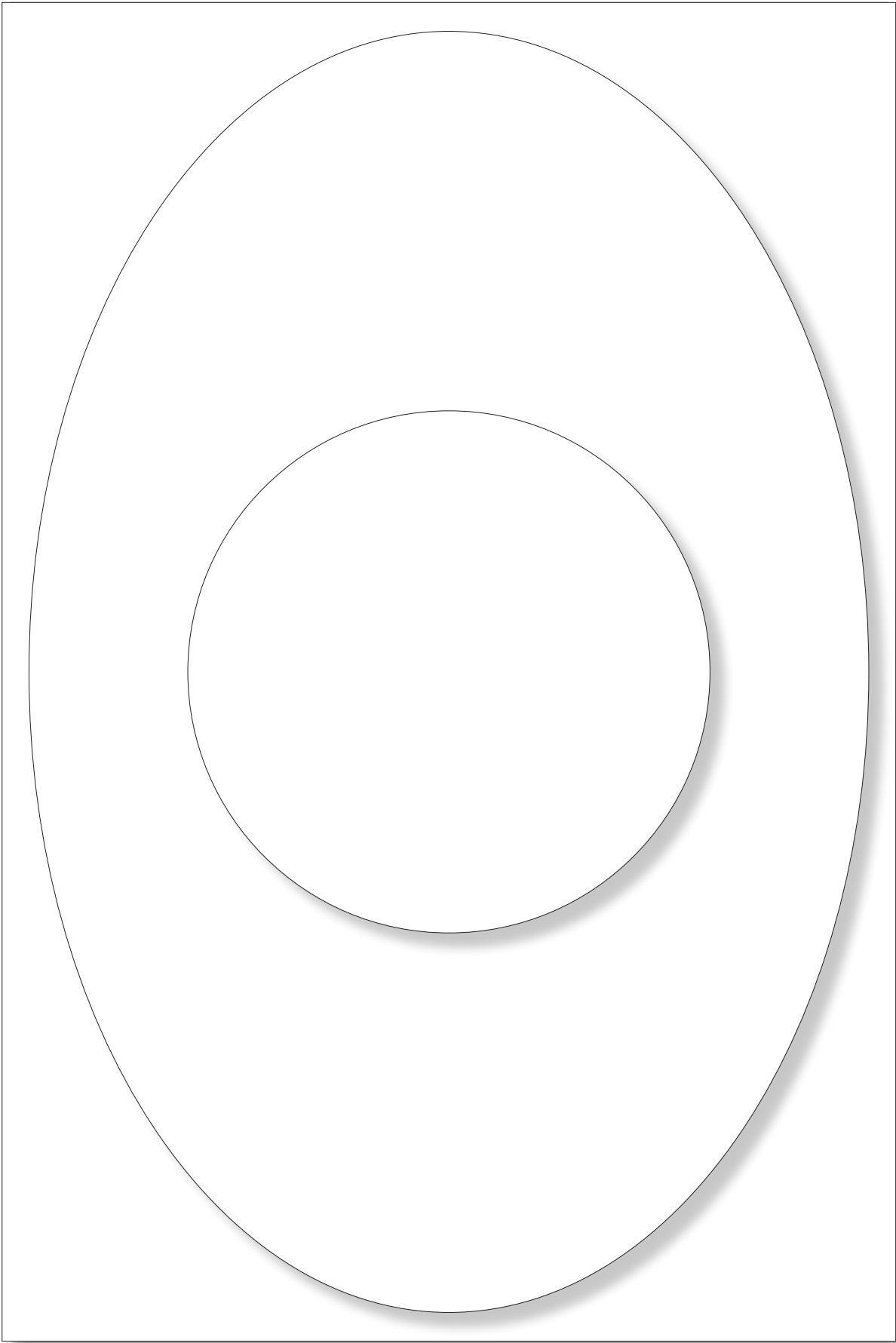
¿Cuáles son unos ejemplos?

¿Qué es?

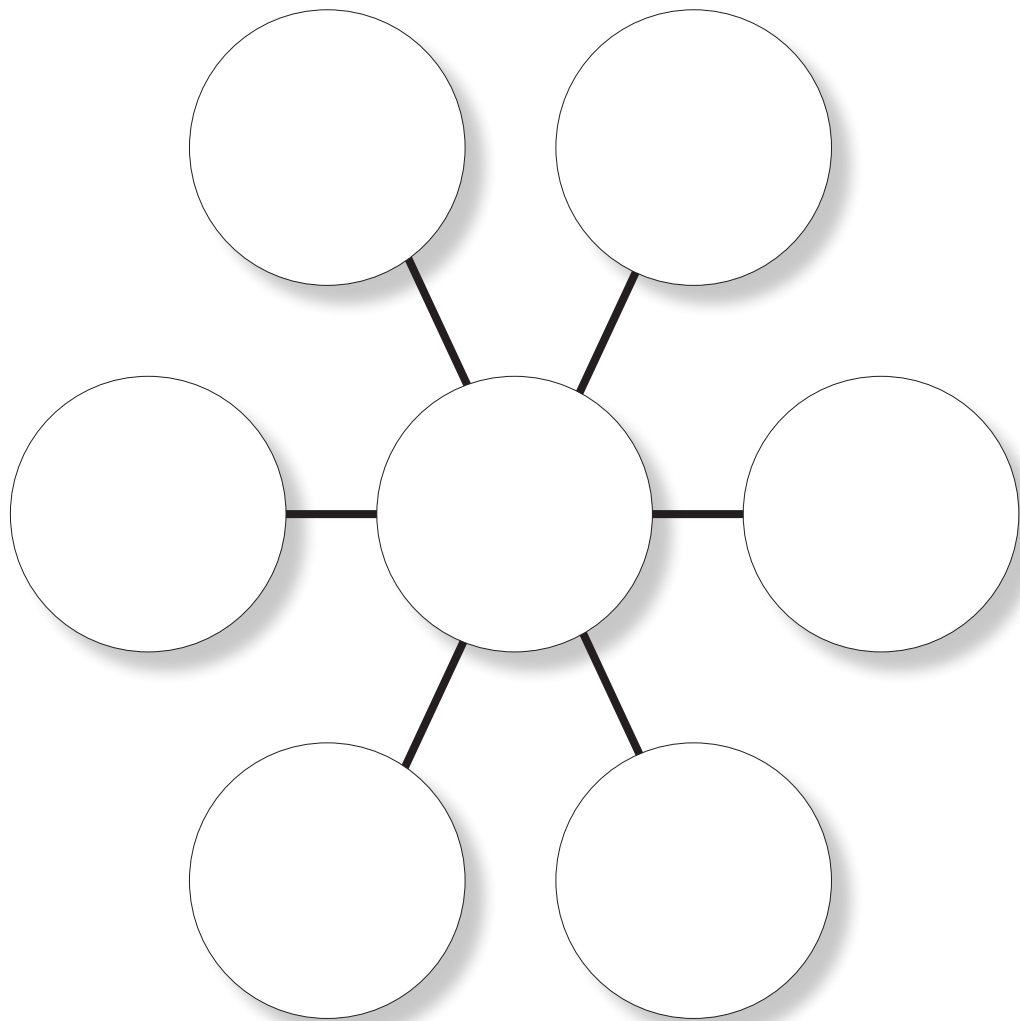
¿A qué se parece?

Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006.

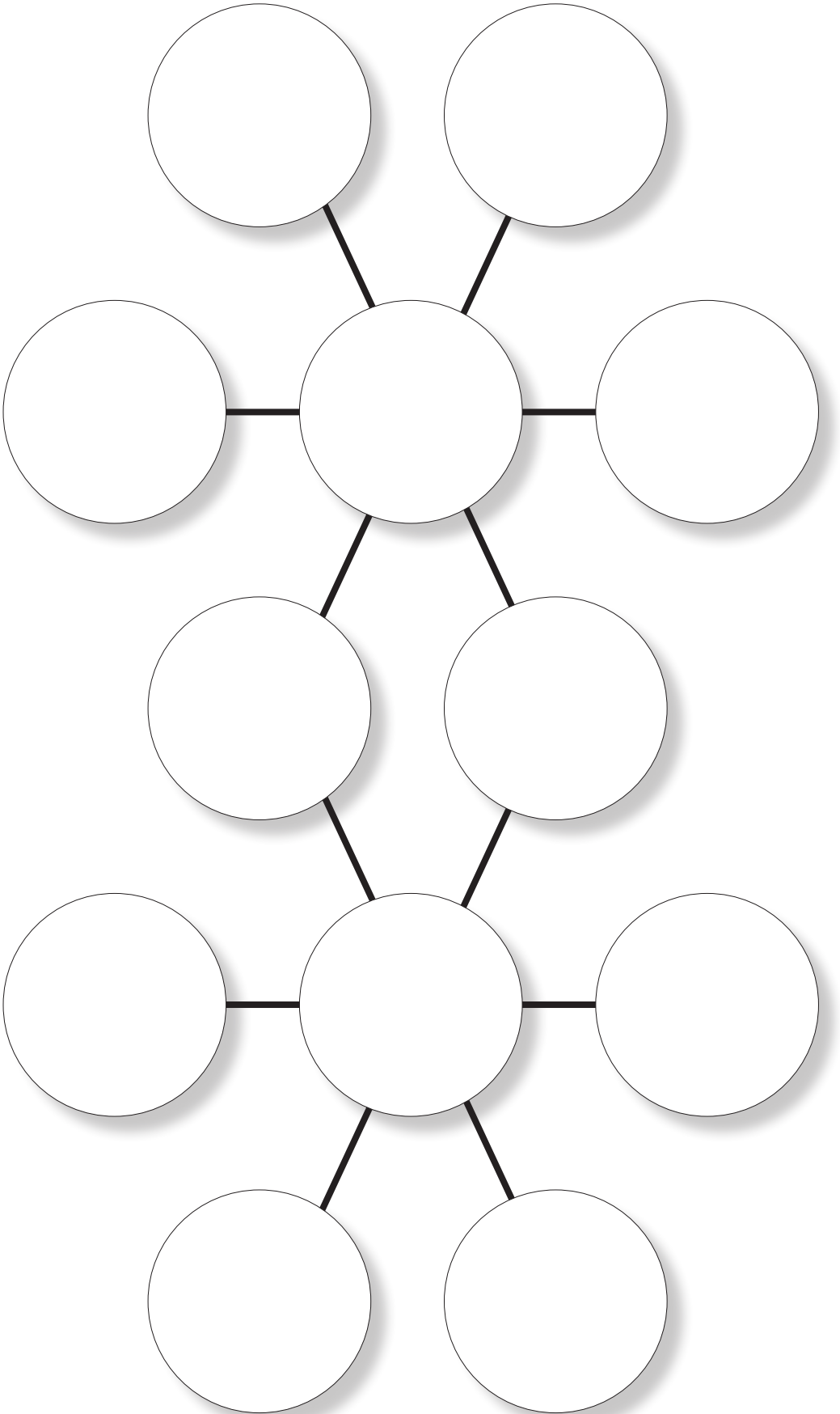
Circle Map



Bubble Map



Double-Bubble Map



Four-Square Vocabulary Map

Word:

**Brainstorm everything we know about
the word:**

What is it?

Antonyms

Synonyms

Mapa de vocabulario de cuatro cuadros

Palabra:

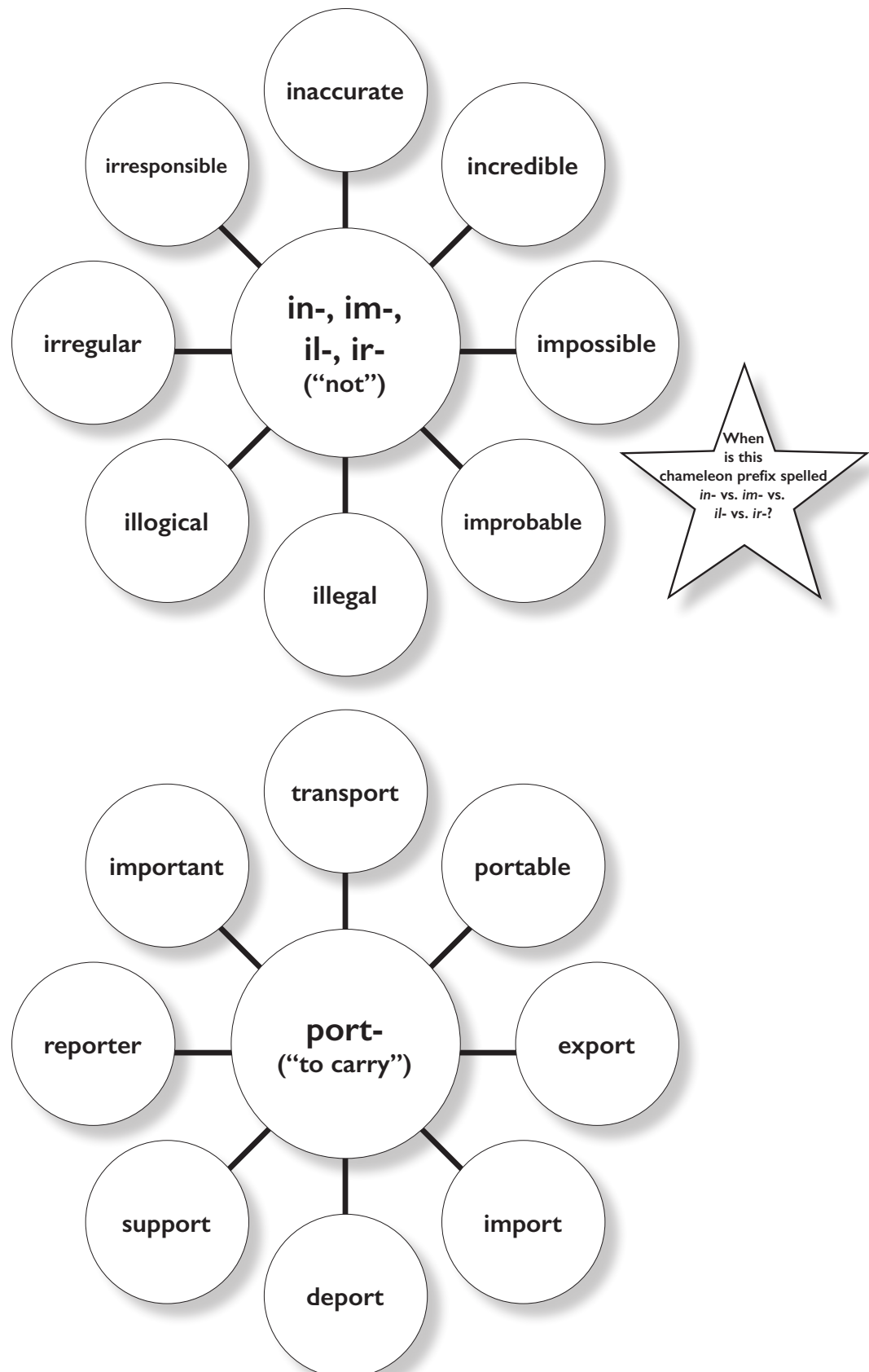
Escribe todo lo que sepas sobre la palabra:

¿Qué es?

Antónimos

Sinónimos

Word Web Examples



Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011.

Feature Analysis

FEATURES							

Feature Analysis: Geometry Example

FEATURES	Has perpendicular lines							
	Has parallel lines							
	Equiangular							
	Equilateral							
	Four-sided face(s)							
	Three-sided face(s)							
	Three-dimensional							
	Two-dimensional							
	Polygon							
	Square							
	Rectangle							
	Right triangle							
	Rhombus							
	Trapezoid							
	Cube							
	Pyramid							

Feature Analysis: Literary Characters Example

FEATURES	Intelligent	+	+	+	—	+	+
	Greedy	—	+	—	?	—	—
	Diligent	+	—	+	?	+	?
	Optimistic	+	—	—	?	+	?
	Insensitive	—	+	—	+	—	—
	Imaginative	+	—	+	—	+	—
	Reluctant	—	+	—	+	—	+
	Desperate	+	+	+	—	—	—
	Courageous	+	—	+	—	+	—
	Harry	Voldemort	Trisha	The bully	Nana	CJ	

Adapted from Moats, 2009; Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin, 2007. Characters from De La Peña & Robinson, 2015; Polacco, 1998; Rowling, 1998.

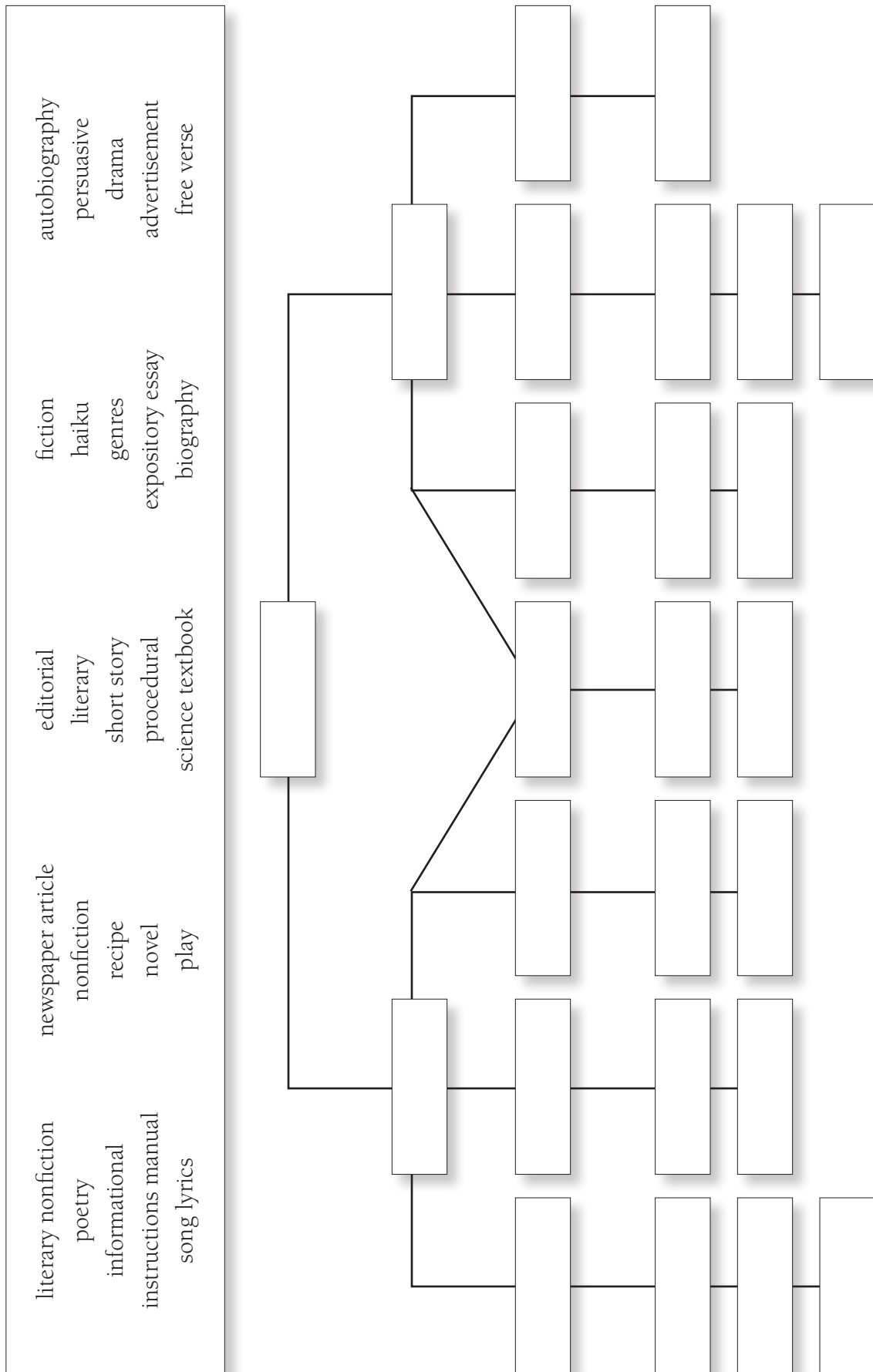
Análisis semántico de palabras

Características							

Análisis semántico de palabras — ejemplo: narrativos

Características	Relación con algo religioso					+
	Apariencia imaginaria	-/+	+	+	+	+
	Apariencia real	+				
	Tiene una enseñanza moral			+		
	Extensión corta		+	+	+	+
	Extensión larga	+				
	Ficticia	+	+	+	+	+
	Cuenta una historia	+	+	+	+	+
	Composición literaria	+	+	+	+	+
	Novela		Cuento	Fábula	Leyenda	Mito

Sorting Words Into Hierarchical Categories



Adapted from Moats, 2009.

Morphology Information

Review adding inflectional endings to base words. Make sure to review rules for adding these endings and other suffixes onto base words. These rules include doubling the consonant after a short vowel, dropping the final *e*, and changing *y* to *i*.

-s, -es	-ed	-ing	-er, -est
relaxes	employed	replaying	greater, greatest
watches	grabbed	stunning	grimmer, grimmest
carries	misplaced	revising	tamer, tamest
mummies	hurried	envying	lovelier, loveliest

Explicitly teach the meanings of prefixes and suffixes.

in-, im-, il-, ir- (not)	anti- (against)	trans- (across or through)	dis- (not or opposite)	fore- (before or front)
intractable	antisocial	transfer	disagree	forehead
impractical	antagonist	transport	displace	foreword
illiterate	antilock	transmit	disarm	forecast
irrational	antifreeze	transparent	disengage	foretell

-able/-ible (adj., able to)	-ness (n., condition or state)	-ment (n., state or process)	-or (n., one who)	-ion (n., act or process)
believable	happiness	payment	director	addition
incredible	brightness	experiment	instructor	division
reliable	highness	apartment	governor	discussion
agreeable	carelessness	compliment	protector	creation

Teach roots in words from texts read in class, including reading, language arts, science, math, and social studies.

struct (to build)	aqua (water)	port (to carry)	flect (to bend)
construct	aquatic	transport	reflect
construction	aquarium	portable	reflection
instruct	aquanaut	export	flexible
instructor	aqueduct	important	reflex
instruction		support	deflect
structure		report	inflection

spec (to look or see)	sect (to cut or separate)	tract (to drag or pull)	ject (to throw)
inspect	section	tractor	reject
spectacle	insect	attraction	injection
spectacles	dissect	distract	projectile
spectator	sectional	contraction	adjective
suspect			object

Notice that these roots and their derivations connect to Latin-based languages, like Spanish, so you can also bring in Spanish cognates when teaching these roots.

Use various activities to focus students on relating words through their meaningful parts.

Word Sorts

Example: Sort these words by their roots.

motor	intersect	fragile	spectator
motel	segment	inspect	spectacles
fragment	section	emotion	insect
fraction	respect	motivate	fracture

Example: Sort these words by their prefix.

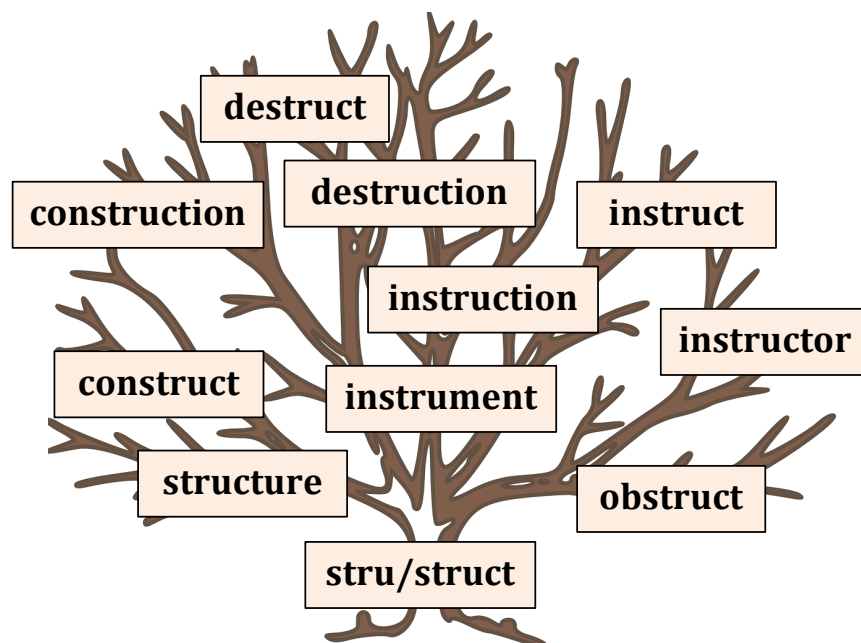
unite	tricycle	bilingual
unison	triangle	unicycle
binoculars	trilingual	biracial
unicorn	bicycle	triple

Word Webs

(See page 15 of Handout 6.)

Word Family Trees

Example:



Word Matrices

You can make these for free at www.realspellers.org/wordworks. Example:

ex	<p>port</p> <p>carry</p>	s	
im		ed	
de		ing	
trans		ation	
sup		able	
		er	s

Word sums

Examples:

micro + scope =
 micro + scope + s =
 micro + scope + ic =
 tele + scope =
 tele + scope + s =
 tele + scope + ic =
 peri + scope =
 peri + scope + s =
 stetho + scope =
 stetho + scope + s =

bio + graph + y =
 bio + graph + ic =
 auto + bio + graph + y =
 auto + bio + graph + ic =
 geo + graph + y =
 geo + graph + ic =
 tele + graph =
 tele + graph + ic =
 demo + graph + y =
 demo + graph + ic =

in + spect =
 in + spect + or =
 in + spect + or + s =
 in + spect + ion =
 in + spect + ion + s =
 spect + acle =
 spect + acle + s =
 spect + ate =
 spect + ate + or =
 re + spect =
 re + spect + able =

Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011; Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2014; Ebbers, 2011; Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006, 2007; Moats, 2009.

Prefijos, sufijos y raíces o lexemas en español

Raíz o lexema	Prefijo	Sufijo
<p>Es la parte de la palabra con significado que no cambia y sirve de base para hacer otras palabras. A veces el lexema puede estar solo y ser una palabra. Otras veces, el lexema es un grupo de letras que necesita otros morfemas para ser palabra.</p> <p>Ejemplos: <i>mar</i> <i>lago</i> <i>laguna</i> <i>lagos</i></p>	<p>Un morfema que modifica el significado de la palabra al colocarse antes del lexema.</p> <p>Ejemplos: <i>revivir</i> <i>deshabitado</i> <i>submarino</i></p>	<p>Un morfema que cambia el significado de la palabra al colocarse después del lexema.</p> <p>Ejemplos: <i>casita</i> <i>bellísimo</i> <i>panadero</i></p>

Ejemplos de sufijos en español — cuarto grado

Sufijo	Significado	Ejemplos
-amiento, -imiento	acción o efecto realizado	florecimiento, levantamiento
-ado	algo hecho, acción realizada; conjunto; semejanza	afeitado, alumnado, nacarado
-azo, -azo	aumentativo o intensivo	perrazo, porrazo
-ita, -ito	diminutivo o afectivo	gatito, plantita
-ida, -ada	acción realiza y esfuerzo	mojado, salida, mordida
-ción	acción realizada	canción , sanción
-ísimo, -ísima	superlativo, mucho	rapidísimo, bellísima
-dad, -tad	substantivo abstracto	amistad, fealdad
-idad	substantivo abstracto	religiosidad, oscuridad
-ista	partidario o seguidor; profesión	comunista, optimista, periodista, deportista
-al	cambia sustantivos a adjetivos; relación o pertenencia	mensual, mental, cultural
-ismo	doctrina, actitud, actividad	impresionismo, egoísmo, atletismo
-era, -ero	profesión, oficio	panadero, ganadero, banquero, vaquero
-ería	lugar donde se realiza un oficio	panadería, lavandería, tortillería
-oso, -osa	adjetivo derivado de sustantivos, verbos u otros adjetivos	pegajoso, resbaloso, verdoso, vanidoso, borroso, cremoso
-triz	femenino de algunos adjetivos y sustantivos	actriz, emperatriz, institutriz
-tor/a, -dor/a	profesión, persona que hace máquina	editor, conductora, hablador, diseñador extractor, batidora, lavadora

Ejemplos de prefijos en español — cuatro grado

Prefijo	Significado	Ejemplos
ante-	delante, antes de	anteojos, anteayer
anti-	contrario, opuesto	antiadherente, antisocial
auto-	uno mismo	automóvil
bi-	dos, doble	bicicleta, bifocal, bicolor
co-, con-	agregación, mutuo, cooperación	colaborar, combinar, convidar
extra-	fuera de, separado	extraordinario
hemi-	medio, mitad	hemisferio
im-, in-	opuesto	increíble, imposible, inadecuado
inter-, intra-	entre, dentro	internacional, intramuscular, intravenoso
mega-	grande, amplificación	megáfono
micro-	pequeño	microscopio
multi-	numeroso, muchos	multimillonario, multicolor
omni-	todo	omnipresente, omnívoro
re-	repetición, otra vez	releer, revivir, recontar
sub-	bajo, menor	subterráneo, submarino
super-	sobre, exceso	superproducción, superhombre
tele-	a distancia	teléfono, telescopio
trans-, tras-	al otro lado, a través de	transporte, trasladar
viz-, vice-	en vez de	vicepresidente, vicerrector

Familia de palabras o familias léxicas en español

Una familia de palabras es el conjunto de **palabras derivadas** de una misma **palabra primitiva** y que están relacionadas entre sí.

Ejemplos:

Palabra primitiva o base	Palabras derivadas
pan	panadero, panecillo, panadería, empanar, empanada
flor	florero, floral, florecer, florista, florido, enflorar, floricultura, florecer
mar	marítima, marina, marea, marinero, marino, marejada, maremoto
tierr o terr	tierra, terral, terreno, terrenal, terrestre, terraza, territorio, terráqueo, terremoto, enterrar, entierro, desenterrar

Guidelines for Teaching and Practicing Word-Learning Strategies

Using Context Clues

Be cautious. Using context clues to figure out a word's meaning often requires an extensive amount of inference and must be combined with other information.

A good process for having students practice using context clues to infer a word's meaning includes the following steps:

- Rereading a sentence or group of sentences with an unknown word
- Discussing the contextual information with others
- Forming an initial hypothesis about the word's meaning
- Realizing that a complete and accurate understanding of the word may not be possible from using the context alone
- Combining the hypothesis with other clues like the word's morphological structure (if possible)

There are various types of contextual support—from very explicit to very implicit. The following are some specific examples.

Type	Example
Definition: Meaning of word is explained in sentence or text.	The nutritional benefits of the juice, <i>its vitamins and minerals</i> , are listed on the label.
Synonym: Text contains word similar in meaning.	I moved hastily toward the door. In fact, I moved <i>so fast</i> that I left the room before my dad came back.
Antonym: Text contains word nearly opposite in meaning.	The rat was enormous compared to the baby mouse, which was <i>tiny</i> .
Example: Text contains example words or ideas.	Having a vehicle —whether it's a <i>car, truck, or motorcycle</i> —is helpful for getting where you want to go.
General: Text contains several words or phrases that provide clues to word's meaning.	The circus was marvelous . It had <i>a lot of animals doing tricks, funny clowns, and wonderful trapeze flyers</i> .

Using Morphology

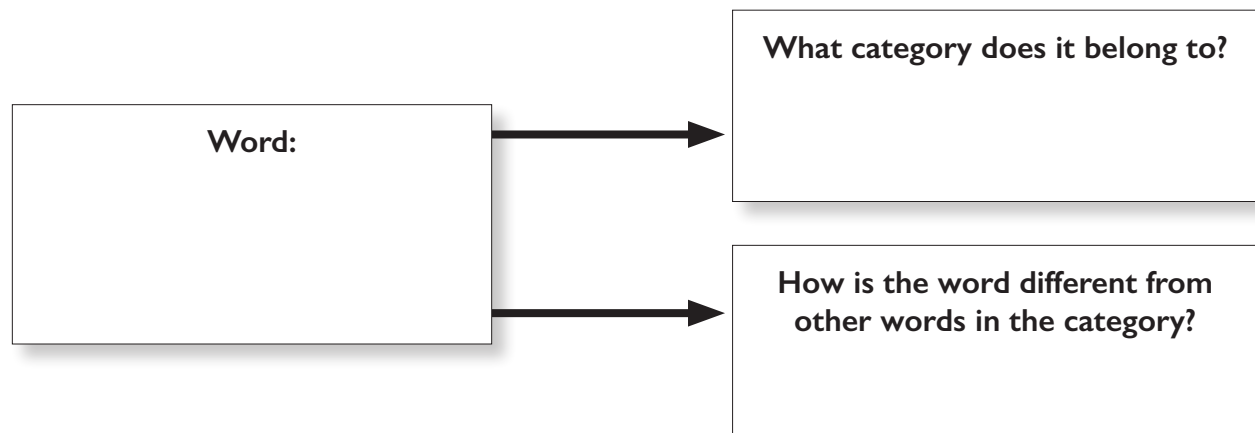
See Handout 9.

Using a Dictionary

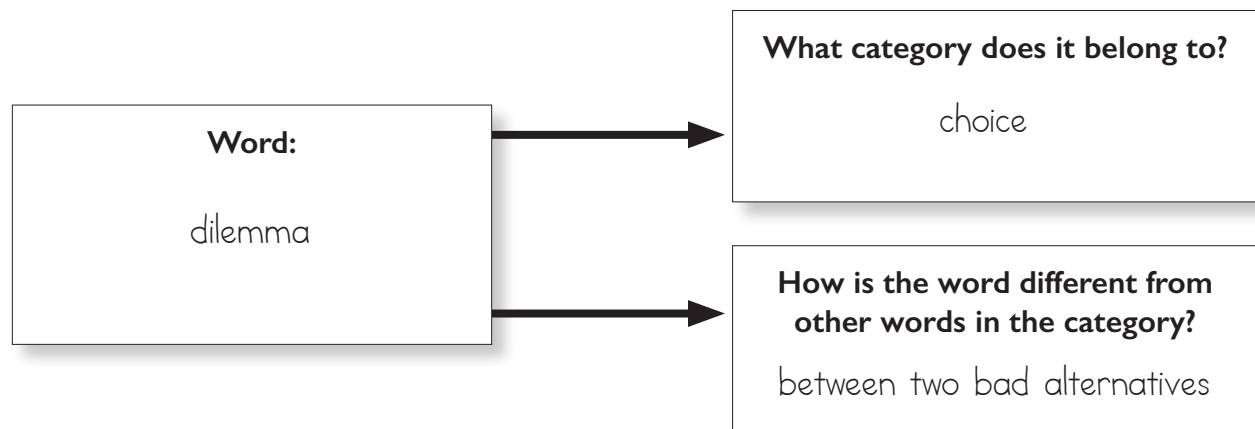
Be cautious. Using a dictionary effectively requires several complex skills, including the following:

- Alphabetizing and being able to use the guide words
- Spelling effectively enough to find the word
- Understanding how a definition is constructed
- Being able to use context when choosing from among several definitions, as most words have more than one meaning

Definitions are often difficult to understand. Students may need explicit instruction in how to read definitions. The following is a basic definition map.



Example:



Two Examples of Word-Learning Routines

From *Now We Get It! Boosting Comprehension With Collaborative Strategic Reading* (Klingner, Vaughn, Boardman, & Swanson, 2012):

- Reread the sentence with the word and look for key ideas to help you figure out the word. Think about what makes sense.
- Reread the sentences before and after the word, looking for clues.
- Look for a prefix or suffix in the word that might help.
- Break the word apart and look for smaller words that you know.

Chapter from *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary: Bringing Research to Practice* (Baumann, Font, Edwards, & Boland, 2005):

- Read the sentences around the word to find clues to its meaning.
- Try breaking apart the word into its root, prefix, and suffix to figure out its meaning.
 - Look for a root. See whether you know what it means.
 - Look for a prefix. See whether you know what it means.
 - Look for a suffix. See whether you know what it means.
 - Put the meanings of the parts together to see whether you can build the word's meaning.
- Read the sentences around the word again to see whether you have figured out the word's meaning.

Adapted from Bauman et al., 2005; Klingner et al., 2012; Moats, 2009; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Word-Learning Strategy Cards

<p>Fix-Up Strategy 1</p> <p>Reread the sentence with the word and look for key ideas to help you figure out the word. Think about what makes sense.</p>	<p>Fix-Up Strategy 2</p> <p>Reread the sentences before and after the word, looking for clues.</p>
<p>Fix-Up Strategy 3</p> <p>Look for a prefix or suffix in the word that might help.</p>	<p>Fix-Up Strategy 4</p> <p>Break the word apart and look for smaller words that you know.</p>

Adapted from Klingner, Vaughn, Boardman, & Swanson, 2012.

Estrategias para aprender palabras

<p>Estrategia 1</p> <p>Vuelve a leer la oración con la palabra difícil y busca ideas importantes que te ayuden a entender el significado de la palabra. Piensa en algo que tenga sentido.</p>	<p>Estrategia 2</p> <p>Vuelve a leer las oraciones que se encuentran antes y después de la oración con la palabra difícil para buscar pistas.</p>
<p>Estrategia 3</p> <p>Busca un prefijo o un sufijo en la palabra que te pueda ayudar.</p>	<p>Estrategia 4</p> <p>Busca en la palabra difícil partes de palabras o palabras más pequeñas que tu conozcas.</p>

Adapted from Klingner,Vaughn, Boardman, & Swanson, 2012.

Guidelines for Developing Word Consciousness

Develop students' intrinsic motivation for paying attention to words, asking questions about words, and experimenting with words and language.

Help students see the power of words and language through discussions, read-alouds, and writing activities. Talk about specific words, choosing one word over another, and how authors and speakers choose words methodically. One example of a book to start the conversation is *Wonderful Words: Poems About Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Listening* by Lee Bennett Hopkins.

Make it safe for students to experiment with words and language. Allow students to try words across contexts and discuss why they chose to use specific words in their speaking or writing.

Let students see you wondering about words, figuring out what words mean, and experimenting with words yourself (both successfully and unsuccessfully).

Encourage students to watch and listen for previously learned words in books, conversations, etc. To make this activity more concrete, have students keep track of these words on a chart or checklist like the example below.

Name: Monica

WORDS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
persist	✓									
lament	✓	✓								
solution	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
fortunate	✓	✓	✓	✓						
incredible	✓	✓								

Have students use a word journal or bookmark to keep track of interesting words they come across and want to know more about. (For sample vocabulary bookmarks, see page 4.)

Ask students to note words they hear or see at home, on TV, in the grocery store, on signs, etc. Have a “word day” or other designated time to discuss these words. Post the words with students' names next to them on a word wall or bulletin board.

Encourage students to use new words in their speaking and writing. Having a vocabulary word wall with previously learned words can help.

Create a “top 10” list of words. You, the class, or individual students can create a list. Examples of books that can be used to introduce this idea include the following:

- *Max's Words* by Kate Banks
- *The Boy Who Loved Words* by Roni Schotter
- *The Word Collector* by Sonja Wimmer
- *Donovan's Word Jar* by Monalisa DeGross

Use word-play activities, such as the following:

- Puns (multiple-meaning words, homophones, idioms)
 - What did the sea say to the sand? (Nothing, it simply waved.)
 - I wondered why the baseball was getting bigger. Then it hit me.
 - I wasn't going to get a brain transplant, but then I changed my mind.
 - Why don't teddy bears eat at picnics? (Because they're stuffed.)
- Hink pinks, hinky pinkies, and hinkety pinketies (riddles with rhyming words for answers)

Hink pinks (one-syllable words)
obese feline = _____
intelligent beginning = _____
unhappy father = _____
tidy road = _____

Hinky pinkies (two-syllable words)	Hinkety pinketies (three-syllable words)
great detective = _____	drum talk = _____
smarter boxer = _____	smoggy driver = _____
tired flower = _____	evil preacher = _____
numeral sleep = _____	happier dog = _____

Examples of books to demonstrate concepts such as multiple-meaning words, homophones, idioms, and metaphors include the following:

- Amelia Bedelia series
- *The King Who Rained* by Fred Gwynne
- *A Little Pigeon Toad* by Fred Gwynne
- *A Chocolate Moose for Dinner* by Fred Gwynne
- *The Sixteen Hand Horse* by Fred Gwynne
- *Dear Deer: A Book of Homophones* by Gene Barretta
- *In a Pickle: And Other Funny Idioms* by Marvin Terban
- *You're Toast and Other Metaphors We Adore* by Nancy Loewen

Discuss with students the history and development of a word, known as its etymology. Often, students want to know, “Where does this word come from?” “Why is this word spelled this way?” “Does this word relate to this other word?” These are opportunities to research and dig deeper into the English language. Here are a few helpful resources to begin your research:

- **www.etymonline.com**: Online etymology dictionary in which you can search any word to find out its etymological history
- *The American Way of Spelling: The Structure and Origins of American English Orthography* by Richard Venezky: Reference book that provides in-depth information about the history of the English language
- *The Weird World of Words: A Guided Tour* by Mitchell Symons: Book with fun and interesting facts about words, phrases, idiomatic expressions, etc.
- **www.vocablog-plc.blogspot.com**: Susan Ebberts’s blog with information about topics such as vocabulary and morphology and instruction related to these components
- *Scholastic Dictionary of Idioms* by Marvin Terban: Reference book that provides explanations and histories of more than 700 sayings and expressions

Adapted from Beers, 2003; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006, 2007; Graves, 2006; Moats, 2009; Scott & Nagy, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Resources listed: Banks, 2006; Barretta, 2010; DeGross, 1998; Gwynne, 1987, 1988a, 1988b, 1988c, 2005; Loewen, 2011; Schotter & Potter, 2006; Symons, 2015; Terban, 1998; Terban, 2007; Venezky, 1999; Wimmer, 2012.

Vocabulary Bookmarks

<p>VOCABULARY BOOKMARK</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>VOCABULARY BOOKMARK</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>VOCABULARY BOOKMARK</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Word: _____</p> <p>Page number: _____</p> <p>Why you chose it: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>
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Academic Word List

Most Common		Second-Most Common		Third-Most Common	
analysis	indicate	achieve	institute	alternative	interaction
approach	individual	acquisition	investment	circumstances	justification
area	interpretation	administration	item	comment	layer
assessment	involve	affect	journals	compensation	link
assume	issue	appropriate	maintenance	component	location
authority	labor	aspect	normal	consent	maximum
available	legal	assistance	obtain	considerable	minority
benefit	legislation	category	participation	constant	negative
concept	major	chapter	perceive	constraint	outcome
consistent	method	commission	positive	contribution	partnership
constitutional	occur	community	potential	convention	philosophy
context	percent	complex	previous	coordination	physical
contract	period	computer	primary	core	proportion
create	policy	conclusion	purchase	corporate	publish
data	principle	conduct	range	corresponding	reaction
definition	procedure	consequences	region	criteria	register
derive	process	construct	regulations	deduction	reliance
distribution	require	consumer	relevant	demonstrate	remove
economic	research	credit	resident	document	scheme
environment	response	cultural	resources	dominant	sequence
establish	role	design	restricted	emphasis	shift
estimate	section	distinction	security	ensure	specify
evidence	sector	element	sought	exclude	sufficient
export	significant	equation	select	framework	summary
factor	similar	evaluation	site	fund	task
financial	source	feature	strategy	illustrate	technical
formula	specific	final	survey	immigration	technique
function	structure	focus	text	imply	technology
identify	theory	impact	traditional	initial	validity
income	variables	injury	transfer	instance	volume

Adapted from Coxhead, 2000.

Connectives

Coordinating Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Relative Pronouns	Transition Words and Phrases	
and	after	that	above all	immediately
but	although	what	according to	in addition
for	as	whatever	additionally	in any event
nor	as if	which	after all	in case
or	as long as	whichever	albeit	including
so	as much as	who	all in all	in conclusion
yet	as soon as	whoever	all of a sudden	indeed
	as though	whom	also	in other words
	because	whomever	altogether	in particular
	before	whose	as a result	in reality
	even if		as much as	in the meantime
	even though		as well as	likewise
	how		at the same time	namely
	if		besides	nonetheless
	in order that		be that as it may	not only...but also
	lest		certainly	notwithstanding
	now that		conversely	obviously
	provided (that)		definitely	ordinarily
	so that		despite	rather
	than		due to	regardless
	that		even though	similarly
	though		finally	sooner or later
	unless		for example	surely
	until		for instance	then
	when		for the most part	then again
	whenever		forthwith	therefore
	where		frequently	thus
	wherever		furthermore	until now
	while		given that	usually
			hence	whenever
			however	

Common (Familiar) vs. Academic (Less Common) Connectives

Common Connectives		Academic Connectives		
although	therefore	albeit	finally	previously
however	though	alternatively	in contrast	specifically
meantime	unless	consequently	initially	ultimately
meanwhile	until	conversely	likewise	whereas
moreover	whenever	despite	nevertheless	whereby
otherwise	yet	eventually	nonetheless	

Connectives Categorized by Idea Relations

Additive	Temporal	Causal	Contrast	Compare
additionally	after	CAUSE OF THINGS:	alternatively	also
and	afterward	a/the	although	correspondingly
also	before	consequence of	but	equally
apart from this	during	because	contrary to	for the same reason
as well (as)	earlier	due to	conversely	in a similar manner
both...and	finally	for	despite	in comparison
in addition	first	the effect of	even so	in the same way
moreover	following	the result of	even though	likewise
further	given the above	EFFECT OF THINGS:	however	on the one hand
furthermore	in the meantime	accordingly	in contrast	similarly
not only...	later	as a consequence	in spite of	too
but also	meanwhile	as a result	instead	
plus	next	consequently	nevertheless	
similarly	subsequently	for this reason	nonetheless	
too	then	hence	notwithstanding	
	to conclude	so	on the contrary	
	while	therefore	on the other hand	
		thus	rather	
			still	
			though	
			whereas	
			while	
			yet	

Expository Text Structures: Signal Words

Text Structure	Description	Signal Words		
Sequence	Events or ideas listed in numerical or chronological order	after before first second third now next when	today then later afterward during following preceding until	at last finally immediately meanwhile initially soon while
Description	Gives information about a topic	is like such as including for example	looks like as in in addition to illustrate	characteristics for instance appears to be a number of
Compare and Contrast	Discusses similarities and differences between two or more topics	but yet similar to different from in common	although either...or compared with however as well as	in contrast with even though likewise as opposed to
Cause and effect	Presents ideas or events as causes with resulting outcomes or effects	because so thus as a result	if...then this led to therefore for this reason	consequently accordingly may be due to
Problem and solution	Presents a problem followed by one or more solutions	a problem a solution so that because if...then	this led to in order to one reason for thus for this reason	leads/led to accordingly may be due to steps involved

Conjunciones en español

Las conjunciones son las palabras que utilizamos para unir palabras u oraciones entre sí, de modo que sea posible construir mensajes completos. En otras palabras, las conjunciones son palabras de unión o de enlace, o conectores textuales como también les llamamos.

Existen dos tipos de conjunciones: las coordinantes y las subordinantes. **Las conjunciones coordinantes** son las que empleamos para unir dos palabras u oraciones que tienen el mismo nivel de importancia dentro de la oración.

Conjunciones coordinantes más comunes	Ejemplos
y	María cocina la cena y Lola hace el postre.
e	Luis e Irma se van a casar. (Se utiliza e porque la siguiente palabra empieza con i).
ni	Con tanta lluvia no puedo correr ni jugar en el patio.
o	¿Quieres viajar a Europa o América Latina?
u	Cuando llegue al mar voy a leer mi novela u hojear mi revista. (Se utiliza u porque la siguiente palabra empieza con el sonido o).
pero	No estudia pero aprueba los exámenes.
sino	No es verano sino invierno.

Las conjunciones subordinantes nos sirven para unir dos elementos dentro de una oración, uno de los cuales depende del otro para tener sentido completo dentro de la oración.

Conjunciones subordinantes más comunes	Ejemplos
donde	Me iré por donde me vine.
cuando	El enfermo murió cuando ya amanecía.
después	Te llamaré por teléfono después de almorzar.
tan...como	Susana es tan inteligente como su padre.
porque	Camila canta en francés porque quiere.
si	Si tú lo dices será verdad.
aunque	Aunque ahora no lo entiendas, luego lo comprenderás.

Ejemplos de conectores textuales en español

Contraste	Comparación	Causal/ consecuencia	Enlace de ideas	Secuencia/ orden
al contrario sin embargo a menos que aunque en contraste con a pesar de no obstante pero después de todo mientras contrariamente en cambio por el contrario en oposición aun cuando	así como de igual forma de manera similar igualmente también parecido a del mismo modo de igual manera similarmente	así que de manera que entonces por esto por esta razón por lo tanto por tal razón por consiguiente por consecuencia debido a ya que con el fin de con el objeto de por lo que para concluir por este motivo	además asimismo de nuevo del mismo modo entonces finalmente igualmente por ejemplo por otra parte por otro lado también resumiendo	en primer, segundo, ... lugar por último luego después antes al mismo tiempo durante al final al principio más tarde a continuación mas adelante inicialmente anteriormente mientras tanto previamente simultáneamente posteriormente finalmente

Adapted from Anderson, 2007; Crosson & Lesaux, 2013; Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006, 2007.

Texts for Read-Alouds: Evaluating the Level of Vocabulary

Directions: The general descriptions of three sample lessons and texts to be read aloud are provided below. Read each lesson's description. Then, do the following:

- Read the text excerpt provided and highlight all Level 2 vocabulary words.
- Count the number of Level 2 words. Use this number to calculate the percentage of Level 2 words. Here is the equation to figure out the percentage:
$$\text{Number of Level 2 words} / \text{Total words} \times 100 = \text{Percentage of Level 2 words}$$
- Imagine that each excerpt represents the percentage of Level 2 words throughout the text. Decide whether you believe the text will immerse students in sophisticated language.
- Write one sentence explaining whether this text would be good for building students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge. (The text could still be effective for teaching the specific lesson even if its vocabulary is not very sophisticated.)
- Share and compare your responses with those of your partner or tablemates.

Sample Lesson 1

A teacher decides to teach a shared writing lesson in which the class will create an expository essay on the importance of friendship. The teacher chooses to use the children's picture book *Amos and Boris* by William Steig. The excerpt:

One night, in a phosphorescent sea, he marveled at the sight of some whales spouting luminous water; and later, lying on the deck of his boat gazing at the immense, starry sky, the tiny mouse Amos, a little speck of a living thing in the vast living universe, felt thoroughly akin to it all.

Total Words: 54	Number of Level 2 Words:	Percentage of Level 2 Words:
Based on this information, would this text help develop students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge?		

Sample Lesson 2

During a geography unit, a teacher finds a leveled text on polar regions to read aloud to a small group of students reading below grade level. The excerpt:

Humans also live in the Arctic. The Inuit are the native people of the Arctic region. They hunt caribou, seals, and whales. Many years ago, the Inuit made everything, including their clothing, sleds, ropes, tools, and homes, from the skin and bones of the animals they hunted. Today, most Inuit live in modern houses.

Total Words: 54	Number of Level 2 Words:	Percentage of Level 2 Words:
Based on this information, would this text help develop students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge?		

Sample Lesson 3

As part of a science unit on the environment, a teacher finds a newspaper article on a debate about killing vampire bats and plans to read it aloud in relation to habitat encroachment. The excerpt:

Vampire bats have always been present in Panama, and their attacks have ebbed and flowed, but now the attacks have become more frequent. Scientists theorize that the increased attacks on livestock are due to timber cutting that has flushed bats out of food-rich forests to the cattle herds, a ready-made and usually stationary food supply...

Total Words: 55	Number of Level 2 Words:	Percentage of Level 2 Words:
Based on this information, would this text help develop students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge?		

Lesson Plan for Introducing Think-Turn-Talk

Objective

Students will be able to do the following:

- Use the think-turn-talk procedure to discuss questions posed by the teacher
- Understand that more than one student talking at once is not an effective means of sharing thinking

Opening

Have students sit at their assigned carpet seating.

Ask students to shout out their favorite activity this summer when they hear your signal. Say, “Go!”

After, ask students whether they could hear their neighbor’s answer. Ask whether they think it is a good idea for everyone to talk at once.

Introduction to New Material

Tell students that everyone in the class is important and that everyone has a right to share his or her thoughts. Explain that the class will use a strategy for sharing called think-turn-talk. Display a poster with the steps and point to each word as you say, “think-turn-talk.”

Guided Practice

Note: Spoken teacher script is italicized.

Before we talk, it is always a good idea to think about what we will say. I will ask you a question. Then, I will give you a few seconds to think about your answer. When it is time to think, I will point to my head to show that it is time to think—like this.

Demonstrate for students.

Remember: Thinking happens inside our heads. Let’s try it. Think about this question: What is your favorite food?

Give students five to eight seconds to think. If students raise hands or shout out answers, remind them that thinking happens inside their heads.

The second part of think-turn-talk is to turn to your partner.

Tell students their preassigned talking partner and their assigned roles (for example, one partner might be A and the other B). Have As raise their hands and then Bs.

When it is time to turn, I will say, “turn” and make this motion.

Turn your fingers in the air and model how to turn to a partner. Choose two students to model for the class. If they do it correctly, give them a thumbs up.

Now let's try it. When I say, "turn," you will turn to your partner just as I showed you.

Practice the "turn" procedure as many times as necessary until all students can turn to their partners appropriately.

The last part of think-turn-talk is to talk. It is important that you share your thinking when it is your turn to talk. I will be watching and listening. I will tell you whether Partner A or Partner B should talk first. If I say, "Partner A, tell your partner your favorite food," then Partner A will talk to Partner B. If it is not your turn to talk, listen carefully to your partner. When Partner A is finished speaking, Partner B should say, "Thank you for sharing." Then, Partner B will share his or her thinking. When Partner B is finished speaking, Partner A will say, "Thank you for sharing." When it is time to stop talking and turn back to me, I will use the signal: "5, 4, 3, 2, 1." When I get to one, all eyes should be on me, and it should be quiet.

If more structure is required, provide a specified amount of time for each partner to speak and say, "5, 4, 3, 2, 1—thank you for sharing, Partner A. Now it is Partner B's turn to speak."

Choose two students to model for the class. Choose two more students to model, this time having B begin. Prompt students to tell their partners, "Thank you for sharing."

Have all students practice the "talk" procedure.

Independent Practice

Have students practice the entire procedure using the question: Who are the people who live at your house? Praise students for using correct procedures, such as thinking without raising their hands, turning quietly, and taking turns while talking.

Closing

Remember the beginning of the lesson, when everyone shouted an answer? Was that a good idea? Let's try think-turn-talk once more. This time, your question is: Why is think-turn-talk a good way to share in class?

Follow-Up

You may want to continue practicing the strategy for a week or two. Other practice questions you might use include the following:

What is your favorite book and why?

What places do you like to visit and why?

Who helps you with your schoolwork and how do they help you?

Why is it important to work hard at school?

Adapted from Archer & Hughes, 2011.

Examples of Vocabulary Assessments

Words to Assess			Method for Assessing
Adjectives	Nouns	Verbs	
courageous generous typical	battle villain examination	compare adore destroy	Completing analogies EXAMPLE: courageous : hero :: evil : _____ generous : stingy :: typical : _____
humorous prehistoric available	area data outcome	create sought participate	Completing fill-in-the-blank sentences EXAMPLE: Dinosaurs are _____ because they lived a long time ago before humans kept track of what was happening.
equivalent expensive unpleasant	conversation happiness transportation	rely purchase obtain	Answering multiple-choice questions with synonyms or definitions EXAMPLE: Rely means: a. Depend b. Play again c. Truly
physical normal widespread	summary technology security	publish terminate link	Matching words with their antonyms EXAMPLE: normal — irregular terminate — employ
beautiful different richest	independence role spectacle	identify estimate inspect	Identifying base words, prefixes, suffixes, and/or roots of words and their meanings EXAMPLE: What are the base words in <i>beautiful</i> , <i>different</i> , and <i>richest</i> ? (<i>beauty</i> , <i>differ</i> , <i>rich</i>) ADVANCED EXAMPLE: What is the root in both <i>spectacle</i> and <i>inspect</i> ? What does it mean? (<i>spect</i> – to look, watch, or see)

Adapted from Biemiller, 2005; Farrall, 2012.

Systematic Instruction: Vocabulary Checklist

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

Category	Instructional Methods and Strategies (Check All Observed)		Observed Time(s)	Comments
Grouping Formats	<input type="checkbox"/> Whole group <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher-led small groups <input type="checkbox"/> Independent work	<input type="checkbox"/> Mixed-ability small groups (e.g., workstations) <input type="checkbox"/> Partners		
Explicit Instruction Components	<input type="checkbox"/> Identifies objective <input type="checkbox"/> Activates background knowledge <input type="checkbox"/> Models (e.g., thinks aloud) <input type="checkbox"/> Uses consistent language <input type="checkbox"/> Scaffolds when needed <input type="checkbox"/> Uses examples and nonexamples (as appropriate)	<input type="checkbox"/> Paces instruction appropriately <input type="checkbox"/> Provides guided practice <input type="checkbox"/> Checks for understanding <input type="checkbox"/> Provides multiple response opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides extended practice opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides immediate feedback (corrective when needed)		
Vocabulary Activities and Lessons	<input type="checkbox"/> Teaches word(s) explicitly before, during, or after reading <input type="checkbox"/> Teaches word relationships <input type="checkbox"/> Uses word sorts <input type="checkbox"/> Teaches word-learning strategies <input type="checkbox"/> Has students practice using word-learning strategies	<input type="checkbox"/> Models and practices word consciousness <input type="checkbox"/> Embeds definitions during read-alouds or discussions <input type="checkbox"/> Uses sophisticated academic language <input type="checkbox"/> Reads vocabulary-dense texts aloud <input type="checkbox"/> Involves students in academic discussions <input type="checkbox"/> Has students read widely		
Materials Used	<input type="checkbox"/> Word cards <input type="checkbox"/> Graphic organizers <input type="checkbox"/> Morpheme cards <input type="checkbox"/> Vocabulary word wall	<input type="checkbox"/> Vocabulary games or extension activities <input type="checkbox"/> Vocabulary-dense texts <input type="checkbox"/> Effective oral language and discussions <input type="checkbox"/> Other material:		

Vocabulary Instruction Considerations for English Language Learners

Take Advantage of First-Language Knowledge and Skills

- Consider prior knowledge and previously learned concepts.
 - When we learn words, we learn both the label and the concept behind the label. English language learners (ELLs) might understand concepts such as war and peace and know the labels in Spanish but lack the English labels. If so, ELLs just need to learn a new label for a familiar concept. Ask yourself, “What do my ELLs know about this phrase or word? How can I find out?”
 - For new concepts, support ELLs’ learning of both the concepts and labels in the second language.
- Explicitly teach how to identify cognates when the relationship between the first and second languages is close and the two languages therefore share some root words.
 - Through explicit instruction in how to recognize English-Spanish cognates, Spanish-speaking students may use their knowledge of these shared root words to learn English words. (See page 3 for a list of English-Spanish cognates.)
 - Make sure that students know the word and concept in their first language before asking them to transfer the concept to the second language.

Develop Rich and Powerful Vocabularies Through Explicit Instruction

- Teach basic and foundational English vocabulary.
 - Ensure that ELLs learn the basic vocabulary that English-only students already know when they enter school. These foundational words constitute more than 50 percent of the written texts students will encounter in school.
 - Explicitly teach words that have multiple meanings. Even simple words, such as *bug*, *ring*, *light*, *pen*, and *hand*, might have several meanings that are unfamiliar to ELLs.
- Teach academic terms, multiword units or phrases, and figurative language. Vocabulary knowledge includes learning both word meaning and how to understand and use frequent phrases, such as *based on*, *such as* *the*, *the importance of*, *in order to*, etc.
- Teach word-learning strategies. ELLs need to learn how to use word parts, context, cognates, and the dictionary to glean word meanings.

Provide Multiple Exposures to Words in Varied Written and Oral Contexts

- Because ELLs might hear English primarily at school, expose them to English vocabulary systematically, purposefully, and in varied ways.
- Always contextualize this exposure through the use of real-life objects, drama, art activities, word-association tasks, word analysis, graphic organizers, semantic mapping, acting out meaning of words, etc.
- For ELLs, provide more examples, use more visuals, and engage in more in-depth discussions of the words.
- Ensure that your classroom is a caring and supporting environment where ELLs have opportunities to use new words and interact with native English speakers.

English-Spanish Cognates

English	Spanish	English	Spanish	English	Spanish
absolute	absoluto	concise	conciso	melon	melón
absorb	absorber	conflict	conflicto	minute	minuto
abstract	abstracto	constant	constante	model	modelo
acceleration	aceleración	credit	crédito	music	música
accent	acento	department	departamento	national	nacional
accident	accidente	determine	determinar	natural	natural
acid	ácido	direction	dirección	number	número
acre	acre	education	educación	observe	observar
active	activo	elephant	elefante	opinion	opinión
administer	administrar	excellence	excelencia	oral	oral
admire	admirar	extreme	extremo	palace	palacio
adult	adulto	factor	factor	part	parte
allergy	alergia	function	función	partial	parcial
alphabet	alfabeto	gallon	galón	participate	participar
ambition	ambición	gas	gas	pause	pausa
animal	animal	general	general	permit	permitir
annual	anual	habit	hábito	person	persona
assembly	asamblea	history	historia	practice	práctica
attraction	atracción	horror	horror	president	presidente
bank	banco	hospital	hospital	principal	principal
biology	biología	human	humano	process	proceso
block	bloque	idea	idea	public	público
brutal	brutal	imagine	imaginar	radio	radio
calcium	calcio	impressive	impresionante	rational	racional
calendar	calendario	index	índice	represent	representar
calm	calma	individual	individuo	result	resulta
cancel	cancelar	insect	insecto	segment	segmento
capital	capital	intense	intenso	simple	simple
captain	capitán	invent	inventar	solid	sólido
category	categoría	laboratory	laboratorio	special	especial
central	central	literature	literatura	telephone	teléfono
chocolate	chocolate	manual	manual	television	televisión
circulation	circulación	mark	marca	tranquil	tranquilo
colony	colonia	mathematics	matemáticas	vacation	vacación
				visit	visita

Adapted from August et al., 2005; August et al., 2006; Baker et al., 2014; Calderon et al., 2005; Carlo et al., 2004; Coyne, Kame'enui, & Carmine, 2010; Francis et al., 2006; Gámez & Levine, 2013; Gersten et al., 2007; Graves, August, & Mancilla-Martinez, 2012; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Ramirez, Chen, & Pasquarella, 2013; Shanahan & Beck, 2006.

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Helpful Websites

Association for Library Service to Children (awarded book lists): www.ala.org/alsc/awardsgrants

Cambridge Dictionary Online: <http://dictionary.cambridge.org>

Idioms: www.idiomsite.com

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English: www.ldoceonline.com

Online Etymology Dictionary: <http://etymonline.com>

Oxford Learner's Dictionaries: www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com

Read Aloud America (book lists): www.readaloudamerica.org/booklist.htm

Visual Dictionary: www.infovisual.info/en

Visual Thesaurus: www.visualthesaurus.com

Vocabulary information and games: www.vocabulary.com

Vocabulogic: www.vocablog-plc.blogspot.com

Word of the Day: www.wordsmith.org/awad

Books for Children About Vocabulary

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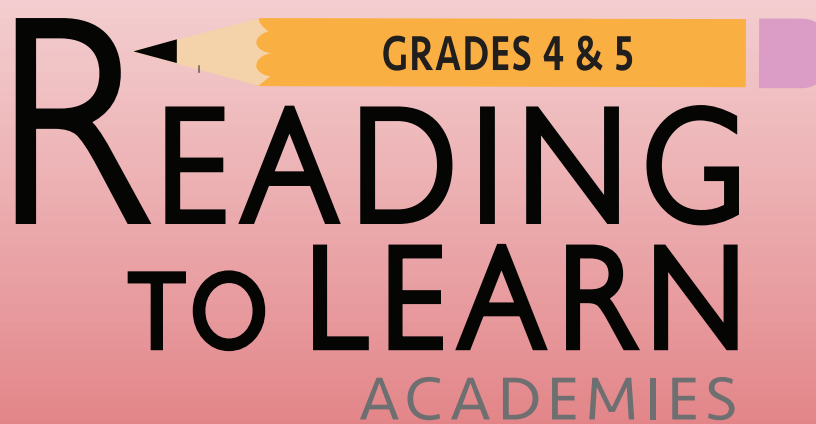
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Vocabulary

Presenter Resources



GRADE 4

Vocabulary Instruction Continuum

<div> <div>DEPTH</div> <div>Fewer words</div> <div>More time spent per word</div> </div> <div> <div>BREADTH</div> <div>More words</div> <div>Less time spent per word</div> </div>		CREATING A LANGUAGE-RICH ENVIRONMENT	
DIRECT TEACHING AND STRATEGY USE		Embed definitions during read-alouds or discussions	Have students use word-learning strategies
Teach individual words directly	TEKS: Grammar and Syntax Word Relationships	Model and practice word consciousness	TEKS: Spelling Morphology Context Clues Dictionary Use
Teach relationships among words	TEKS: Grammar and Syntax Word Relationships	Use academic language effectively	TEKS: Spelling Morphology Context Clues Dictionary Use
Read texts aloud to students	TEKS: Reading Comprehension	TEKS: Language Word Relationships Sensory Language	TEKS: Spelling Morphology Context Clues Dictionary Use
Involve students in academic discussions	TEKS: Listening and Speaking	TEKS: Reading Comprehension	TEKS: Spelling Morphology Context Clues Dictionary Use
Have students read widely	TEKS: Independent Reading Reading Comprehension	TEKS: Grammar and Syntax Listening and Speaking	TEKS: Spelling Morphology Context Clues Dictionary Use

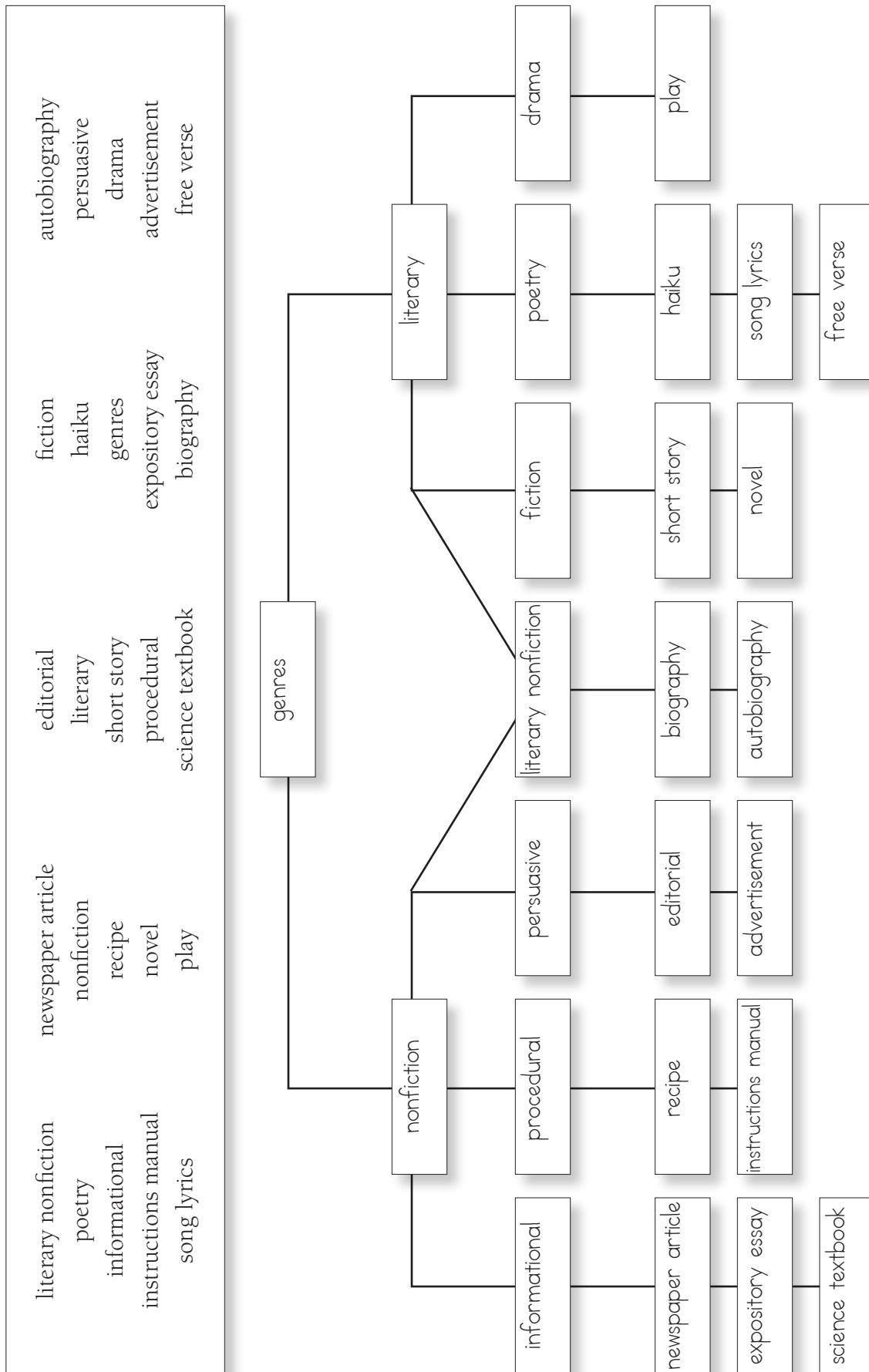
The continuum extends from instructional activities that involve interaction with fewer words and more time spent per word to instructional activities that involve interaction with more words and less time spent per word. The left side of the continuum includes more teacher direction and strategy use, and the right side involves creating a language-rich environment.

Adapted from Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Hiebert & Kamil, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006.

Planning Explicit Vocabulary Instruction

Word	infinite		
Student-Friendly Definition	Going on and on forever and ever		
Examples	The universe Numbers A mother's love for her children		
Nonexamples	A basketball court My bank account My patience		
Synonyms	endless limitless never-ending		
Antonyms	limited restricted finite		
Visual or Graphic Organizer	Picture of line with arrows at both ends Semantic map		
Deep-Processing Activities	Word web with "fin" Name three things of which you wish you had an infinite supply.		

Sorting Words Into Hierarchical Categories



Adapted from Moats, 2009.

Texts for Read-Alouds: Evaluating the Level of Vocabulary

Directions: The general descriptions of three sample lessons and texts to be read aloud are provided below. Read each lesson's description. Then, do the following:

- Read the text excerpt provided and highlight all Level 2 vocabulary words.
- Count the number of Level 2 words. Use this number to calculate the percentage of Level 2 words. Here is the equation to figure out the percentage:
$$\text{Number of Level 2 words} / \text{Total words} \times 100 = \text{Percentage of Level 2 words}$$
- Imagine that each excerpt represents the percentage of Level 2 words throughout the text. Decide whether you believe the text will immerse students in sophisticated language.
- Write one sentence explaining whether this text would be good for building students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge. (The text could still be effective for teaching the specific lesson even if its vocabulary is not very sophisticated.)
- Share and compare your responses with those of your partner or tablemates.

Sample Lesson 1

A teacher decides to teach a shared writing lesson in which the class will create an expository essay on the importance of friendship. The teacher chooses to use the children's picture book *Amos and Boris* by William Steig. The excerpt:

One night, in a phosphorescent sea, he marveled at the sight of some whales spouting luminous water; and later, lying on the deck of his boat gazing at the immense, starry sky, the tiny mouse Amos, a little speck of a living thing in the vast living universe, felt thoroughly akin to it all.

Total Words: 54	Number of Level 2 Words: 13	Percentage of Level 2 Words: 24%
Based on this information, would this text help develop students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge?		

Sample Lesson 2

During a geography unit, a teacher finds a leveled text on polar regions to read aloud to a small group of students reading below grade level. The excerpt:

Humans also live in the Arctic. The Inuit are the native people of the Arctic region. They hunt caribou, seals, and whales. Many years ago, the Inuit made everything, including their clothing, sleds, ropes, tools, and homes, from the skin and bones of the animals they hunted. Today, most Inuit live in modern houses.

Total Words: 54	Number of Level 2 Words: 5	Percentage of Level 2 Words: 9%
Based on this information, would this text help develop students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge?		

Sample Lesson 3

As part of a science unit on the environment, a teacher finds a newspaper article on a debate about killing vampire bats and plans to read it aloud in relation to habitat encroachment. The excerpt:

Vampire bats have always been present in Panama, and their attacks have ebbed and flowed, but now the attacks have become more frequent. Scientists theorize that the increased attacks on livestock are due to timber cutting that has flushed bats out of food-rich forests to the cattle herds, a ready-made and usually stationary food supply...

Total Words: 55	Number of Level 2 Words: 16	Percentage of Level 2 Words: 29%
Based on this information, would this text help develop students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge?		

Grade 4 Literacy Block

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Word study and recognition (30–45 minutes)			
Fluency (10–15 minutes)			

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners	
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Vocabulary (10–15 minutes)		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct read-alouds focused on developing vocabulary • Explicitly teach vocabulary using student-friendly definitions, examples, etc. • Teach relationships among words using graphic organizers • Teach word-learning strategies (using context clues and breaking words into morphemes) • Have students use academic vocabulary in discussions and writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fill in vocabulary graphic organizers • Illustrate vocabulary words • Use words in sentences and writing • Practice reading texts using word-learning strategies • Play vocabulary games from Handout 6 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide extensive practice using word-learning strategies • Create a morpheme wall to use during lessons and workstations • Explicitly teach academic vocabulary <p>Provide sentence and question frames with common and academic connectives</p>
Comprehension (25–30 minutes)		


Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas	
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners		
Writing (20–30 minutes)				

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas	Small groups and workstations
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners		



Vocabulary

Activity Resources

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black tip, positioned horizontally behind the text "READING TO LEARN".
**READING
TO LEARN**
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4



Slide—Purposefully Select Words



1. With your partner, select a children's text.
2. Determine words that fit within each category and write them at the bottom of page 2 on the handout **Selecting Vocabulary Words to Teach Directly**.
3. Circle the three Level 2 words from your text that you want students to own.
4. Share your words with others at your table and discuss why you chose those words.



Slide—Embedding Definitions: Practice



With your partner, figure out Level 2 words or phrases after which you might need to embed a definition or synonym or act it out.

Try to determine student-friendly methods for quickly telling or showing what each word or phrase means.



Slide—Use Academic Language Effectively



Using the handout **Academic Word List**, highlight in green the words that you already use consistently in your classroom.

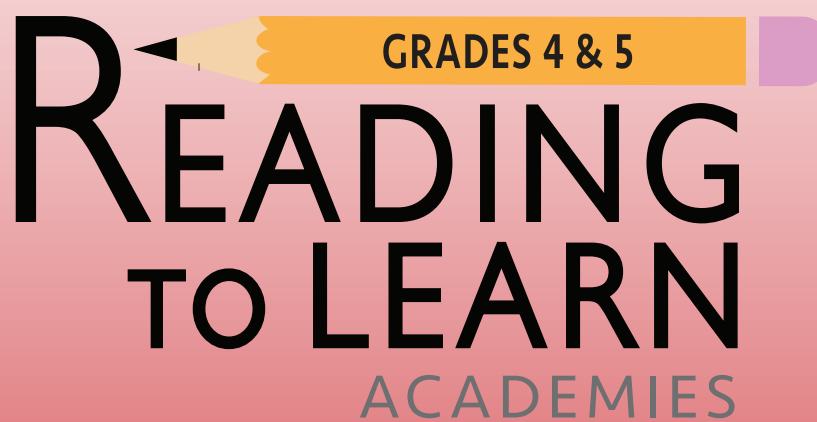
Then, highlight in yellow 10 words that you could add to the academic vocabulary you consistently use when talking with students.

Discuss the words you chose with your tablemates.



Comprehension

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Pink highlighter
- Ball to toss during activity response
- Chart paper for writing participants' responses
- Marker
- Laser pointer
- Document camera
- Two sheets of notebook paper to model making a snowball and a pinch paper
- Clipboard with blank paper for recording participant responses to show on document camera
- Three pink pipe cleaners
- Adhesive tabs
- Folder containing the following documents: Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary, Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope
- Video: Using an Anticipation-Reaction Guide

Participant Materials

- Children's books that participants brought
- Folder containing the following documents: Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary, Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope

Materials to Provide Each Table

- Guiding Questions document (two per table)
- Notebook paper
- Two pieces of chart paper that can stick to the walls
- Markers
- Pink pipe cleaners (three per participant)



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Comprehension

Slide I—Title Slide

(0:00–0:30)

Now that we have covered word-level instruction, including building proficiency with reading and understanding words, let's think about the students we serve. How many of our students are performing on grade level? In this section, we will discuss comprehension processes and strategies that support all learners.

Section Objectives



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

- building students' background knowledge,
- developing students' ability to make inferences,
- applying comprehension strategies, and
- practicing text analysis across disciplines.



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:30–2:00)

Take a moment to review the objectives on the slide. These objectives should guide your learning in this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.

Let's return to the reading rope. Find Handout 1: The Reading Rope in your folder. This handout is from the Overview section of this academy.

As participants locate the handout, display your copy on the document camera.

In this section, we will see how background knowledge, verbal reasoning, and literacy knowledge are important components of the language comprehension strand. Explicit and systematic language comprehension instruction supports students as they read to learn new information. Whether reading sentences or complex texts, students apply word recognition and language comprehension skills in all content areas to create meaning and synthesize information.

With your pink highlighter, highlight three of the upper threads—background knowledge, verbal reasoning, and literacy knowledge—to call attention to the skills that we will focus on during this section. As we dive into comprehension, keep in mind how these three strands are integral parts of comprehension.

Model by highlighting your copy of the handout with your pink highlighter. Allow a few seconds. Then ask participants to place the handout back in the folder.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

The Importance of Comprehension

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

— National Institute for Literacy, 2001, p. 55



Slide 3—The Importance of Comprehension

(2:00–3:00)

Building meaning from written text is what reading is all about. The purpose of everything we have discussed up to this point is to ensure that when students read, they can focus on making connections among a text's ideas, learn from the text, and enjoy it.

Take a moment to read the quotation on the slide.

Pause for participants to read.

Simply having students become effective, proficient word readers, however, will not automatically translate into effective comprehension. We also have to teach comprehension explicitly and systematically.

References

Biemiller, 1999; Burns, Griffin, & Snow, 1999; Duke & Carlisle, 2010; Moats, 1999; National Institute for Literacy, 2001, p. 55; National Reading Panel, 2000; Shanahan et al., 2010

What We Know From Research: Comprehension Processes

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

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



Slide 4—What We Know From Research: Comprehension Processes

(3:00–3:30)

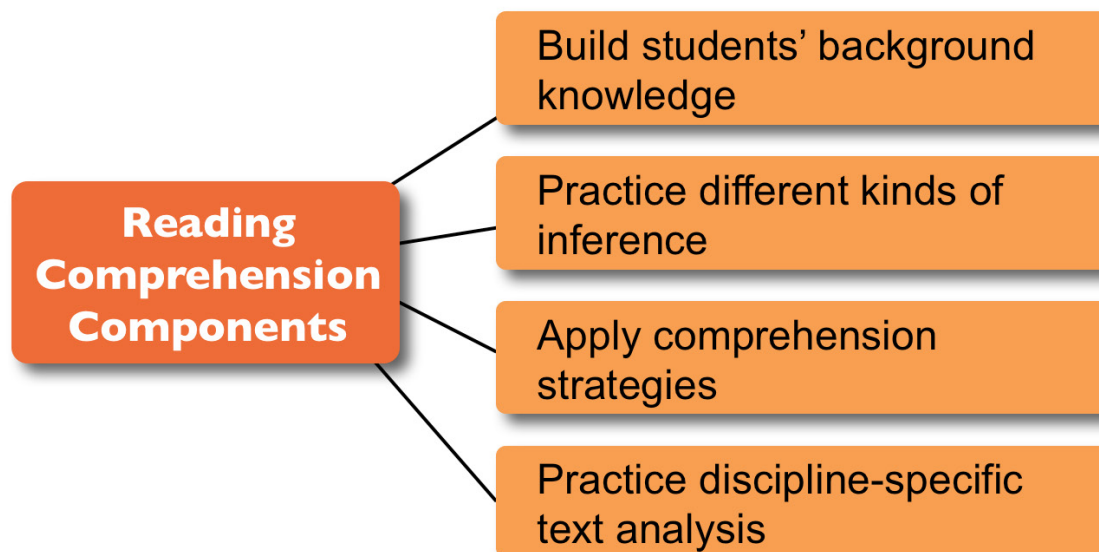
As this quotation states, a teacher must know both specific comprehension processes to teach and when they are relevant when reading and trying to understand a specific text.

Note the last few words—there is no “fixed order” to teaching these comprehension processes. Instead, the teacher has to know when a process like creating sensory images or making an inference is important to grasping a text’s meaning and then teach it within that particular text when it becomes necessary to understanding.

References

Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Oakhill, Cain, & Elbro, 2015, p. 110; Shanahan et al., 2010

Reading Comprehension: Components



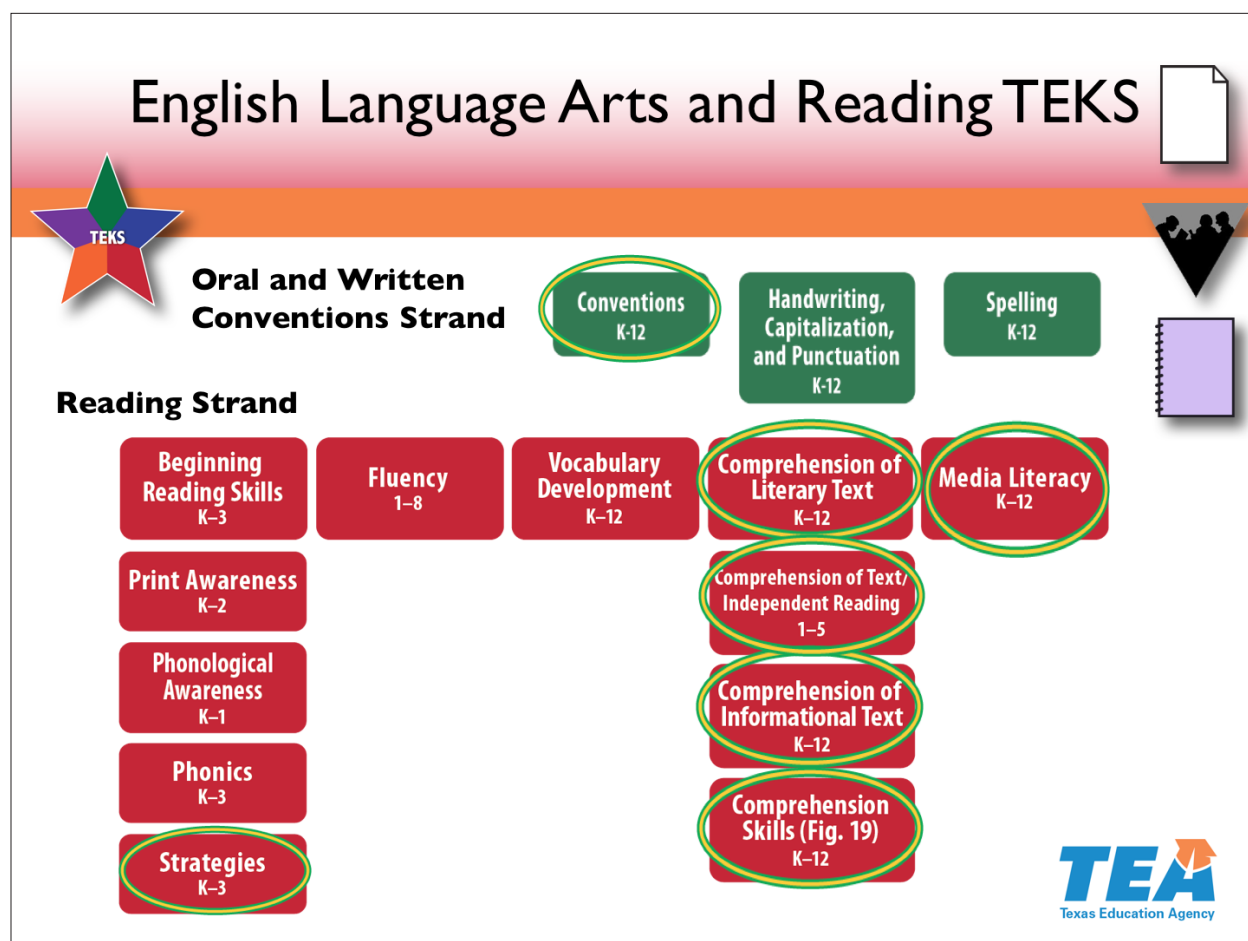
Slide 5—Reading Comprehension: Components

(3:30–4:00)

These are some of the comprehension elements on which research focuses. They include building and activating background knowledge, making inferences, using comprehension strategies, and analyzing discipline-specific texts. We will spend time discussing these components and instructional strategies for developing them. Let's first examine the English Language Arts Reading TEKS to see how they are addressed there.

References

Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Hirsch, 2003, 2006; Keene & Zimmerman, 2007; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Moats, 2010; National Institute for Literacy, 2001; National Reading Panel, 2000; Oakhill et al., 2015; Paris & Stahl, 2005; Pressley, 2006; Roberts, Fletcher, Stuebing, Barth, & Vaughn, 2013; Shanahan et al., 2010; Van Keer, 2004; Willingham, 2006



Slide 6—English Language Arts Reading TEKS

(4:00–12:00)

Comprehension processes are addressed in several sections of the TEKS.

Find the Grades 3–6 English Language Arts Reading TEKS Alignment chart in your folder. Also find the Comprehension Skills (also known as Figure 19) in your folder. One set of expectations related to reading comprehension is under Grammar and Syntax on page 1 of the TEKS Alignment chart. Understanding how words and sentences function is key to understanding discourse.

Other comprehension expectations can be found on pages 6 through 8 of the Alignment chart. This is where you can find expectations related to beginning reading strategies, the various text genres, and media literacy. Additionally, comprehension strategies are listed on the Comprehension Skills chart.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Because expectations related to comprehension can be found in so many places in the TEKS, we will do a scavenger hunt activity to locate specific information within these expectations. Locate **Handout 1: Scavenger Hunt**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Using the TEKS Alignment and Comprehension Skills charts, work with a partner to find the answers to the eight questions on the handout. I will give you five minutes.

*Allow five minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the five minutes, place **Presenter Resource 1** on the document camera and allow participants to check their answers.*

As you can see, the TEKS address many comprehension processes. Let's begin with one element that underlies many of these processes—background knowledge.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2009

Building Students' Background Knowledge

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

— Hirsch, 2003, p. 28



Slide 7—Building Students' Background Knowledge (12:00–13:00)

Take a moment to read the quotation on the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Research demonstrates that one way to improve students' reading comprehension is to build their background knowledge. As Hirsch states, we should teach reading within the context of teaching content and vice versa.

The broader the knowledge you have, the more connections you can make to new knowledge. Those with limited background knowledge have more difficulty gaining new knowledge. Stanovich termed this idea the “Matthew effect”—the rich get richer while the poor get poorer.

References

Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Elbro & Buch-Iverson, 2013; Hirsch, 2003, 2006; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Kosmoski, Gay, & Vockell, 1990; Landauer & Dumais, 1997; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Neuman, 2001, 2006; Oakhill et al., 2015; Stanovich, 1986; Willingham, 2006, 2009

Importance of Background Knowledge: Example

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

— Bransford & Johnson, 1972, p. 722



Slide 8—Importance of Background Knowledge: Example

(13:00–14:00)

Let's look at an example that illustrates the importance of background knowledge for comprehension. Read the text on the slide and see whether you can make sense of it.

Provide one minute for participants to read the text and figure out what it is referencing.

You may think you do not have the background knowledge to understand this text, but you probably do. You just need help activating that knowledge. Let me show you the title of this text to see whether that helps.

References

Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Elbro & Buch-Iverson, 2013; Hirsch, 2003, 2006; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Kosmoski et al., 1990; Landauer & Dumais, 1997; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Neuman, 2001, 2006; Oakhill et al., 2015; Stanovich, 1986; Willingham, 2006, 2009

Importance of Background Knowledge: Example (cont.)

Doing Laundry

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

— Bransford & Johnson, 1972, p. 722



Slide 9—Importance of Background Knowledge: Example (cont.)

(14:00–14:30)

This activity shows the importance not only of background knowledge, but also of activating that knowledge. Sometimes, students have the knowledge, but they just do not know when to activate it during reading to support comprehension. That is why explicitly teaching and modeling how to activate background knowledge and use it to make inferences are so important to developing students' reading comprehension.

References

Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Elbro & Buch-Iverson, 2013; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Neuman, 2001, 2006; Oakhill et al., 2015; Willingham, 2006, 2009

Building Background Knowledge

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



Slide 10—Building Background Knowledge

(14:30–15:30)

Building background knowledge is crucial for reading to comprehend and learn.

To build background knowledge, teachers and students must read content-rich texts. These texts should build students' general knowledge across a variety of areas, including history, science, geography, and the arts. Research supports bringing in content area texts to teach reading and teaching reading within the content areas to build knowledge.

To plan instruction, teachers should organize reading and content area learning within themes or topics that last anywhere from a few days to a few weeks. Within each theme or topic, texts should cut across genres to help students see connections across fiction, poetry, informational texts, etc.

References

Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Elbro & Buch-Iverson, 2013; Hirsch, 2003, 2006; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Kosmoski et al., 1990; Landauer & Dumais, 1997; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Neuman, 2006; Oakhill et al., 2015; Stanovich, 1986; Willingham, 2006, 2009

Building Background Knowledge: Use Texts Across Genres

Literary Texts

- Folktales, fables, fairy tales, myths, legends
- Poetry
- Fiction
- Literary nonfiction
- Drama

Nonfiction Texts

- Expository essays
- Procedural texts
- Persuasive pieces

Media

- Advertisements
- Newspapers
- Websites



Slide 11—Building Background Knowledge: Use Texts Across Genres

(15:30–16:00)

Note the genres addressed in the TEKS. Comprehension of literary and nonfiction texts are both emphasized. Students also need to become familiar with different media purposes and forms, including advertisements and newspaper elements.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2009

Building Background Knowledge: Content-Rich Texts Within a Theme



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



Slide 12—Building Background Knowledge: Content-Rich Texts Within a Theme (16:00–24:00)

Think about the content your students are expected to learn. Will you select texts aligned with your science units? Could you group some social studies expectations within a theme? Perhaps you can collaborate with the art or music teacher or the counselor to come up with a theme to teach across classrooms.

Once you have examined your expectations and considered possible themes, think about texts that relate to these themes. Try to find texts that cut across literary and nonfiction genres.

Let's review an example of how to plan for teaching within a theme. Locate **Handout 2: Planning Within a Theme**.

Pause for participants to locate Handout 2. Put the handout on the document camera to review the example in the first chart.

Notice that on the third page there is a graphic organizer that could be used to make connections across three of the texts.

Pause for participants to turn to the third page. Put the third page on the document camera to show the sample graphic organizer.

Activity

Work with your tablemates to come up with a theme or topic within which you could teach and write it in the chart on page 2 of this handout.

Point to the chart.

Then, work together to brainstorm texts across different genres that relate to that theme. I will give you five minutes to work.

Allow five minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Have a few participants share their thinking. You may want to use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants' responses.

Once you have planned a theme and texts to read within it, you will need to examine those texts for the comprehension processes that you can teach, model, and have students practice.

Activating Background Knowledge

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



Slide 13—Activating Background Knowledge

(24:00–25:00)

It does no good to **build** background knowledge if you don't **use** it to make sense of what you're reading. As we saw in the laundry activity, activating background knowledge is key to making a mental model as you read. A mental model like "doing laundry" helps you fill in the gaps and infer what the text means. It also helps you build and store new knowledge to be used later.

Activating background knowledge can be done at a brisk pace. A simple strategy before reading is to have students skim a text to determine the topic and then brainstorm what they already know about the topic.

A more sophisticated way to activate background knowledge is to use an anticipation-reaction guide, which we will discuss next.

References

Beers, 2003; Elbro & Buch-Iverson, 2013; Klingner et al., 2012; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Oakhill et al., 2015; Ogle, 1986

Activating Background Knowledge: Using an Anticipation-Reaction Guide



- Decide on a theme to teach within a text.
- Write two to four statements that connect to this theme with which students could agree or disagree.
- Before reading, have students tell whether they agree with each statement. Discuss their responses as a group.
- During reading, have students identify text evidence related to the statement and write it on the chart.
- After reading, discuss their evidence and have students write their final conclusions.



Slide 14—Activating Background Knowledge: Using an Anticipation-Reaction Guide (25:00–29:30)

Locate **Handout 3: Anticipation-Reaction Guide**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Let's discuss how to plan and use this tool for activating students' background knowledge.

First, decide on the theme to teach with the text. Then, write a few statements that relate to this theme and that students can agree or disagree with.

These statements are key to the success of using an anticipation-reaction guide. They should not be simple true/false statements or sentences pulled directly from the text. Instead, they should be larger, overarching ideas that can get students thinking and spark in-depth discussion. Turn to page 2 of Handout 3.

Notes continue on the next page.

Pause for participants to locate the page. Display your copy of the page on the document camera.

Activity

Look at the first statement written in the chart.

Point to the statement.

This statement relates to the theme of a story excerpt we will read later in the session. Let's pretend that you are a student in a class that is about to read this story. Take a moment to decide whether you agree with this statement.

Pause for participants to think about the statement.

Now, write your opinion in the first row in the Reader's Opinion column by saying whether you agree with the statement and why. I will give you one minute

Allow one minute for participants to write their responses.

Now, take one minute to talk with your tablemates about your response. Did you agree with the statement? Why?

Allow one minute for participants to discuss.

This activity represents the planning and before-reading portion of using an anticipation-reaction guide. Students also use this guide during reading to note text evidence related to the statement and after reading to discuss their evidence and draw their final conclusions.

All of these steps cause students to practice making inferences—connecting what they know to what they are reading.

Reference

Beers, 2003

Practicing Different Kinds of Inferences

- Effective readers practice making inferences every time they read.
- On the other hand, ineffective readers often don't "put two and two together" or "read between the lines" as we expect them to.
- To help students become effective readers, teach and have them practice the kinds of inference making that effective readers apply often with automaticity.



Slide 15—Practicing Different Kinds of Inferences (29:30–30:30)

Effective reading comprehension depends on making automatic connections among words, phrases, and ideas within and across texts.

Proficient readers make these connections. They know how to “put two and two together” and “read between the lines,” as we say.

Inferring requires a reader to use background knowledge to fill in the gaps within a text. No matter the text, authors make assumptions about readers’ background knowledge and their ability to infer.

However, students who struggle with reading comprehension, including English language learners, often demonstrate difficulty in making inferences. Explicit instruction and practice in making inferences can improve students’ reading comprehension and writing abilities.

References

Beck & McKeown, 2006; Carlisle & Rice, 2002, p. 27; Kispal, 2008; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Oakhill et al., 2015; Stahl, 2014

Practicing Different Kinds of Inferences (cont.)

Fill the Gaps

- Ask questions and consider author's intentions.
- Connect background knowledge to text evidence.

Build a Mental Model

- Connect ideas in a text within a theme.
- Use text structure to connect ideas.

Make the Text Cohere

- Connect words and phrases.
- Use syntactic knowledge.



Slide 16—Practicing Different Kinds of Inferences (cont.)

(30:30–31:00)

What kinds of inferences should we teach and have all students practice? This slide shows three kinds of inferences discussed in the research: filling gaps, building a mental model, and making the text cohere.

We will discuss each one, starting with filling in the gaps.

Fill the Gaps: Ask Questions and Consider the Author's Intentions

Effective Readers

- Ask questions as they read to make sense of what the text says
- Consider the author's reasons for including certain pieces of information or writing the text that way

Effective Teachers

- Model how to ask these kinds of sense-making questions
- Think aloud about how a text is written and why it was written that way
- Have students practice these questioning and thinking techniques with guidance and support



Slide 17—Fill the Gaps: Ask Questions and Consider the Author's Intentions (31:00–32:00)

One method for filling gaps is asking questions and considering the author's intentions as you read. Effective readers use these techniques to make sense of what they read. They put together what's written in the text and their prior experience or knowledge.

Effective teachers model these techniques to support struggling readers and to extend the questioning and thinking skills of skilled readers. All students benefit from such modeling.

After modeling, students can practice these questioning and thinking techniques in mixed-ability partners or groups to scaffold for each other.

References

Beck & McKeown, 2001, 2006; Clarke, Truelove, Hulme, & Snowling, 2014; Fisher, Flood, Lapp, & Frey, 2004; Giroir, Grimaldo, Vaughn, & Roberts, 2015; Hall & Moats, 2000; Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, & Vaughn, 2004; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Lapp, Fisher, & Grant, 2008; Santoro, Chard, Howard, & Baker, 2008; Shanahan et al., 2010; Stahl, 2014

Modeling Effective Questioning and Thinking Aloud: Examples



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



Slide 18—Modeling Effective Questioning and Thinking Aloud: Examples

(32:00–54:00)

One method for modeling techniques for filling in gaps is to read a short text or part of a longer text aloud and stop occasionally to ask questions or to model your thinking. To plan a read-aloud for these purposes, follow the directions on the slide. Take a moment to read those now.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Let's look at three examples that show how to plan for these kinds of read-alouds. Locate **Handout 4: Modeling Effective Questioning and Considering the Author's Intentions**.

Activity

As participants locate the handout, place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

At your tables, number off one to three. Ones will use the first text and lesson plan. Twos will use the second text and lesson plan. Threes will use the third text and lesson plan.

After you read the text and lesson plan, meet with the other ones or twos or threes at your table to discuss the plan and decide who will model reading aloud and asking the questions within the lesson plan. I'll give you five minutes to complete these activities.

Allow five minutes for participants to read their parts of the handout and designate someone to model.

Now, whoever was chosen to model the read-aloud will stand at the front of the table and pretend to be the teacher. The rest of you will be the students, following along as the teacher reads aloud and discussing the questions. Start with the ones.

Allow 15 minutes for the participants to practice reading aloud and questioning with all three texts. Walk around and listen to the modeling and discussions.

Before we move on, please flag page 4 of Handout 4 for later use in this section.

Pause for participants to flag the page.

Modeling Effective Questioning and Considering the Author's Intentions: Discussion



- What did you notice about the different types of questions that were asked across the different types of texts—a picture book excerpt, a novel chapter, and an informational text?
- Which questions were easier to answer and which were more difficult? What made some questions more difficult than others to answer?
- How can you use what you learned in this activity to help you plan effective read-alouds in your classroom?



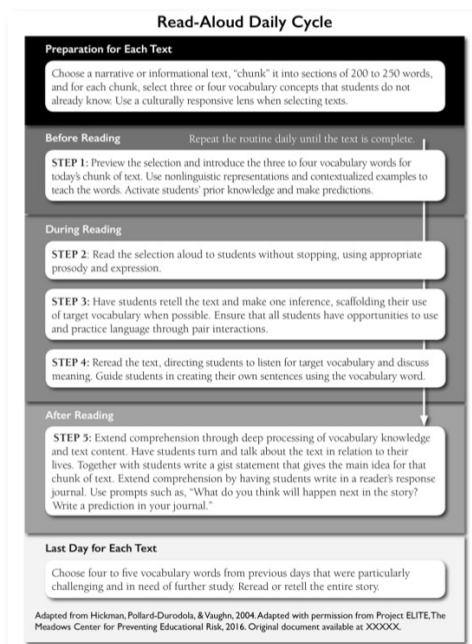
Slide 19—Modeling Effective Questioning and Considering the Author's Intentions: Discussion (54:00–59:00)

Activity

At your tables, discuss the questions on the slide related to the lessons and read-alouds that you just participated in.

Allow four minutes for participants to discuss. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Use the overhead accountability energizer to have a few participants share their thinking.

Planning Effective Read-Alouds to Support Diverse Learners



Slide 20—Planning Effective Read-Alouds to Support Diverse Learners

(59:00–1:03:00)

As you can see, effective read-alouds require a lot of planning. On this slide is a planning format for implementing read-alouds to support struggling readers, including English language learners. It can also be found in **Handout 5: Read-Aloud Cycle**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This read-aloud format has been used to support the vocabulary and comprehension development of all readers, including those who struggle and English language learners. Notice the preparation section at the top where choosing a text and chunking it into several sections is discussed.

Use your laser pointer to highlight the top of the chart on the slide.

Notes continue on the next page.

Then focus on one section a day following the before-, during-, and after-reading steps listed in the chart.

Use your laser pointer to point to each of these areas on the chart and provide participants time to scan each step.

Typically, this process takes three or four days. On the last day, the teacher chooses four or five vocabulary words for more extensive practice and then goes back over the entire text, having students summarize and synthesize what they learned.

Use your laser pointer to point to the bottom of the chart.

Locate **Handout 6: Sample Read-Aloud Lesson**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Place the handout on the document camera to model as you explain its organization.

This handout provides a lesson that follows this weekly format using the book *Jumanji*. The last two pages of the handout provide a Spanish version of the lesson. Note that each row provides vocabulary and comprehension instruction information for one section, or chunk, of the text. In this sample lesson, the book is divided into four chunks. Remember, on the last day, the teacher reviews several of the vocabulary words and revisits the entire text, making connections across all of the chunks.

Use the laser pointer to highlight the following features as you speak.

For each chunk, there are vocabulary words with definitions and sentence stems; questions; example gist statements, or summaries, that use the targeted vocabulary; and questions and activities for closing each lesson.

Take one minute to examine the lesson in the handout. As you read, think about how you could use this format as a starting place for planning your own read-alouds to support struggling readers.

Provide one minute for participants to examine the lesson.

Activity

Turn to a partner at your table and discuss how you could use the planning information in both Handout 5 and Handout 6.

Provide time for participants to discuss.

References

Beck & McKeown, 2001, 2006; Clarke et al., 2014; Fisher et al., 2004; Giroir et al., 2015; Hall & Moats, 2000; Hickman et al., 2004; Lapp et al., 2008; Santoro et al., 2008; Shanahan et al., 2010

Fill the Gaps: Connect Background Knowledge to Text Evidence



Effective Readers

- Connect their experiences and what they already know to what they are reading
- Can provide text evidence to support the connections that they make

Effective Teachers

- Model how to make these kinds of connections between prior experience and knowledge
- Ensure that connections can be supported by text evidence
- Have students practice making these connections and providing text evidence with guidance and support



Slide 21—Fill the Gaps: Connect Background Knowledge to Text Evidence

(1:03:00–1:05:30)

Proficient readers connect what they already know or have experienced with what they're reading. However, they do not stray too far from the text. They should always be able to provide evidence from the text that supports their thinking and inference making.

Teachers can model both how to make these kinds of connections and how to use text evidence to support them.

Locate **Handout 7: Making Connections With Text Evidence**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides a chart for students to keep track of the connections they're making as they read. Turn to page 2.

Notes continue on the next page.

Pause for participants to turn the page.

On this page, you can see an example of how this chart could be filled out for two inferences students can make when reading *Chicken Sunday*.

Go over the examples on page 2 of the handout as time allows.

Be sure to model how to use this chart extensively before you ask students to use it on their own.

Now, let's discuss another type of inference students should practice: building a mental model.

References

Beers, 2003; Oakhill et al., 2015

Build a Mental Model: Set a Purpose and Use Text Structure

Effective Readers

- Set a purpose for reading before they begin
- Use text structure to help them organize their thinking and learn from their reading

Effective Teachers

- Model how to set a purpose for reading and use text structure
- Have students practice these techniques with guidance and support



Slide 22—Build a Mental Model: Set a Purpose and Use Text Structure (1:05:30–1:06:00)

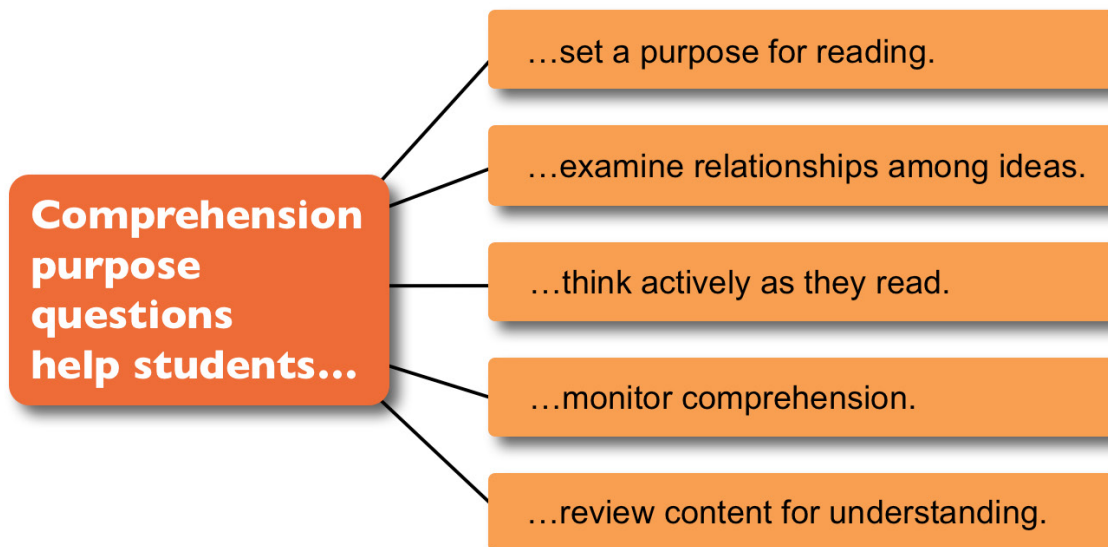
Building a mental model occurs as a reader puts together pieces of information within a text to derive meaning. Before they begin reading, proficient readers think about why they're reading. They set a purpose and make a plan for learning from the text. Effective readers have also learned to recognize structural features of text, and they use these features to help organize and remember information in a text.

To support all readers, teachers model how to set a purpose for different kinds of reading activities. They also model how to use text structure to put information together and remember what they read.

References

Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement, 2001; Collins-Block, Rodgers, & Johnson, 2004; Coyne et al., 2007; Duke, 2004; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Dycha, 2012; Dymock, 2007; Mathes & Fuchs, 1997; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Oakhill et al., 2015; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004

Modeling How to Set a Purpose for Reading: Comprehension Purpose Questions



Slide 23—Modeling How to Set a Purpose for Reading: Comprehension Purpose Questions (1:06:00–1:06:30)

An instructional method for setting a purpose for reading is asking comprehension purpose questions before reading. Such questions help students focus on specific types of relationships as they read. Comprehension purpose questions also help students to read actively, monitor their comprehension, and develop deeper understanding.

Now we will discuss how to plan for this kind of instruction.

References

Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement, 2001; Collins-Block, Rodgers, & Johnson, 2004; Coyne et al., 2007; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Dycha, 2012; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004

Using Comprehension Purpose Questions



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



Slide 24—Using Comprehension Purpose Questions

(1:06:30–1:13:30)

Activity

Locate **Handout 8: Comprehension Purpose Questions**.

*As participants locate the handout, place the **Activity Resource** on the document camera.*

As you read page 1 in this handout, underline key words or phrases that help you answer this question: What is important to remember when setting a comprehension purpose question? When you finish, work with a partner to apply what you learned by following the directions on page 2. You have five minutes.

Notes continue on the next page.

Allow five minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the five minutes, have participants share with the whole group or share ideas you heard that were interesting.

Check your answers using the answer key on page 4. Talk with your partner about any discrepancies between your answers and the answer key. You have one minute.

Provide one minute for participants to work. Address any unresolved discrepancies.

References

Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement, 2001; Collins-Block et al., 2004; Coyne et al., 2007; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Dycha, 2012; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004

Build a Mental Model: Use Text Structure



For narratives

- Discuss relationships among characters, setting, and events.
- If possible, link relationships to a broader theme.

For informational texts

- Look for specific structures, like sequence or compare and contrast.
- Use key words to identify text structure.

Graphic organizers to analyze text structures

- Story maps
- Character analysis charts
- Webs, flow charts, Venn diagrams, etc.



Slide 25—Build a Mental Model: Use Text Structure

(1:13:30–1:15:30)

In addition to setting a purpose before they read, students can use a text's structure to help them build a mental model. Explicitly teaching how authors organize texts not only builds students' comprehension skills, but also helps them improve their writing. Narrative texts tend to follow a common structure, but informational texts can use one of many text structures, such as cause and effect or compare and contrast.

Have students use graphic organizers to analyze texts and help them see the relationships among ideas. Graphic organizers can be completed during or after reading a text. Model how to fill out a graphic organizer while reading to show students relationships among ideas as you build meaning. When you finish reading, model how to use the graphic organizer to check your understanding and make sure you did not miss any connections during your reading of the text.

Notes continue on the next page.

Locate **Handout 9: Graphic Organizers for Teaching Text Structures**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides some example graphic organizers related to various text structures. The first three are useful when reading a narrative text. The last five can be used to analyze expository text structures.

As we discussed during the Vocabulary section, teach students about signal words that provide clues about a text's structure. As a reminder, page 3 of Handout 14 from the Vocabulary section lists specific clue words that signal various expository text structures, including cause and effect, compare and contrast, etc.

Now, let's look at another type of inference students need to practice to read effectively: making a text cohere.

References

Duke, 2004; Dymock, 2007; Mathes & Fuchs, 1997; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Oakhill et al., 2015; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006

Make the Text Cohere

Effective Readers

- Connect words and phrases as they read to ensure the text sticks together and makes sense
- Use their syntactic knowledge to make sense of complex phrasing or sentence structures

Effective Teachers

- Model how to make connections among words and phrases within and across sentences
- Model techniques for making sense of complex syntactic elements
- Have students practice making these connections and using these techniques with guidance and support



Slide 26—Make the Text Cohere

(1:15:30–1:16:30)

For proficient readers, making connections between words, phrases, and sentences seems to happen automatically. They understand to whom *he* or *that* refers. They read *however* or *but* and know a contrasting idea is coming next. Effective readers can also parse difficult sentences and connect multiple ideas in complex sentences.

Struggling readers, on the other hand, may have difficulty making these connections. They may get lost in complex sentences that contain three or more idea units. Modeling how to make these connections and how to use syntactic knowledge to derive meaning from difficult sentences can help these students.

Such modeling also helps skilled readers see how cohesive devices like subordinating conjunctions and transition words can improve their writing. It can also help them use more complex syntax when putting their ideas together either orally or in writing.

References

Beers, 2003; Oakhill et al., 2015; Poulsen & Gravgard, 2016; Saddler, 2007, 2009, 2012

Make the Text Cohere: Connect Words and Phrases

Help students make connections within and across sentences.

- Linking pronouns to their referents
- Using other cohesive ties (e.g., renaming) within a text to connect ideas
- Understanding relationships among ideas based on connectives (e.g., transition words, conjunctions)



Slide 27—Make the Text Cohere: Connect Words and Phrases

(1:16:30–1:17:00)

Students can practice drawing relationships among words, phrases, and ideas within and across sentences. Such analyses can include

- linking pronouns with their referents,
- examining the use of cohesive ties to connect ideas, and
- evaluating how various connectives affect meaning.

References

Beers, 2003; Oakhill et al., 2015; Poulsen & Gravgard, 2016; Saddler, 2007, 2009, 2012

Connecting Words and Phrases: Performing Syntax Surgery



1. Read a sentence or set of sentences aloud.
2. As you read, think aloud about links you are making between words and ideas.
3. Mark up the text as you think aloud about the relationships that you see.
4. Have students mark up their own versions of the text along with you.
5. Have students practice with another sentence or set of sentences in partners or small groups.



Slide 28—Connecting Words and Phrases: Performing Syntax Surgery

(1:17:00–1:24:00)

One engaging activity for helping students make inferences within and across sentences is what Kyleene Beers calls “syntax surgery.” Locate **Handout 10: Activities for Building Connections Within and Across Sentences**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

To prepare for this activity, again, think about your objective. Do you want to show students how to link pronouns with their referents? Maybe you would like to show how a transition word or a subordinating conjunction connects ideas.

Find a text with a sentence or set of sentences that illustrates particular relationships among words and ideas. Follow these steps.

- Put your copy of the text on a document camera and give students their own copies.

Notes continue on the next page.

- Read the sentences aloud, stopping to think aloud about the links you are drawing among the words and sentences.
- As you think aloud, mark up the text to show links between words, phrases, and ideas.
- Have students mark up the text along with you.
- If you think students are ready to try it on their own, have them mark up another text, examining similar relationships.

We will examine a couple of examples, so we can see what it means to “mark up” a text. Find the examples on page 1 of the handout.

Pause for participants to find the examples. Put your copy on the document camera and review the first example. Then complete the second example with participants. The answer is provided on Presenter Resource 2.

Activity

Now, we will see whether you can do it. On page 2, there is another set of sentences from *Hidden Words: Looking Through a Scientist’s Microscope*.

Point to the activity on your copy on the document camera.

Read the text and perform a syntax surgery, focusing on only pronouns and their referents. Mark up the text to show this relationship. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to work. Consider using the overhead accountability energizer to share responses. The answer is provided on Presenter Resource 2.

Notice on pages 3 and 4 of the handout the examples of different types of connections students should practice making within and across sentences.

Pause for participants to find the two pages. Put page 3 on the document camera to point out one or two of the examples.

Take a moment to examine the examples. Put a star next to the two types of connections that students seem to struggle with the most. Then share those with your partner.

Allow two minutes for participants to work and discuss. Use the ball toss energizer to have a few participants share.

References

Beers, 2003; Moats & Hennessy, 2010

Using Syntactic Knowledge: Combining Sentences



- Break a sentence into multiple sentences.
- Have students combine the sentences to make one sentence.

Sentence Deconstructed	Original Sentence
He wanted to slide down to the floor. He wanted to speak to her. He didn't dare.	He wanted to slide down to the floor and speak to her, but he didn't dare.
She was wearing a white sweater. She was wearing a tweed skirt. She was wearing white wool socks. She was wearing sneakers.	She was wearing a white sweater, tweed skirt, white wool socks, and sneakers.



Slide 29—Using Syntactic Knowledge: Combining Sentences

(1:24:00–1:28:00)

Sentence combining, another sentence-level activity, is supported by decades of research that shows its benefits for both reading and writing.

Turn to page 5 of Handout 10.

Pause for participants to turn the page.

This page explains sentence combining. To prepare for a sentence combining activity, think about a syntactic relationship for students to examine. For example, you might want to teach compound sentences with coordinating conjunctions, commas in a series, or compound subjects with correct subject-verb agreement.

Within a text that you and your students are reading or have written, find a sentence that has that element. Break the sentence apart into two, three, or more

Notes continue on the next page.

sentences for the students to combine into one sentence. Take one minute to review the examples on this handout.

Provide one minute for participants to examine the examples.

Activity

Now we will practice sentence combining.

Click to show the first example.

Here are three sentences from *Stuart Little* that can be combined to create a compound sentence. I will give you 30 seconds to create the original sentence.

Allow 30 seconds for participants to combine the sentences. Have a few participants share their sentences. Then, click to show the original sentence.

In this example, students must consider using one coordinating conjunction versus another to create a relationship between the ideas they are linking. Effective readers build meaning by understanding these relationships.

Click to show the second example.

Here are four sentences that can be combined to create a sentence with commas in a series. Try to create the sentence in 30 seconds.

Allow 30 seconds for participants to combine the sentences. Then, click to show the original sentence.

This example shows how sentence combining, in addition to helping with reading comprehension, can help students remove repetition from their writing, an important revision skill.

References

Anderson, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Saddler, 2007, 2009, 2012; Saddler & Graham, 2005

Using Syntactic Knowledge: Deconstructing Sentences



- Find a sentence with a syntactic element you would like students to practice using.
- Have students break the sentence into two or more sentences that represent idea units within the sentence.

Original Sentence	Sentence Deconstructed
After two days, the cement was dry, and the wooden structures were broken down and taken away, leaving the dried cement blocks.	The workers waited two days. The cement was then dry. The workers broke down the wooden structures. They took the wooden structures away. They left the dried cement blocks. (Implied: The dam was finished.)



Slide 30—Using Syntactic Knowledge: Deconstructing Sentences

(1:28:00–1:32:30)

Sentence deconstructing is the opposite process of sentence combining. In this activity, you give students a sentence and have them break it into smaller sentences that represent the idea units within the original sentence.

Let's look at an example from the "Shasta Dam" text we read earlier. We have chosen a particularly difficult sentence from this text to show you why informational text is often more difficult for students to understand than literary text.

Activity

Working with a partner, break this sentence into smaller sentences that represent the individual idea units. I'll give you two minutes.

Notes continue on the next page.

Allow two minutes for participants to work. After two minutes, click to reveal the sentence deconstructed.

Notice the words in white. They are not in the original sentence. They are implied. “The workers” is implied because this sentence uses passive voice. Informational texts often employ passive voice, making it difficult for some readers to understand.

The last idea, “The dam was finished,” is implied by the phrase “leaving the dried cement blocks.” The blocks are what made up the dam when it was completed. If you go back to the text, you will see that the author didn’t state the dam was finished. He assumed you’d understand by reading the last phrase in this sentence.

At your tables, talk for a minute about sentence combining and deconstructing. How might you use these instructional techniques to help students develop and use their syntactic knowledge?

Allow one minute for participants to discuss. Use the ball toss energizer to have a few participants share their thinking.

References

Anderson, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Saddler, 2007, 2009, 2012; Saddler & Graham, 2005

What Have We Learned So Far?



Snowball Fight

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



Slide 31—What Have We Learned So Far?

(1:32:30–1:38:00)

Let's take a moment to reflect on what we have learned so far in relation to comprehension instruction.

Activity

Think about one thing you have learned thus far about comprehension instruction.

Pause for participants to think.

Each table should have several sheets of notebook paper. Write that one thing on your piece of notebook paper.

Pause for participants to write.

Now, crumple the paper into a ball, stand up, and form a circle with your fellow educators.

Notes continue on the next page.

Pause for participants to crumple their papers, get up, and form a circle.

When I count to three, throw your paper, or “snowball,” into the middle of the circle. Then, you will pick up someone else’s snowball, open it, read it, and be prepared to share it with the rest of the group. Ready? One, two, three, throw!

Guide the activity, reminding participants to come back to their place in the circle. Go around the circle, having each participant read his or her paper. When all papers have been read, have the participants return to their seats.

Summarize the thoughts that were read aloud. What do they tell us about comprehension instruction?

Two Frameworks for Comprehension Instruction

Applying Comprehension Strategies

- Start with a strategy or set of strategies.
- Provide instruction and practice in applying the strategies to a text or set of texts.

Practicing Discipline-Specific Text Analysis

- Start with a text or set of texts.
- Provide instruction and practice in analyzing language, making inferences, and using strategies specific to that text or set of texts.



Slide 32—Two Frameworks for Comprehension Instruction

(1:38:00–1:39:00)

Using background knowledge and making different types of inferences are two comprehension processes that must occur no matter what a student is reading. That's why we have discussed those first.

Now, we will discuss two frameworks for organizing your comprehension instruction. The first is teaching students how to apply comprehension strategies across various types of texts. In this framework, you start with a strategy or set of strategies you want students to apply. Then you provide instruction and practice in applying those strategies across various kinds of texts.

The second framework starts at the other end—with the text or set of texts. Teachers who work within this framework first consider the discipline within which reading will occur. They ask themselves questions like, “Will we read the text through a historical lens or a scientific lens?” They then have students analyze texts from these disciplinary-specific perspectives.

Let's start with the first framework—applying comprehension strategies.

Applying Comprehension Strategies



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



Slide 33—Applying Comprehension Strategies (1:39:00–1:39:30)

Researchers, such as Daniel Willingham and Michael Pressley, suggest teaching and practicing a few high-impact comprehension strategies. We will focus on the six strategies listed on this slide. These six strategies have a strong research base to support their implementation in elementary classrooms.

Locate **Handout 11: Comprehension Strategies**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout describes each of the strategies we will discuss. Keep this handout to make notes about the strategies as we review each one.

References

Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Klingner et al., 2012; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Pressley, 2006; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006-2007

Applying Comprehension Strategies (cont.)

What a Strategy Is

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

What a Strategy Is Not

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



Slide 34—Applying Comprehension Strategies (cont.)

(1:39:30–1:40:30)

This slide compares what a comprehension strategy is to what it is not. Please take a moment to read this chart.

Provide 30 seconds for participants to read.

Notice that a comprehension strategy involves students' explicit, intentional efforts to improve their understanding of text. Activities such as worksheets and skills practice generally do not include this explicit instruction.

Reference

Shanahan et al., 2010

Application Is Key

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

— Shanahan et al., 2010, p. 12



Slide 35—Application Is Key

(1:40:30–1:41:30)

When teaching comprehension strategies, provide students with multiple opportunities to practice and apply the strategies across multiple texts and genres. This practice will support students as they work to strengthen their comprehension skills and determine which strategy is best suited for each text and reading situation.

Research by Tim Shanahan supports students’ application of the proper reading strategies depending on the text and situation. Take a moment to review this quotation.

Provide participants 30 seconds to read.

Now we will focus on comprehension strategies and strong instructional practices that will support our students in becoming more successful readers.

References

Shanahan et al., 2010, p. 12; Willingham, 2006–2007

Applying Comprehension Strategies: Identifying Important Information



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

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



Slide 36—Applying Comprehension Strategies: Identifying Important Information (1:41:30–1:49:30)

The first two strategies—identifying important information and summarizing—go hand in hand. Before moving into these more difficult strategies, teach students how to retell and paraphrase what they have learned from their reading. As students master these skills, move into distinguishing between main ideas and details.

Use a specific strategy for identifying main ideas. **Handout 12: Example Lesson Plan: Identifying Main Ideas** provides an example of one such strategy—get the gist. Let's look at the example.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Place your copy of the handout on the document camera.

Notes continue on the next page.

Take a moment to read through the lesson. Note the example think-alouds for modeling the strategy with the first paragraph of the “Underground Workers” text and reflect on how this lesson plan might influence the way you teach main ideas. You have two minutes.

Provide two minutes for participants to skim the lesson.

Activity


*Use this handout and **Presenter Resource 3** to model a think-aloud with the first paragraph of the “Underground Workers” text and have participants practice planning their own think-aloud with the second paragraph.*

Now we will see how to connect this strategy with summarizing.

References

Klingner et al., 2012; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006–2007

Applying Comprehension Strategies: Summarizing



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

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



Slide 37—Applying Comprehension Strategies: Summarizing

(1:49:30–1:53:00)

Summarizing has an extensive research base to support it. In fact, effective summary writing improves both reading comprehension and writing. Before students can create a summary, though, they must be able to use the previously discussed strategy, identifying important information. Making direct connections between identifying main ideas and writing a summary helps all students, especially those who struggle with these strategies.

Locate **Handout 13: Example Lesson Plan: Summarizing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Put your copy of the handout on the document camera.

This handout builds on the main idea lesson and shows how to connect it to summarizing. Note the think-aloud used to explicitly connect the gist statements

Notes continue on the next page.

to writing a summary and reflect on how this lesson plan might influence the way you teach summarizing. You have two minutes.

Provide two minutes for participants to skim the lesson.

In this lesson, the teacher has students write a summary after reading an entire text, but summarizing can be used during reading, too. One method is to have students stop multiple times while reading to summarize aloud what has been read up to that point.

Now we will look at another strategy that students can use either during or after reading.

References

Graham & Hebert, 2010; Graham & Perin, 2007; Klingner et al., 2012; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006–2007

Applying Comprehension Strategies: Asking and Answering Questions



Developing and answering questions about information in a text

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



Slide 38—Applying Comprehension Strategies: Asking and Answering Questions

(1:53:00–2:00:00)

Asking questions is one strategy for dealing with a breakdown in understanding. It is also an effective way to review information after reading a text. Take a moment to look at the last row of the chart on page 1 in Handout 11.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Place your copy of the handout on the document camera.

Read the description for asking and answering questions and highlight any key words or ideas. You have one minute.

Provide one minute for participants to review the handout.

Note the activity for teaching students how to ask questions at various levels. The handout provides three example levels of questions.

Notes continue on the next page.

- “Right there” questions, which can be answered by words directly stated in a text
- “Think and search” questions, which require the reader to put information together from across the text
- “Author and me” questions, which require the reader to put together textual information with information outside the text

Let’s look at an example graphic organizer that can help students practice this strategy. Locate **Handout 14: Student Log for Self-Generated Questions**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Place your copy of the handout on the document camera.

The first page is a log for tracking questions asked and answers with text evidence to support these responses. The second page provides several sample question stems for each level. The third page shows an example of the log filled out with one question at each level related to the *Chicken Sunday* text we discussed earlier.

Activity

Now it’s your turn. Turn to page 4 of the handout. Using the text that you brought, work with a partner and write one question at each level. I will give you four minutes.

Allow four minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Use the overhead accountability energizer to show a few of the questions.

References

Klingner et al., 2012; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006–2007

Applying Comprehension Strategies: Monitoring Comprehension



Attending to a breakdown in comprehension and doing something about it

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



Slide 39—Applying Comprehension Strategies: Monitoring Comprehension

(2:00:00–2:02:00)

Monitoring comprehension is paying attention to when you do and do not understand when reading. When comprehension difficulties arise, a reader should stop and do something about it rather than simply continue reading.

Take one minute to read the description of this strategy in the chart in Handout 11 and highlight any key words or ideas.

Provide one minute for participants to look over the handout.

Note that for students to monitor their comprehension, they must actively work to build a mental model, or schema, from what they are reading. Without active reading, comprehension does not happen.

Also note that a reader must care that a break down has occurred. If a reader is building a mental model and comes across a new piece of information that does

Notes continue on the next page.

not fit within it, she must be motivated to adjust the model in some way. If this motivation does not exist, she will keep reading and ignore the problem, which could lead to an inaccurate or incomplete mental model.

References

Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Klingner et al., 2012; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Shanahan et al., 2010

Applying Comprehension Strategies: Making Predictions



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

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



Slide 40—Applying Comprehension Strategies: Making Predictions

(2:02:00–2:03:30)

The next strategy in our chart on Handout 11 is making predictions, which can be used both before reading and during reading. This strategy is good for explicitly teaching students to make connections between what is in the text and their background knowledge. Take one minute to read its description in the chart and highlight any key words or ideas.

Provide one minute for participants to work.

Making predictions should be combined with other strategies on our list.

References

Klingner et al., 2012; Shanahan et al., 2010

Applying Comprehension Strategies: Creating Sensory Images

Creating a mental image of what is described in the text

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



Slide 41—Applying Comprehension Strategies: Creating Sensory Images

(2:03:30–2:04:30)

In the research, this strategy is called “visualization” or “making mental images.” This strategy helps students realize the importance of picturing what they are reading. Research demonstrates that this strategy helps poor readers, especially those with memory difficulties. The strategy can be used with any text but seems to work best with literary texts, like stories and poems.

Researchers suggest combining this strategy with other strategies, like identifying important information and generating questions.

We have now discussed six comprehension strategies for students to apply before, during, and after reading. Let’s review a few guidelines for teaching and practicing these strategies.

References

Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Clarke et al., 2014; Oakhill & Patel, 1991; Shanahan et al., 2010

Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction

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



Slide 42—Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction

(2:04:30–2:05:30)

This slide and the next slide list steps for teaching a comprehension strategy. Initial instruction in a strategy should use simple text. For example, the “Underground Workers” text in the main idea lesson is simple, and the main ideas of each paragraph are fairly straightforward to identify.

It is often easier to teach identifying important information and summarizing in an informational text, like the “Underground Workers” text, than in a literary text. Creating sensory images, on the other hand, is easier to apply in literary texts than in informational texts. Choosing texts for teaching comprehension strategies requires purposeful and thoughtful planning. Although it may be easier to teach these strategies initially with specific genres, it is important to consult the standards to ensure the required student expectations are also being taught.

Notes continue on the next page.

The next step is planning your think-alouds. As with choosing a text, this step is key to effective strategy instruction. When you are reading, identify places in the text where you find yourself putting ideas together. Make a note of the thinking you want to show students.

Before you start reading aloud to students, let students know you will stop occasionally to show them your thinking. You can even tell them this is called a “think-aloud.” Then, as you read, stop in the places you previously identified to think aloud and show students how you put ideas together using the strategy.

Click to the next slide to continue discussing the steps.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Rosenshine 2012; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006

Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction (cont.)

- During or after reading, fill out a graphic organizer to summarize your thinking.
- After you model a strategy and have students practice it with you many times, have them practice it in partners or small groups (“We do”).
- Have students practice a strategy by itself, but eventually put it together with other strategies for students to use together (“We do” and “You do”).
- As students practice using these strategies, ensure that they engage in high-quality discussions about their thinking.



Slide 43—Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction (cont.)

(2:05:30–2:06:30)

As you model your thinking, it is often helpful to fill out a graphic organizer. Give students their own copy to make notes along with you. For struggling students, it is beneficial to provide a completed graphic organizer or a graphic organizer that is partially completed for them to add notes to as you complete one for the class.

After modeling a strategy, have students practice it with support from you and their peers. Provide guided practice before students use a strategy on their own.

Initial instruction and practice can occur with a single strategy, but once students have mastered two or three strategies, students can practice multiple strategies together. Research shows that both single-strategy and multiple-strategy practice improve students’ reading comprehension.

As students apply strategies, make sure they discuss their thinking and learning.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Rosenshine, 2012; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006

Ways to Support High-Quality Discussions



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



Slide 44—Ways to Support High-Quality Discussions

(2:06:30–2:26:30)

This slide lists factors to consider when planning for high-quality discussions to develop students' reading comprehension. As Shanahan and colleagues state, "Through this type of exploration, students learn how to argue for or against points raised in the discussion, resolve ambiguities in the text, and draw conclusions or inferences about the text."

Please locate **Handout 15: Guidelines for High-Quality Discussions**.

Activity

As participants locate the handout, place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Take a moment to skim the first section on page 1, which describes considerations for selecting texts. Highlight key ideas in that section as you skim.

Provide two minutes for participants to skim the first section.

Now, skim the next section on page 1. Then, working with a partner, write five sample question stems that can help you and your students ask higher-level questions to spark effective discussions. You have three minutes.

Allow three minutes for participants to skim the section and write their question stems. At the end of the three minutes, use the ball toss energizer to have various participants share a sample question stem. You may want to have someone write these question stems on chart paper at the front of the room as they are shared.

Skim the next section, on page 2. Then, working with a partner, write a few sample follow-up questions that can help you and your students clarify thinking, elaborate responses, and tie responses directly to the text. You have three minutes.

Allow three minutes for participants to skim the section and write their own follow-up questions. At the end of the three minutes, follow the same procedure to share and record participant responses.

The final recommendation is to move these discussions into student-led small groups. Rather than the teacher always being in charge of the discussions, students can begin to take responsibility for asking questions and discussing texts with their fellow students. Some suggestions are provided on pages 3 and 4 of the handout.

Now it's your turn. Locate **Handout 16: Example Lesson Plan**.

Use this template and the text you brought with you. Plan a lesson to teach one comprehension strategy described in Handout 11. Then, considering the genre of your book, consult the TEKS for additional support. Remember to identify vocabulary words to preteach or build into your lesson. On page 2 of Handout 16, list three ideas to support student discussions. You may work alone or with a partner. Be prepared to share the lesson you create. You have 10 minutes to work.

Allow 10 minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the 10 minutes, have a few participants share with the whole group.

We will discuss one more instructional component in relation to developing students' reading comprehension—teaching disciplinary thinking and understanding.

References

Beck & McKeown, 2001, 2006; Brown et al., 1995; Clarke et al, 2014; Giroir et al., 2015; Kosanovich et al., 2010; McKeown & Beck, 1999; Michaels et al., 2008; Santoro et al., 2008; Shanahan et al., 2010, p. 23; Tompkins, 2009

Practicing Discipline-Specific Text Analysis

Instead of trying to impose a strategy on a text, start with what students should get out of the text: What's the disciplinary purpose?

- Realize that the purposes and processes for reading differ across disciplines.
- Match strategies to these purposes and processes.
- Understand that a specific strategy (e.g., drawing a diagram while reading) might make sense in one discipline (e.g., science) but not in another discipline (e.g., history).



Slide 45—Practicing Discipline-Specific Text Analysis

(2:26:30–2:27:30)

The previous slides addressed methods for teaching comprehension strategies. In those lessons, you start with a strategy and find a text to teach it. Disciplinary literacy, however, works the opposite way. You start with a text and decide what instruction is necessary to ensure that students understand and learn from it.

As the name suggests, disciplinary literacy implies that the purposes, processes, and strategies for reading depend on the content area. For example, we have a different purpose for reading a science text than we do for reading a poem, novel, or even a word problem. Based on this purpose, our comprehension of the science text depends on specific conceptual knowledge, thinking processes, and learning strategies that differ from those we would use when reading the poem, novel, or word problem.

References

Fang, 2012; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012; Shanahan, Shanahan, & Misischia, 2011

Disciplinary Literacy Versus Content Area Literacy



“In disciplinary literacy, the discipline itself and the ways of thinking in that discipline determine the kinds of strategies to use in order to understand texts. This differs from content area literacy, in which the strategies one knows determine how reading ensues.”

— Hynd-Shanahan, 2013, p. 94



Slide 46—Disciplinary Literacy Versus Content Area Literacy

(2:27:30–2:33:30)

Let's read the quotation on the slide together.

Read the quotation chorally with participants.

Some educators equate disciplinary literacy with content area literacy; however, they are not the same. Content area literacy focuses on using a strategy or set of strategies across various texts from all disciplines. Disciplinary literacy, on the other hand, focuses on the thinking specific to the discipline and teaches processes and strategies that will support this thinking when reading a text within that discipline.

Let's examine a few texts to illustrate what we mean by discipline-specific purposes, processes, and strategies. Find **Handout 17: Disciplinary Texts**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

Notes continue on the next page.

This handout has four texts—a poem, a historical explanation, a scientific description, and two word problems.

Activity

Read each text, focusing on making sense of what it says. Then, with a partner, discuss the two questions at the top of the handout.

Allow four minutes for participants to read the texts and discuss the questions. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Use the overhead accountability energizer to show a few comments about understanding the different texts.

Now, let's take a look at how texts across disciplines differ.

References

Fang, 2012; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013, p. 94; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012; Shanahan et al., 2011

Disciplinary Distinctions to Consider



Vocabulary

- Technical terms
- Impact of morphological changes
- Use of metaphorical terminology

Grammatical patterns

- Passive versus active voice
- How ideas are connected
- Lengthy noun phrases

Author and context awareness

- Is knowledge of the author important to text understanding and interpretation?
- Should the context of when the text was written have an impact on comprehension?



Slide 47—Disciplinary Distinctions to Consider (2:33:30–2:40:30)

Researchers, including linguists and cognitive psychologists, have examined differences in the texts used across various disciplines. They have identified linguistic variations related to vocabulary and grammatical patterns.

Researchers have also analyzed how experts read texts within their specific disciplines. These analyses showed variations in the thinking processes and strategies used based on the discipline, including science, history, and mathematics.

Find **Handout 18: Text Differences Across the Disciplines**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

This handout describes some of the ways in which texts across disciplines differ. The first page and a half lists general ways they can vary, including vocabulary

Notes continue on the next page.

elements, grammatical patterns, and how awareness of the author and context is important for making sense of the text.

Activity

Take a moment to read through the first section, Vocabulary, and highlight important ideas. Try to complete activity 1 in the box.

Allow two minutes for participants to read the section and complete the activity. You may want to use the overhead accountability energizer to show a few responses. Possible responses include “addition,” “law,” “mixture,” “suspension,” “adaptation,” “right,” and “probability.”

Now, read the next section, Grammatical Patterns, and highlight important information. Put a star next to the idea you think is most important to keep in mind. Try to complete activity 2 in the box.

Allow two minutes for participants to read the section and complete the activity. Use the overhead accountability energizer to show a few ideas that participants starred.

Call on a participant to share his or her response for activity 2. Correct response: The sound waves were absorbed by the wood.

The last section, Author and Context Awareness, lists two questions. Sometimes, consideration of the author and the context within which he or she wrote a text is important to making sense of the text. Other times, such consideration is not necessary.

Let's see what research shows about reading effectively in English language arts, history, science, and mathematics. On page 3 of the handout is a list of specific vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and thinking processes related to each discipline.

Pause for participants to locate the list.

The next few slides discuss the information in this list, so keep it out as we discuss each discipline.

References

Fang, 2012; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012; Shanahan et al., 2011

Discipline-Specific Analysis: English Language Arts



- Understanding of sensory and figurative language is important.
- Abstract literary elements like character motivation, theme, conflict, and tone are inferred during reading.
- In general, more focus is placed on literary texts with narrative, poetic, or dramatic structures.
- Text analysis and interpretation is the focus of instruction (as opposed to building conceptual knowledge and skills in other disciplines).
- Consideration of author and context is often important.



Slide 48—Discipline-Specific Analysis: English Language Arts

(2:40:30–2:45:30)

In English language arts, much of our focus is on reading literary texts like novels, short stories, dramas, and poems. These text types often use sensory or figurative language. Additionally, abstract concepts like character motivation, conflict, and theme must be inferred from such language and from other text elements like point of view, setting description, dialogue, and event sequences.

English teachers focus on developing students' literary analysis abilities. The purpose of reading activities in these classrooms is to develop students' thinking within, appreciation for, and engagement with different types of literary pieces. Instruction is not as focused on building conceptual knowledge and skills, like reading activities in other disciplines.

Notes continue on the next page.

Although elementary literary texts do not contain sophisticated literary elements, our instruction lays the foundation for students learning to analyze texts for abstract elements like imagery and linguistic patterns like metaphor.

Find **Handout 19: Teaching Within Disciplinary Texts**.

Pause for participants to find the handout.

Activity

Using the poem in Handout 17, we will answer the first question on Handout 19 together. Then you can work with a partner to answer the remaining questions in the Literary Text: Poem section.

*Work with participants to answer the first question. Then, allow two minutes for partners to respond to the remaining questions. Use **Presenter Resource 4** to go over possible responses to the questions.*

Discussing this poem with students would be much different from discussing the next three texts. Let's look at historical texts first.

References

Fang, 2012; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012; Shanahan et al., 2011

Discipline-Specific Analysis: History



- Technical terms are used to describe events or groups or to give a specific perspective on an action or event (e.g., *the Enlightenment*).
- Text structure relates narrative aspects to the author's argument.
- Critical analysis is inherent to effective reading.
- Consideration of author and context is often crucial, especially when reading primary or secondary sources.



Slide 49—Discipline-Specific Analysis: History (2:45:30–2:50:30)

Historical texts have their own types of technical terms. They're often metaphorical terms used to represent groups, actions, or events. Examples include *the Enlightenment*, *the Great Depression*, and *the Emancipation Proclamation*.

When reading historical texts, expert readers use the text's structure to better understand what the author is explaining or arguing. In elementary school, most historical texts that students read are explanations of events, periods, historical figures, or groups of people. However, elementary students may also read primary or secondary sources.

Primary sources include documents, speeches, letters, or other texts that provide firsthand evidence of what was happening or what was said. The Declaration of Independence and Martin Luther King's "I Have a Dream" speech are examples of primary sources.

Notes continue on the next page.

Secondary sources describe, examine, or evaluate primary sources. They are usually written by experts who provide their perspective on history and how these sources fit into their interpretation of it.

When reading a primary or especially a secondary source, consideration of its author and the context for its creation is crucial. Students must learn to be critical readers and examine sources for point of view, bias, and authenticity.

Let's return to Handouts 17 and 19.

Pause for participants to find the handouts.

The historical explanation in Handout 17 is a secondary source, so critical analysis and consideration of author and context are necessary. We can also examine the text for technical terms and structure.

Activity

Work with a partner to answer the questions in Handout 19 in the Historical Explanation section.

Allow two minutes for participants to respond to the questions. Use Presenter Resource 4 to go over possible responses.

Now, let's look at science texts.

References

Fang, 2012; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012; Shanahan et al., 2011; Stahl & Shanahan, 2004

Discipline-Specific Analysis: Science



- Technical language includes morphological derivations (e.g., nominalizations), use of passive voice, and abstract causation (as opposed to human causation in literary or history texts).
- Integration of text with graphics is often important.
- Text structure is used to support understanding and find information.
- Consideration of author and context is not usually important.



Slide 50—Discipline-Specific Analysis: Science (2:50:30–2:55:30)

Often, teachers think that science texts are too difficult for students to read. Additionally, we may think that reading and writing aren't as important in science fields. However, when interviewed, scientists say that a majority of their time is spent in literacy activities. In fact, one scientist said that he spent 99 percent of his time reading and writing!

Science texts often seem to have a language all their own. Knowledge of Greek and Latin word structures is helpful when reading scientific reports, explanations, and procedural texts. Nominalization, or changing a verb or adjective into a noun, is especially common in science texts. Other linguistic patterns like the use of passive voice and abstract causation create problems for many readers.

Abstract causation refers to the common practice of having a process or idea performing an action or making things happen. For example, a science text might say, "The process of condensation causes clouds to form." In this

Notes continue on the next page.

example, condensation is the actor. Note how abstract causation also connects to nominalization—changing the verb *condense* into the noun *condensation*. This language differs from literary or historical texts, in which humans usually act or cause events.

Also common in science texts are graphic elements. Expert readers consistently integrate the text with these graphics. They go back and forth between the text and diagrams, charts, and graphs to build a mental model of the information. They also use text structure to find specific information and connect it to prior knowledge.

Let's return to Handouts 17 and 19.

Pause for participants to find the handouts.

The scientific description in Handout 17 does not have graphic elements. However, we can examine the text for technical terms and structure.

Activity

Work with a partner to answer the questions in Handout 19 in the Scientific Description section.

Allow two minutes for participants to respond to the questions. Use Presenter Resource 4 to go over possible responses.

Now, let's look at texts in one last discipline, mathematics.

References

Fang, 2012; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012; Shanahan et al., 2011

Discipline-Specific Analysis: Mathematics



- Understanding of precise mathematical definitions of vocabulary is crucial.
- Integration of text with graphic elements, equations, and other mathematical elements is important.
- Text structure is used to support understanding and find information.
- Extensive rereading is often necessary to ensure identification and correction of errors.
- Consideration of author and context is not necessary.



Slide 51—Discipline-Specific Analysis: Mathematics

(2:55:30–3:03:00)

Crucial to understanding math texts is knowledge of the precise definitions of mathematical terms. Of course, sometimes, this is made more difficult due to many math terms having multiple meanings—one meaning in math and other meanings in other contexts. *Prime* is an excellent example. It has a specific meaning in math, but in other contexts, it can mean “major,” “top,” “key,” or “best.” If you are given a list of numbers and asked which is a prime, you have to know the mathematical meaning. Knowing these other meanings will not help you.

Similar to science reading, integrating the text with pictures, equations, symbols, and other graphic or numeric elements is critical to effectively reading mathematical texts. Expert readers go back and forth between the words and these other kinds of elements. They also use a text’s structure to find specific pieces of information.

Notes continue on the next page.

Research also demonstrates the importance of rereading in this discipline. Expert readers reread sections of texts multiple times to identify and correct errors in comprehension and to ensure precision and accuracy.

Let's return one more time to Handouts 17 and 19.

Pause for participants to find the handouts.

Rather than having a mathematical text to explain or describe a mathematical process or skill, Handout 17 shows two examples of word problems, which are central to math instruction and assessment. We can use what we've learned to examine the problems' terminology and the importance of graphic elements and rereading when solving these problems.

Activity

Work with a partner to answer the questions in Handout 19 in the Mathematics: Word Problems section.

Allow three minutes for participants to respond to the questions. Use Presenter Resource 4 to go over possible responses.

Some research demonstrates that reading word problems involves a specific type of comprehension that needs to be taught explicitly and modeled. As with any type of text, students need to see what an expert does to make sense of it and build a mental model. Within mathematical word problems, the mental model often includes an equation to solve.

As can be seen, whether it's in English language arts or mathematics, active reading to build a schema is key. Different texts and different purposes for reading those texts, though, affect the processes and strategies necessary for successful reading and learning across the disciplines.

References

Fang, 2012; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Fuchs, Fuchs, Compton, Hamlett, & Wang, 2015; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013; Shanahan, 2004; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, 2012; Shanahan et al., 2011

Planning Comprehension Instruction: Consider Text Complexity

- What is my instructional purpose for having students read the text?
- How will the text be used (e.g., for modeling, in cooperative groups, as independent reading)?
- What are the text's quantitative and qualitative characteristics?
- How do the text's characteristics fit with my students' instructional needs?

Online Quantitative Indices

Lexile Scale: www.lexile.com

Coh-Metrix tool: www.cohmetrix.com



Slide 52—Planning Comprehension Instruction: Consider Text Complexity

(3:03:00–3:04:30)

Throughout this session, we have examined and practiced applying comprehension information with many different texts—both literary and informational. Effective comprehension instruction and practice depend on high-quality texts—whether you teach within a disciplinary literacy framework, a comprehension strategies framework, or a combination of the two. How do you choose these texts?

This slide provides a few general questions to consider. Of course, we should consider our instructional purpose. We should also think about how much support students will receive as they read the text. How much scaffolding will we provide? Will we use the text in teacher-led whole-group or small-group instruction, or will students read it on their own in cooperative groups, pairs, or independently?

We can also examine a text's complexity and consider how it matches our instructional purpose and students' instructional needs. Quantitative measures

Notes continue on the next page.

of complexity can be found online and include indices such as the Lexile Scale and the Coh-Metrix tool. To get a more complete picture of a text's complexity, however, we should also examine qualitative aspects of a text's complexity.

Let's examine two tools to help you consider a text's qualitative complexity.

References

Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2016; Graesser, McNamara, & Louwerse, 2011; Landauer, McNamara, Dennis, & Kinstch, 2007

Examining Qualitative Complexity: Literary Versus Informational Texts



Consider levels of meaning, structural elements, language aspects, and knowledge demands.

Literary Texts

- Figurative language
- Narration
- Standard English and variations
- Cultural knowledge

Informational Texts

- Analogies or abstract comparisons
- Language level
- Voice



Slide 53—Examining Qualitative Complexity: Literary Versus Informational Texts (3:04:30–3:18:00)

Qualitative complexity includes textual properties such as levels of meaning, structural elements, language aspects, and knowledge demands. Literary complexity incorporates specific textual features such as figurative language and narration. Informational complexity includes attributes like language level and voice.

Locate **Handout 20: Analyzing Text Complexity**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides descriptions of these textual factors to consider along with rubrics for examining them in both literary texts and informational texts. Take a moment to look over the handout. Then, we'll practice using the rubrics to examine two sample texts.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

*Provide two minutes for participants to look over the handout. As participants work, place the **Activity Resource** on the document camera.*

Locate the excerpt from *Holes* that you flagged earlier on page 4 of Handout 4.

Pause for participants to locate the page.

Now, working with a partner, use the literary text rubric on pages 2 through 4 of Handout 20 to analyze the qualitative properties of the first chapter of *Holes* in Handout 4. You have five minutes.

Allow five minutes for participants to work. Have a few participants share their thinking about the qualitative complexity of the text and using this process to examine it.

Let's use the informational text rubric to analyze a different text. On pages 9 and 10 of Handout 20, you will see a science text with some illustrations. Work with your partner to analyze this text and its illustrations using the informational text rubric in the handout. You have five minutes.

Allow five minutes for participants to work. Have a few participants share their thinking about the qualitative complexity of the text and using this process to examine it.

Which one was easier to analyze? Raise your hand if you think the literary text was easier to examine?

Pause for participants to raise their hands. Have a few of those raising their hands share their thinking.

How many of you think the informational text was easier to examine?

Pause for participants to raise their hands. Have a few of those raising their hands share their thinking.

No matter the type of text or how it will be used, doing this kind of analysis provides valuable information for instructional planning.

Reference

Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2016

Pros and Cons: Comprehension Strategies Versus Disciplinary Literacy



Synthesize your thinking about the two comprehension instructional frameworks.

- Create a pros and cons list for teaching within a comprehension strategies framework.
- Create a pros and cons list for teaching within a disciplinary literacy framework.



Slide 54—Pros and Cons: Comprehension Strategies Versus Disciplinary Literacy (3:18:00–3:27:00)

Activity

Let's take a moment to reflect on what we have learned about the comprehension strategies framework and disciplinary literacy framework. Think about the positive and negative aspects of working within each of these frameworks.

Pause for participants to think.

At your tables, you have two sheets of chart paper. Work with your tablemates to create a pros and cons list for teaching within the comprehension strategies framework on one sheet of chart paper. Then, use the other sheet to create a pros and cons list for teaching within the disciplinary literacy framework. When you finish, post your charts on the wall. You have eight minutes.

Allow eight minutes for participants to work. If time permits, allow participants to do a “gallery walk” to examine the lists.

Systematic Comprehension Instruction



- Build students' background knowledge.
- Provide instruction and practice in making different kinds of inferences.
- Explicitly teach and have students practice applying comprehension strategies.
- Teach and have students practice disciplinary literacy within each content area.



Slide 55—Systematic Comprehension Instruction (3:27:00–3:38:30)

The slide summarizes what we have discussed during this session related to systematic comprehension instruction. Locate **Handout 21: Systematic Instruction: Comprehension Checklist**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Like ones we have used in previous sections, the checklist has grouping formats, explicit instructional components, and materials used for teaching comprehension. In the third row, you will see the instructional methods and strategies that we have discussed throughout this session. We will use the checklist to examine a comprehension lesson.

In a moment, I will play a video. As you watch it, mark the boxes for the different instructional elements you see. Also, make additional notes in the Comments column.

Video: Using an Anticipation-Reaction Guide

Play the video.

Now, compare your markings and notes with your tablemates. I will give you three minutes to discuss.

Provide three minutes for participants to work.

Notice that the teacher in the video used a modified version of the anticipation-reaction guide that we provided earlier in this section.

Additionally, did you hear what she said at the very end of the video? She told the students that they would use their guides to write a persuasive essay. How do you think she will use the completed anticipation-reaction guide within a persuasive writing lesson? Discuss this question for a moment with your partner.

Provide one minute for participants to discuss their thinking. Then, have a few participants share their ideas.

References

Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Hirsch, 2003, 2006; Keene & Zimmerman, 2007; Kosanovich et al., 2010; Moats, 2010; National Institute for Literacy, 2001; National Reading Panel, 2000; Oakhill et al., 2015; Paris & Stahl, 2005; Pressley, 2006; Roberts, Fletcher, Stuebing, Barth, & Vaughn, 2013; Shanahan et al., 2010; Van Keer, 2004; Willingham, 2006

Scaffolds for Comprehension

- Use effective questioning to scaffold thinking.
- Complete graphic organizers during and after reading.
- Model using text structure to build meaning.
- Explicitly teach making connections within and across sentences.
- Use think-alouds to model comprehension techniques and strategies.
- Break down strategies into manageable steps.



Slide 56—Scaffolds for Comprehension

(3:38:30–3:39:00)

Take a moment to read the comprehension scaffolds listed on the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Throughout this session, we have provided lessons and instructional strategies that incorporate these scaffolds to support all learners in developing effective comprehension skills. Such instructional techniques enable all readers, including English language learners and students with reading disabilities, to develop effective reasoning and thinking to understand increasingly complex texts.

References

Beers, 2003; Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Clarke et al., 2014; Coyne et al., 2007; Klingner et al., 2012; Lapp et al., 2008; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; National Reading Panel, 2000; Oakhill et al., 2015; Pressley, 2006; Shanahan et al., 2010; Willingham, 2006

Consider Diversity: English Language Learners



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



Slide 57—Consider Diversity: English Language Learners (3:39:00–3:41:30)

Reading comprehension instruction is a dual-language opportunity for English language learners. Through linguistically accommodated comprehension instruction, English language learners can learn to derive meaning from texts and develop their dual-language skills when discussing texts.

Consider students' different levels of English proficiency and the importance of prior knowledge by identifying and explaining unfamiliar terms and topics. Explicitly teach and model strategies through carefully crafted think-alouds and monitor English language learners' understanding of skills and texts.

Locate and read **Handout 22: English Language Learners and Reading Comprehension Instruction**. Mark the ideas you plan to use in your instruction.

Provide two minutes for participants to review the handout and mark ideas.

References

August & Shanahan, 2006; Dreher & Gray, 2006; Francis et al., 2006; Garcia, 2000; Gersten et al., 2007; Goldenberg, 2013; Hickman et al., 2004; Linan-Thompson & Vaughn, 2007; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Roit, 2006; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004

Assessing Comprehension



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



Slide 58—Assessing Comprehension

(3:41:30–3:43:30)

There are many methods for assessing comprehension, including retell measures, cloze or maze assessments, multiple-choice questions, and open-ended response questions that students answer orally or in writing. **Handout 23: Examples of Formal Comprehension Assessments** provides examples of these more formal types of comprehension assessments.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Place your copy of the handout on the document camera.

Take a moment to compare the multiple-choice questions with their open-ended versions.

Pause for participants to compare the questions.

You can also use informal comprehension assessments like listening to student discussions of texts and examining their responses when filling out graphic organizers, inference charts, and anticipation-reaction guides. Also, using pinch

papers, as we did in the Vocabulary session, engages students in additional practice that gives you information about their comprehension.

Let's use pinch papers to check your comprehension of what we have discussed during this session.

Model the following.

Fold a sheet of paper in half and write the word *True* on the top of both sides and write *False* on the bottom of both sides.

Model and pause for participants to create their pinch papers.

I will say a sentence. If it is true, pinch *True*. If it is false, pinch *False*.

Sentence 1: Graphic organizers can be used to teach both text structures and comprehension strategies.

(True)

Sentence 2: During comprehension strategy instruction, you should spend more time teaching the strategy and less time having students apply the strategy.

(False)

Sentence 3: Research shows that building background knowledge is one of the most effective ways to improve comprehension.

(True)

When using this instructional technique, I can look around the room and note who hesitated with their pinching and may need additional instruction.

References

Farrall, 2012; Good & Kaminski, 2011; Lipson, 1996

Taking a Closer Look



- Examine the comprehension lesson in Handout 24.
- Work with your tablemates to complete Handout 25.



Slide 59—Taking a Closer Look

(3:43:30–3:50:30)

To synthesize this information, we will look at an explicit, systematic comprehension lesson. Locate **Handout 24: Sample Comprehension Lesson**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

In this handout is a lesson related to a comprehension strategy we have discussed. In the lesson, students are taught to ask and answer questions at three different levels.

Activity

Now, locate **Handout 25: Taking a Closer Look**. Working with your tablemates, complete the chart with examples from the lesson in Handout 24. You have six minutes.

Allow six minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the six minutes, have participants share their thoughts about the lesson and how it incorporates each of the features.

Remember

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

— Carlisle & Rice, 2002, p. 6



Slide 60—Remember

(3:50:30–3:51:00)

Take a moment to read the quotation on the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

We have reviewed many procedures and strategies for teaching and developing reading comprehension, but this is not enough. It is up to you to take this information back to your classroom and create a comprehensive plan for teaching comprehension. Only then will you be able to effectively map out goals, units, and lessons to support your students’ specific needs.

Let’s take the first step by summarizing what you have learned during this section.

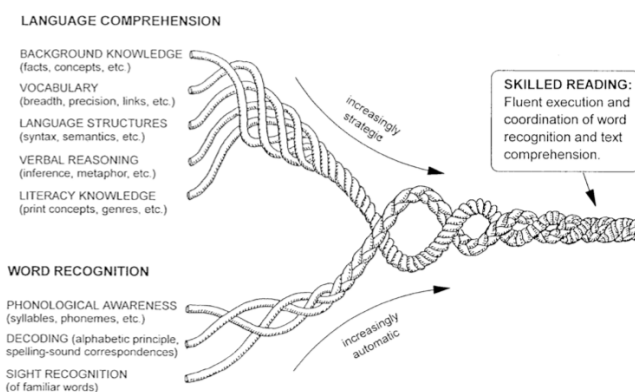
Reference

Carlisle & Rice, 2002, p. 6

The Reading Rope



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



Scarborough, 2001



Slide 61—The Reading Rope

(3:51:00–3:55:00)

Activity

Locate Handout 1: The Reading Rope and the reading rope model from your folder, three pink pipe cleaners from your table, and three adhesive tabs from your supply pouch.

Show these materials on the document camera as participants locate them.

Each pink pipe cleaner represents one strand of the skills needed for students to be proficient in language comprehension. Use the adhesive tabs to label three pink pipe cleaners “background knowledge,” “verbal reasoning,” and “literacy knowledge.”

On the document camera, model how to label the tabs.

Next, twist the pipe cleaners together with your previous two pink vocabulary and language structure pipe cleaners to represent the complete language

comprehension strand depicted in the reading rope model. While you weave, discuss with your table the guiding question on the slide.

Provide two minutes for participants to work and discuss.

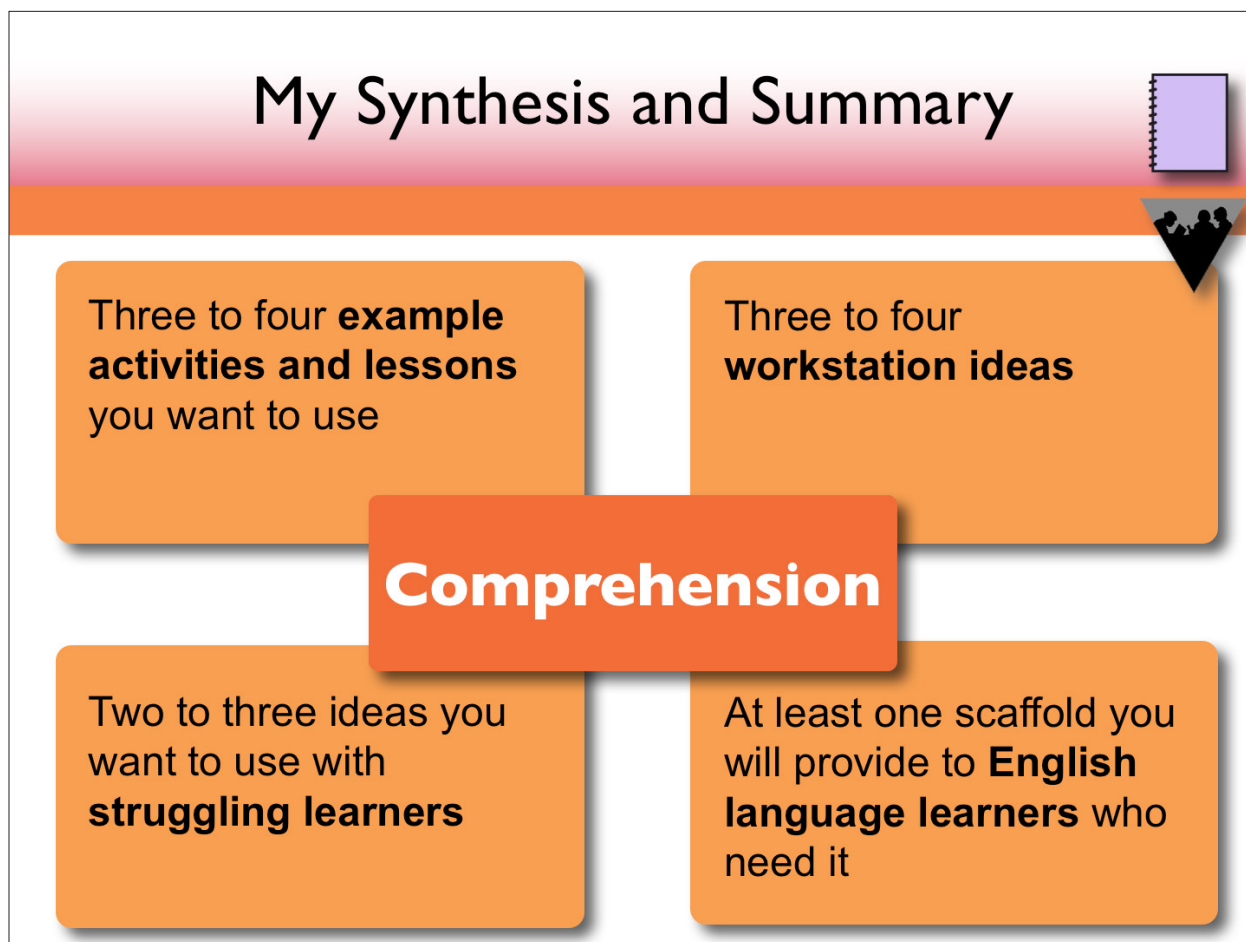
Now, please take your pink pipe cleaners representing the language comprehension strand and your green pipe cleaners representing the word recognition strand and twist them together to form your reading rope. When you are finished, please place your reading rope handout and model back into your folder.

Provide one minute for participants to complete their reading rope.

Now that you have had time to reflect, let's see how our new learning can be applied to our daily instruction.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001



Slide 62—My Synthesis and Summary

(3:55:00–4:00:00)

To conclude this section, we will synthesize what we have learned and what it means for comprehension within our literacy block. Take out the Grade 4 Literacy Block and the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide from your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the resources.

As with the other sections, we will use these two documents to summarize what we have learned and how we can apply it to our literacy instruction when we get back to our classroom. On the Grade 4 Literacy Block handout, we will complete the row for Comprehension.

Display Presenter Resource 5 on the document camera.

Activity

Here is a model showing how I completed the Literacy Block document for this section.

Review the example on the presenter resource as needed.

When filling out the last column related to English language learners, you may refer to your English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide. Please take four minutes to fill out all four columns for this section.

Allow four minutes for participants to work.


Please place your Literacy Block and English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide back in your folder to use again in the next section.

We have finished the Comprehension section and the second day of the academy!



Comprehension

Handouts

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black lead tip, positioned horizontally behind the word "READING".
READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Scavenger Hunt

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

1. In fourth grade, which type of transition words are students expected to develop an understanding of when reading? Can you list examples?
2. In relation to sensory language, what is the difference between what third-graders are expected to do and what fourth-graders are expected to do?
3. In what grade are students expected to distinguish fact from opinion?
4. In which grade are students expected to begin summarizing texts?
5. Between what kinds of texts are students expected to make connections starting in third grade?
6. In which grade are students expected to begin making inferences?
7. Which specific strategies for monitoring and adjusting comprehension are mentioned in the TEKS?
8. In fourth grade, which type of techniques used in media are students expected to explain the positive and negative effects of?




Adapted from Texas Education Agency, 2009.

Planning Within a Theme

THEME OR TOPIC: Nature's Cycles and Patterns			
Literary			
Folktales, Fables, Myths, Fairy Tales, Legends	Fiction	Poetry	Drama
<i>Why the Sun and the Moon Live in the Sky</i> by Elphinstone Dayrell <i>Thirteen Moons on Turtle's Back: A Native American Year of Moons</i> by Joseph Bruchac and Jonathan London	<i>The Snowflake: A Water Cycle Story</i> by Neil Weldman <i>The Girl Who Drank the Moon</i> by Kelly Barnhill <i>Come on, Rain!</i> by Karen Hesse	<i>A Drop Around the World</i> by Barbara Shaw McKinney <i>Water Dance</i> by Thomas Locker	<i>Water Cycle Adventure</i> from EnchantedLearning.com
Informational			
Expository	Procedural	Persuasive	Other
<i>The Moon Book</i> by Gail Gibbons <i>The Reasons for Seasons</i> by Gail Gibbons <i>Mysterious Patterns: Finding Fractals in Nature</i> by Sarah C. Campbell "The Extreme Costs of Extreme Weather" by Eliana Rodriguez "Water: A Portable Potable" by Raj Embry	How to Read a Diagram	"What's the Big Idea About Water? Protecting Our Water" from ReadWorks.org	<i>Snowflake Bentley</i> by Jacqueline Briggs Martin

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

Making Connections Across Texts

<p>“Water: A Portable Potable”</p>	<p><i>A Drop Around the World</i></p>	<p>“What’s the Big Idea About Water? Protecting Our Water”</p>
		
<p>Most Important Ideas</p>		

Planeando utilizando un tema

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

Anticipation-Reaction Guide

Before reading: Think about whether you agree with each statement written below. Tell why or why not.

During reading: Look for evidence that supports or presents a counterargument for each statement. Write your evidence in the Evidence column and record the page number where you found it.

Statement	Reader's Opinion	Evidence	Page	Discussion	Reader's Conclusion

After reading: Discuss how the evidence relates to your opinion. Using the text evidence, state your conclusion about the statement.

Anticipation-Reaction Guide (Example)

Before reading: Think about whether you agree with each statement written below. Tell why or why not.

During reading: Look for evidence that supports or presents a counterargument for each statement. Write your evidence in the Evidence column and record the page number where you found it.

Statement	Reader's Opinion	Evidence	Page	Discussion	Reader's Conclusion
You should never judge someone by his or her outward appearance.					

After reading: Discuss how the evidence relates to your opinion. Using the text evidence, state your conclusion about the statement.

Adapted from Beers, 2003; Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin, 2009.

Guía de anticipación y reacción

Antes de la lectura: Piensa y decide si estás de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con cada declaración. Explica tus razones.

Durante la lectura: Busca evidencia que apoye o presente un contra argumento para cada declaración. Escribe tu evidencia en la columna “Evidencia” y escribe el número de página donde la encuentraste.

Declaración	Opinión del lector	Evidencia	Página	Discusión	Conclusión del lector

Después de la lectura: Discute cómo la evidencia se relaciona a tu opinión. Usando evidencia del texto, escribe tu conclusión sobre la declaración.

Modeling Effective Questioning and Considering the Author's Intentions

Excerpt From *Chicken Sunday* by Patricia Polacco

Stewart and Winston were my neighbors. They were my brothers by a solemn ceremony we had performed in their backyard one summer. They weren't the same religion as I was. They were Baptists. Their grandma, Eula Mae Walker, was my grandma now. My babushka had died two summers before. (1)

Sometimes my mother let me go to church on Sunday with them. How we loved to hear Miss Eula sing. She had a voice like slow thunder and sweet rain. (2)

We'd walk to church and back. She'd take my hand as we crossed College Avenue. "Even though we've been churchin' up like decent folks ought to," she'd say, "I don't want you to step in front of one of those too fast cars. You'll be as flat as a hen's tongue." She squeezed my hand.

When we passed Mr. Kodinski's hat shop, Miss Eula would always stop and look in the window at the wonderful hats. Then she'd sigh and we'd walk on. (3)

We called those Sundays "Chicken Sundays" because Miss Eula almost always fried chicken for dinner. There'd be collard greens with bacon, a big pot of hoppin' john, corn on the cob, and fried spoon bread.

On Sunday at the table we watched her paper fan flutter back and forth, pulling moist chicken-fried air along with it. She took a deep breath. Her skin glowed as she smiled. Then she told us something we already knew. "That Easter bonnet in Mr. Kodinski's window is the most beautiful I ever did see," she said thoughtfully.

The three of us exchanged looks. We wanted to get her that hat more than anything in the world. (4)

Stewart reached into the hole in the trunk of our "wish tree" in the backyard. He pulled out a rusty Band-Aid tin. The three of us held our breath as we counted the money inside that we had been saving for weeks.

"If we are going to get that hat for Miss Eula in time for Easter, we are going to need a lot more than this," I announced.

"Maybe we should ask Mr. Kodinski if we could sweep up his shop or something to earn the rest of the money," Stewart said.

"I don't know," Winnie said fearfully. "He's such a strange old man. He never smiles at anyone. He always looks so mean!" We all agreed that it was worth a try anyway. (5)

Source: Polacco, P. (1992). *Chicken Sunday*. New York, NY: Putnam & Grosset Group.

Notes on Teaching Comprehension With *Chicken Sunday* Excerpt

Level 2 vocabulary to teach

Level 2 for explicit instruction: “solemn ceremony,” “bonnet,” “exchanged looks”

Other vocabulary to explain as needed: “babushka,” “decent folks,” “hoppin’ john,” “spoon bread,” “paper fan,” “thoughtfully”

Background knowledge to develop

Russia, Ukraine, Poland: Use a map to show where these places are.

culture: Discuss the meaning of this word and share examples from the United States and other countries. Have students share elements of their own cultures.

Thinking processes to teach

Asking questions to fill in gaps: This text has several places where the reader has to make inferences to fill in gaps.

Examining theme: Themes that can be taught with this text include the importance of culture and traditions and not judging a book by its cover.

Considering point of view: The story is told in first person. Discuss how this point of view enhances the story.

Understanding literary elements: Simile

Places to stop and ask questions

In the text, write a 1 next to the first place you would stop to query students. Then, write a 2 in the next place, a 3 in the next place, etc.

Below, write the initial questions you would ask to get students thinking deeply about the text and the preferred student response.

Questions to get students thinking deeply about the text

1. The author says that Stewart and Winston were her “brothers by a solemn ceremony” and that their grandma was her grandma. Why does she describe them this way?

Student response: She thinks of them like family. They’re more than just her neighbors and friends. She and the boys formalized this close relationship by having some kind of serious ritual—like when someone talks about being “blood brothers.”

2. Why does the author compare Miss Eula’s voice to “slow thunder and sweet rain”? How do you think Miss Eula’s voice makes the author feel?

Student response: She uses this simile to help you imagine what Miss Eula sounded like when she sang. Maybe she had a deep voice that was soothing. “Sweet rain” makes me think the author felt calm and happy when she heard Miss Eula sing.

3. Why did Miss Eula sigh after they looked in the window at the hats?

Student response: She probably likes the hats a lot and maybe even wishes she could buy one of them.

4. Why did the three children exchange looks?

Student response: It's like they're communicating with each other without saying anything. Their looks are saying, "We need to get Miss Eula that hat."

5. What do the children think about Mr. Kodinski? Do you think judging him by his outward appearance is a good idea? Why or why not?

Student response: They think he's mean because he doesn't smile. They think he's strange just because of how he looks. It's not a good idea to judge people by their appearance. This is what is meant by "never judge a book by its cover."

Chapter 1 From *Holes* by Louis Sachar

There is no lake at Camp Green Lake. There once was a very large lake here, the largest lake in Texas. That was over a hundred years ago. Now it is just a dry, flat wasteland.

There used to be a town of Green Lake as well. The town shriveled and dried up along with the lake, and the people who lived there.

During the summer the daytime temperature hovers around ninety-five degrees in the shade—if you can find any shade. There's not much shade in a big dry lake. (1)

The only trees are two old oaks on the eastern edge of the “lake.” A hammock is stretched between the two trees, and a log cabin stands behind that.

The campers are forbidden to lie in the hammock. It belongs to the Warden. The Warden owns the shade. (2)

Out on the lake, rattlesnakes and scorpions find shade under rocks and in the holes dug by the campers.

Here's a good rule to remember about rattlesnakes and scorpions: If you don't bother them, they won't bother you.

Usually.

Being bitten by a scorpion or even a rattlesnake is not the worst thing that can happen to you. You won't die.

Usually.

Sometimes a camper will try to be bitten by a scorpion, or even a small rattlesnake. Then he will get to spend a day or two recovering in his tent, instead of having to dig a hole out on the lake. (3)

But you don't want to be bitten by a yellow-spotted lizard. That's the worst thing that can happen to you. You will die a slow and painful death.

Always.

If you get bitten by a yellow-spotted lizard, you might as well go into the shade of the oak trees and lie in the hammock.

There is nothing anyone can do to you anymore. (4)

Source: Sachar, L. (1998). *Holes*. New York, NY: Random House Children's Books.

Notes on Teaching Comprehension With *Holes* Excerpt

Level 2 vocabulary to teach

Level 2 for explicit instruction: “shriveled,” “forbidden,” “warden”

Other vocabulary to explain as needed: “hammock”

Background knowledge to develop

None

Thinking processes to teach

Asking questions to fill in gaps: This text has several places where the reader has to make inferences to fill in gaps.

Point of view and character analysis: This is an example of how important setting is to the plot, the character motivation, and character relationships.

Creating sensory images: The author provides a lot of details that help the reader create mental images.

Places to stop and ask questions

In the text, write a 1 next to the first place you would stop to query students. Then, write a 2 in the next place, a 3 in the next place, etc.

Below, write the initial questions you would ask to get students thinking deeply about the text and the preferred student response.

Questions to get students thinking deeply about the text

1. What does the author mean by “ninety-five degrees in the shade”? Why has he started his book with this description?

Student response: That means it’s even hotter when you’re not in the shade. Ninety-five degrees is already hot, so it must be miserable when you’re not in the shade. These paragraphs have given us a good picture of the setting—scorching hot, desolate, and barren.

2. What does “the Warden owns the shade” tell us about him? How can someone “own the shade”?

Student response: He is in charge. In fact, he’s so in charge that he even owns something that you technically can’t own—the shade. It almost makes him sound like a god.

3. What does this paragraph tell you about digging holes on the lake? What does it make you think about being a camper?

Student response: It’s a horrible thing to have to do. It’s so bad that it’s even worse than getting bitten by a scorpion or rattlesnake and getting sick. It makes me think that being a camper is an awful thing. This doesn’t sound like a very fun camp.

4. It says that if you get bitten by a yellow-spotted lizard, you will die and “might as well go into the shade of the oak trees and lie in the hammock.” What does this mean? What does it tell you about the Warden?

Student response: It implies that both of these things—getting bitten by a yellow-spotted lizard and going into the shade and lying in the hammock—will kill you. Because the shade and the hammock belong to the Warden, he must be the one who will kill you. He must be a terrible person if he’s willing to kill someone for these things.

“Shasta Dam” by James Folta

ReadWorks

Shasta Dam

Shasta Dam James Folta



Shasta Dam is one of the largest dams in the United States. The dam is 602 feet tall and 883 feet thick at its base. Located in Northern California, it blocks the flow of California's biggest river, the Sacramento River. This dam forms a big lake behind it, Lake Shasta, which has a 365-mile-long shore line.

The dam's main use is to provide water for farms in California's Central Valley. The Central Valley is 400 miles long, and grows over 250 different types of fruits and vegetables. The dam protects farms from floods, and it helps to prevent a buildup of salt water from San Francisco Bay. It also provides water for people in nearby towns to drink and use. It has a hydroelectric power plant that creates electricity. (1)

Shasta Dam isn't the only dam in the area. It is just one part of the Central Valley Project, a huge system of dams and reservoirs that provides water to the farms in the Central Valley. This water system was initially conceived of in the 1870s, after people moved to the area in the 1850s. People flocked to California because of the gold rush, hoping to get rich by mining for gold. While most people didn't strike it rich, many ended up staying in the area and farming. But the valley has contrasting rain patterns. In the north, there is more than 30 inches of rain per year, while the south gets less than 5 inches. There are also droughts, when almost no rain falls at all. Additionally, the Central Valley is at a risk to be flooded due to spring rain and infiltrated by saline water coming from the bay. Since farms need water to grow plants, the farmers needed a better, more reliable way to get water. This is why the Central Valley dams were built. (2)

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ReadWorksShasta Dam

Shasta Dam took many years to build, starting in 1937 and ending in 1945. Many thousands of workers helped build it. In fact, there was so much work to be done that building contractors had to join together in groups to finish it.

The first step was to have 4,700 men dig out millions of tons of granite to make room for the dam. An almost 10-mile conveyor belt ran 24 hours a day to move the rocks away. Next, a railroad brought in dry cement. It was mixed with Sacramento River water, rock, and sand to make wet cement. Before it dried, the workers had to quickly rush the cement to the dam using a custom-built cable system. Once there, the cement was poured into interlocking wooden structures to form the large blocks that make up the dam. After two days, the cement was dry and the wooden structures were broken down and taken away, leaving the dried cement blocks. ③

Overall, the dam has been a positive addition to the Central Valley, allowing people and farms to thrive. But there are also drawbacks to the dam. The biggest loss is what is now buried under Lake Shasta. When the dam was built, Native American villages and sacred places belonging to the Winnemem Wintu tribe were flooded, and the people who lived there were forced to move. Local salmon were also affected. Because of changes in the Sacramento River from the dam, the salmon have had a harder time living, traveling, and breeding in the river. Fortunately, the dam has a water temperature control system to help the salmon survive. ④

Shasta Dam is an extremely impressive structure, and is the result of hard work by many people. The dam allows many more people to live and work in the area today. The Central Valley of California would not be the same without it.

Notes on Teaching Comprehension With “Shasta Dam”

Level 2 vocabulary to teach

Level 2 for explicit instruction: “dam,” “hydroelectric power,” “reservoir,” “reliable”

Other vocabulary to explain as needed: “conceived,” “flocked,” “strike it rich,” “contrasting,” “infiltrated,” “saline,” “conveyor belt,” “interlocking,” “thrive”

Background knowledge to develop

Measurements of dam: Ensure the students understand in relative terms how big the dam is.

California geography: Use a map to show Central Valley area and other regions in the state.

Social studies connection: If studying Great Depression and New Deal, discuss how the dam project related to this time period.

Science connections: Human intervention to overcome nature (i.e., weather and flood patterns), human impact on the environment, renewable energy

Thinking processes to teach

Considering author’s intentions: The author intentionally provides specific kinds of information about Shasta Dam.

Using text structure: This text can be used to model the importance of text structure. Here’s the text’s organization: the dam’s description and location, its benefits, why it was built, how it was built, its drawbacks, conclusion.

Summarizing: Students can practice breaking the selection into sections and summarizing each one.

Places to stop and ask questions

In the text, write a 1 next to the first place you would stop to query students. Then, write a 2 in the next place, a 3 in the next place, etc.

Below, write the initial questions you would ask to get students thinking deeply about the text and the preferred student response.

Questions to get students thinking deeply about the text

1. What does the author do in this paragraph?

Student response: The author lists the dam’s benefits, including providing water for farms, protecting farms from floods, preventing salt water from building up, providing drinking water, and creating electricity.

2. Why did the author include this paragraph?

Student response: This paragraph explains why the Shasta Dam was built—as part of a system of dams to ensure more reliable sources of water for farmers and others who moved into and live in California.

3. This and the previous paragraph have several numbers, including 4,700 men digging out millions of tons of granite and a 10-mile conveyor belt for moving rocks. Why did the author include this information in these two paragraphs?

Student response: These numbers and the other information in these two paragraphs show how difficult building the dam was due to its size.

4. Why did the author include this paragraph?

Student response: The author shows that in addition to benefits, building the dam had negative consequences. These include the Winnemem Wintu tribe losing their homes and land and the salmon struggling to survive in the river.

Read-Aloud Cycle

Preparation for Each Text

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

Before Reading

Repeat the routine daily until the text is complete.

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

During Reading

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

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

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

After Reading

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

Last Day for Each Text

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

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

Rutina para leer y discutir libros

Preparación para cada libro

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

Antes de la lectura

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

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

Durante la lectura

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

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

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

Después de la lectura

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

Ultimo día para cada texto

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

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Sample Read-Aloud Lesson

Title: *Jumanji*

Author: Chris Van Allsburg

Vocabulary and Stems	Questions	Example Gist	Lesson Closure
Chunk 1: pages 1–6			
<p><i>giggled with delight</i>: Laughed in a way that showed extreme happiness</p> <p><i>protested</i>: Went against what someone else said</p> <p><i>restless</i>: Feeling like you need to do something to change your situation</p> <p>I giggle with delight when ____.</p> <p>I protested when ____.</p> <p>I feel restless when ____.</p>	<p>Why do Judy and Peter giggle with delight when their parents leave?</p> <p>Why would the last set of game instructions be written in capital letters?</p>	<p>Judy and Peter are bored when left home alone. They go to the park and find a mysterious game with instructions saying that once they start the game, they must finish it.</p>	<p>How would you describe Judy? How would you describe Peter? What kinds of consequences might their behavior lead to?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>
Chunk 2: pages 7–12			
<p><i>casually</i>: Doing something without much thought or concern</p> <p><i>absolute horror</i>: Very strong feeling of fear, dread, and shock</p> <p><i>firmly</i>: In a way that shows you are sure about doing something</p> <p>Something that I do casually is ____.</p> <p>I felt absolute horror when ____.</p> <p>I acted firmly when ____.</p>	<p>Why does Peter say, “How exciting” in a “very unexcited voice”?</p> <p>Why does the book say that Peter sat “firmly” in the chair?</p>	<p>Peter acts like the game is boring until a lion shows up, which makes him want to stop playing. Judy convinces him that they must finish the game according to the instructions.</p>	<p>What do you think will happen next? What do you think Judy and Peter will encounter as they make their way through the jungle game?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>

Vocabulary and Stems	Questions	Example Gist	Lesson Closure
Chunk 3: pages 13–20			
<p><i>ignored:</i> Didn't listen or pay attention to</p> <p><i>guide:</i> Person who leads others on a journey</p> <p><i>charged:</i> Rushed forward like in an attack</p> <p>Sometimes, I ignore _____ because _____.</p> <p>A guide can help you at a _____.</p> <p>I saw _____ charge at _____.</p>	<p>Why does Peter say the monkeys in the kitchen would upset their mother more than the lion in the bedroom?</p> <p>Why is it good to land on a blank space in the game?</p>	<p>Judy and Peter continue playing the game, and various jungle creatures and other things continue to appear in their house.</p>	<p>How do you think this story will end? How do you think their experience with this game will affect Judy and Peter?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>
Chunk 4: pages 21–28			
<p><i>bolted:</i> Ran very quickly</p> <p><i>relief:</i> Relaxing feeling when something bad has stopped</p> <p><i>exhaustion:</i> Being really tired</p> <p>One time, I bolted when _____.</p> <p>I felt relief when _____.</p> <p>A time I felt exhaustion was when _____.</p>	<p>Of all the creatures and other happenings during the game, which one seemed to bother Judy the most? How do you know?</p> <p>Why do Judy and Peter put up their toys when they get back from taking the game to the park?</p>	<p>Judy wins the game, so their house goes back to normal, and they return the game to the park. The game teaches these children, and possibly others, to follow instructions.</p>	<p>If this story had a moral, what would it be? Why do Judy and Peter say, "I hope so" when Mrs. Budwing says her boys will learn to follow instructions? Could you write a <i>Jumanji 2</i>?</p> <p>Turn to your partner and tell him or her about it.</p> <p>Write about it in your reading response journal.</p>

Título: *Jumanji* **Autor:** Chris Van Allsburg

Vocabulario y principios de oraciones	Preguntas	Ejemplo de idea principal	Cierre de lección
Sección 1: páginas 1–6			
<p><i>se regodearon:</i> reírse mucho porque se disfruta de algo</p> <p><i>revolcaron:</i> echarse sobre algo y dar vueltas</p> <p><i>decepcionado:</i> sentirse triste porque algo no funcionó como se esperaba</p> <p>Yo me regodeé cuando ____.</p> <p>Mis amigos y yo nos revolcamos sobre ____.</p> <p>Me sentí decepcionado cuando ____.</p>	<p>¿Por qué Judy y Peter rien con gusto, se regodean cuando sus padres se van?</p> <p>¿Por qué están escritas con mayúsculas las últimas instrucciones del juego?</p>	<p>Judy y Peter se aburren cuando se quedan en casa solos. Van al parque y se encuentran un juego de mesa misterioso cuyas instrucciones dicen que una vez que empiezan a jugar tienen que jugar hasta que uno de los jugadores llegue a la ciudad dorada.</p>	<p>¿Cómo describirías a Judy? ¿Cómo describirías a Peter? ¿Qué clase de consecuencias podrían tener debido a su comportamiento?</p> <p>Voltea con tu pareja y discute esta idea.</p> <p>Escribe sobre esto en tu diario de reflexión sobre la lectura.</p>
Sección 2: páginas 7–12			
<p><i>desgano:</i> cuando no hay interés o ganas de hacer algo</p> <p><i>horror absoluto:</i> un sentimiento muy fuerte de miedo</p> <p><i>decididamente:</i> cuando estás muy seguro de algo</p> <p>Algo que hago con desgano es ____.</p> <p>Sentí un horror absoluto cuando ____.</p> <p>Actué decididamente cuando ____.</p>	<p>¿Por qué dice Peter “que emocionante” en una “voz no muy emocionante”?</p> <p>¿Por qué dice que Peter se sentó muy decididamente en la silla?</p>	<p>Al empezar a jugar el juego, Peter está aburrido hasta que un león se aparece en la casa y entonces quiere dejar de jugar. Judy lo convence a seguir jugando ya que tienen que terminar el juego de acuerdo a las instrucciones.</p>	<p>¿Qué crees que va a pasar después? ¿Qué tipos de animales o eventos crees que Judy y Peter van a ver en este juego?</p> <p>Voltea con tu pareja y discute esta idea.</p> <p>Escribe sobre esto en tu diario de reflexión sobre la lectura.</p>

Vocabulario y principios de oraciones	Preguntas	Ejemplo de idea principal	Cierre de lección
Sección 3: páginas 13–20			
<p><i>ignoraba</i>: sin escuchar o prestar atención</p> <p><i>explorador</i>: alguien que va de aventuras por la selva</p> <p><i>estampida</i>: cuando un grupo de animales o personas corren huyendo de algo</p> <p>Algunas veces ignoro a _____ porque _____.</p> <p>Un explorador te puede ayudar a _____.</p> <p>Vi una estampida de _____.</p>	<p>¿Por qué dice Peter que los monos en la cocina molestarían a su madre más que el león en la habitación?</p> <p>¿Por qué está bien llegar a un espacio en blanco en el juego?</p>	<p>Judy y Peter continuaban jugando el juego. Varias criaturas de la jungla aparecen y otros eventos siguen pasando en la casa mientras ellos juegan.</p>	<p>¿Cómo crees tú que la historia va a terminar? ¿Cómo crees que el jugar este juego va a afectar a Judy y a Peter?</p> <p>Voltea con tu pareja y discute esta idea.</p> <p>Escribe sobre esto en tu diario de reflexión sobre la lectura.</p>
Sección 4: páginas 21–28			
<p><i>como dos bólidos</i>: correr muy rápido</p> <p><i>alivio</i>: relajarse cuando algo malo ha terminado</p> <p><i>agotamiento</i>: cuando uno está muy cansado</p> <p>Una vez, yo corrí como un bólido cuando _____.</p> <p>Sentí alivio cuando _____.</p> <p>Sentí agotamiento cuando _____.</p>	<p>De todas las criaturas que aparecen y los eventos que pasan durante el juego, ¿cuál fue el que molestó más a Judy? ¿Cómo sabes esto?</p> <p>¿Por qué guardan sus juguetes Judy y Peter después de regresar el juego al parque?</p>	<p>Judy gana el juego y su casa regresa a la normalidad. Ellos regresan el juego al parque. El juego les enseña a los niños, y posiblemente a otros también, a seguir instrucciones.</p>	<p>Si esta historia tuviera una moraleja, ¿cuál sería? ¿Por qué dicen Judy y Peter, “Ojalá que sí”, cuando la Sra Budwing dice que ella espera que sus hijos aprendan a seguir instrucciones? ¿Podrías tú escribir un Jumanji 2?</p> <p>Voltea con tu pareja y discute esta idea.</p> <p>Escribe sobre esto en tu diario de reflexión sobre la lectura.</p>

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Making Connections With Text Evidence

Title:

Comprehension purpose question:

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

Making Connections With Text Evidence (Example)

Title: Chicken Sunday

Comprehension purpose question: What does it mean to be family?

Page	Statement		Text Clues	Background Knowledge
2-4	The author is showing that you don't have to be related by blood to be family. You can form familial bonds through your shared experiences with others outside of your family.	<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)	The text says, "They were my brothers by a solemn ceremony" and "Their grandma, Eula Mae Walker, was my grandma now." She goes on to describe traditions they share together.	<p>I know what it means to be "blood brothers."</p> <p>I have friends who I think of more as family because we are so close.</p> <p>My family also had "Sunday dinners," so I understand that tradition.</p>
4	The three children know one another so well that they don't have to say anything to know what they are thinking, especially when it comes to their love for Miss Eula.	<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)	The text says, "The three of us exchanged looks."	When you are close to someone, you often don't have to say anything to share your thinking or feelings. You can just look at someone you're close to, and that person knows what you're thinking.
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> In the text (direct) <input type="checkbox"/> In my head (inference)		

Source: Polacco, P. (1992). *Chicken Sunday*. New York, NY: Putnam & Grosset Group.

Haciendo conexiones con evidencia de los textos

Libro:

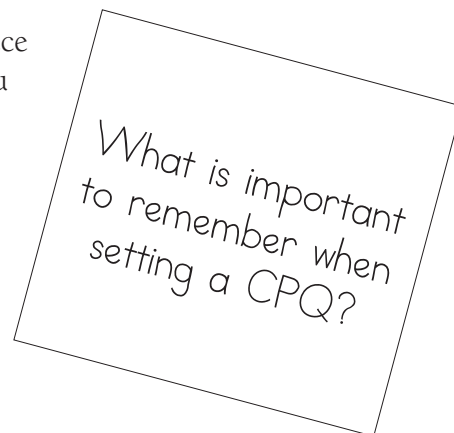
Propósito para la lectura:

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

Comprehension Purpose Questions

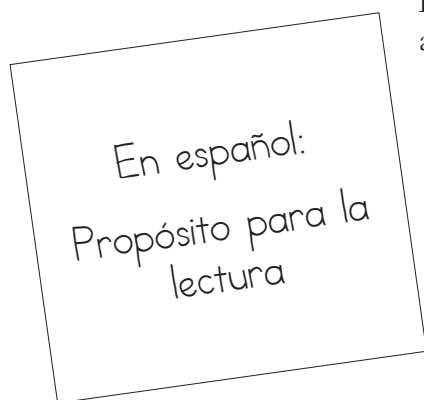
Critical to planning for comprehension instruction is setting a comprehension purpose before reading. To help students deepen and extend understanding, plan ahead and really think about the text before reading it to students or before they read it themselves.

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



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

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



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

Practice Identifying CPQs

The chart below contains a few questions related to the “Shasta Dam” text you read earlier. Read each question. If the question would make a good CPQ, write “CPQ” in the box beside it. If the question would not make a good CPQ but is still a question you would use in instruction, write a “Q” in the box. The first one has been done as an example.

In what state is the Shasta Dam?	Q
How does the Shasta Dam help people in California?	
How big is the Shasta Dam?	
When was the Shasta Dam built?	
How is the building of the Shasta Dam an example of humans overcoming nature?	
Why did it take so many people to dig out the granite to make room for the dam?	

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Practice Identifying CPQs Answer Key

In what state is the Shasta Dam?	Q
How does the Shasta Dam help people in California?	CPQ
How big is the Shasta Dam?	Q
When was the Shasta Dam built?	Q
How is the building of the Shasta Dam an example of humans overcoming nature?	CPQ
Why did it take so many people to dig out the granite to make room for the dam?	Q

Graphic Organizers for Teaching Text Structures

Story Map

Setting	Characters
Problem	Event 1
Solution	Event 2
	Event 3
Theme	

Character Analysis

What the character looks like

Things that happen to the character

Character

What the character does in the story

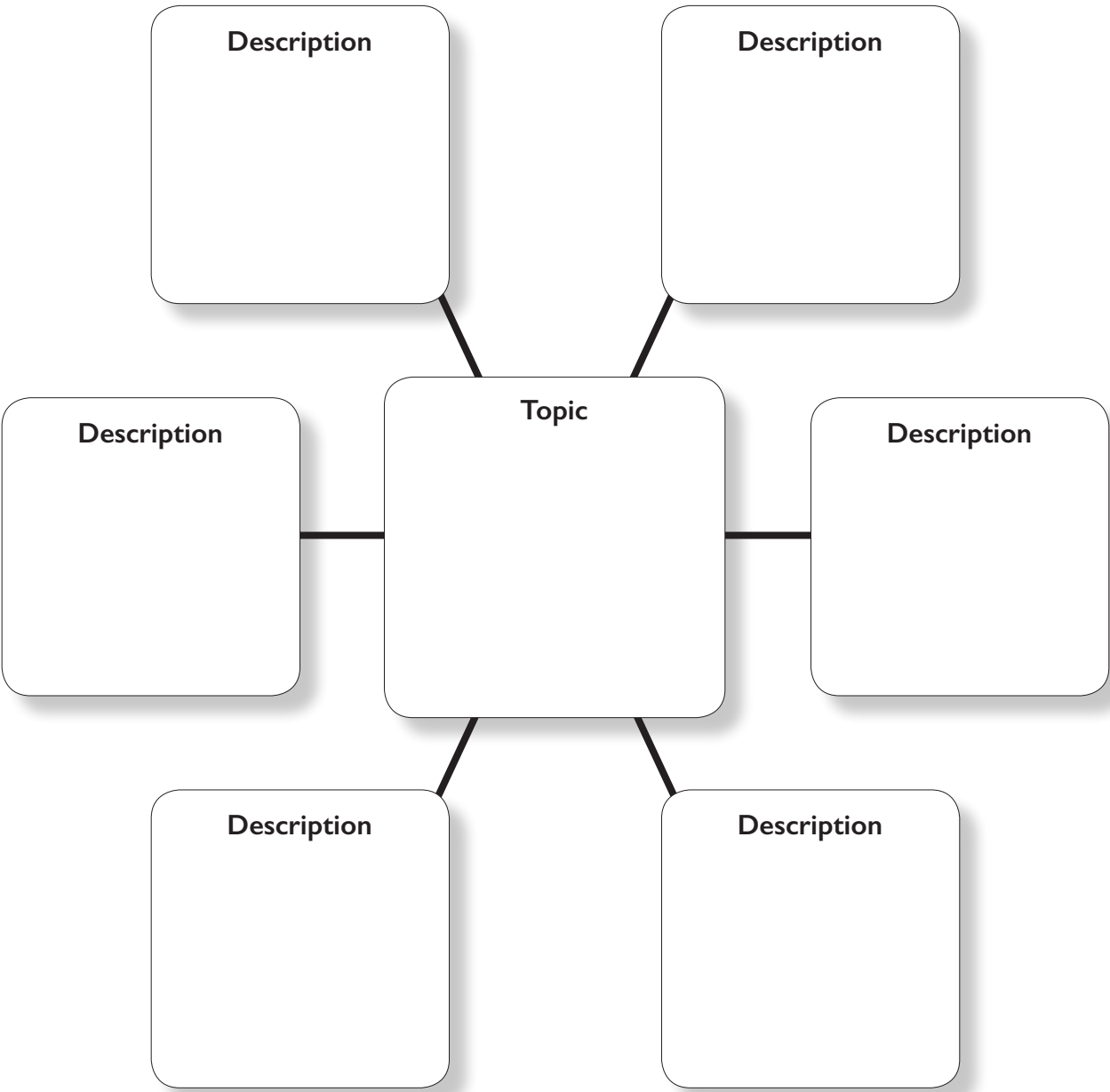
Why the character does these things

Character Comparison

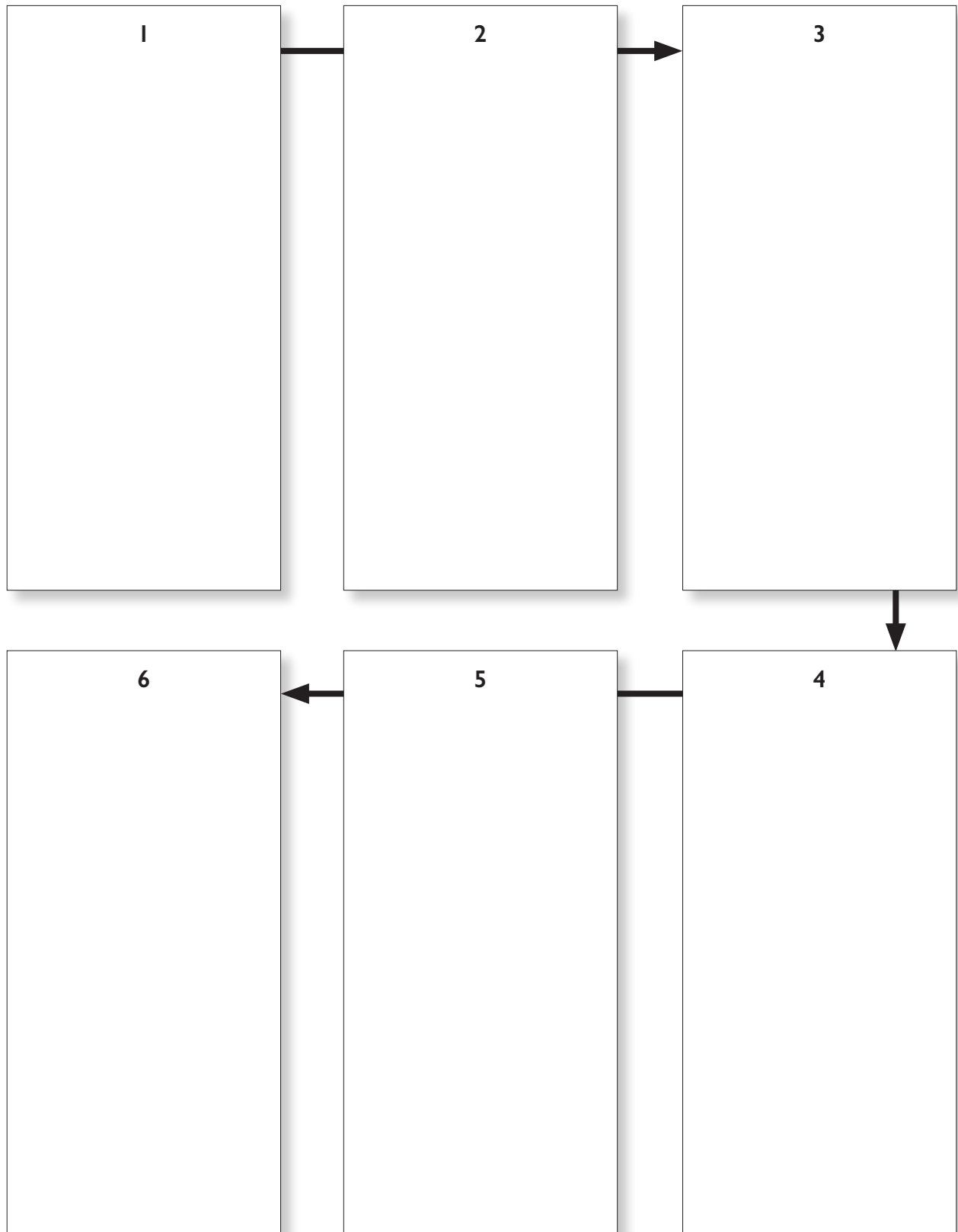
Character A	Character B
Name:	Name:
Characteristic 1:	Characteristic 1:
Characteristic 2:	Characteristic 2:
Characteristic 3:	Characteristic 3:
Characteristic 4:	Characteristic 4:

Shared Characteristics

Topic and Description



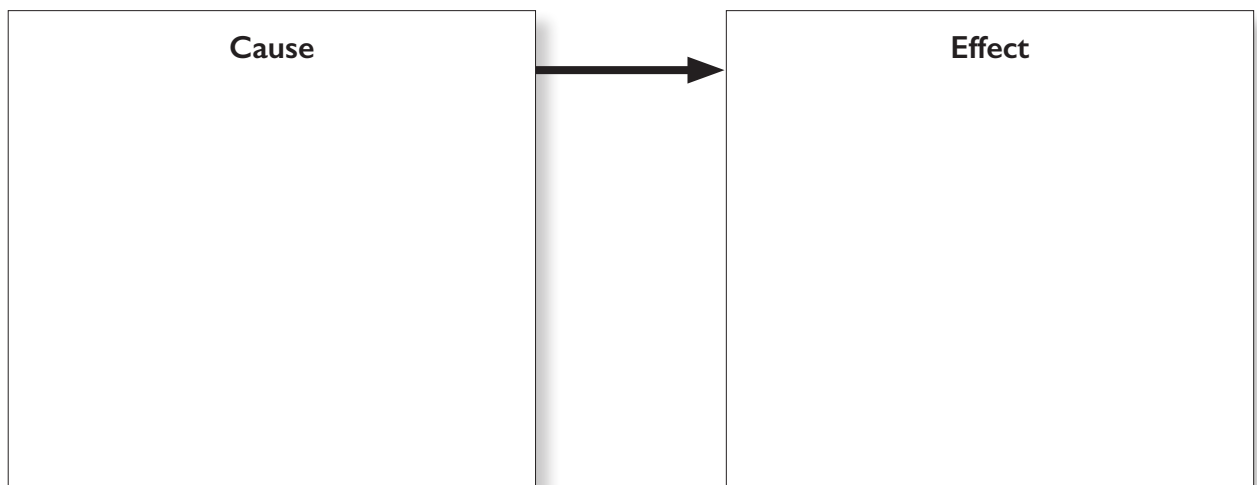
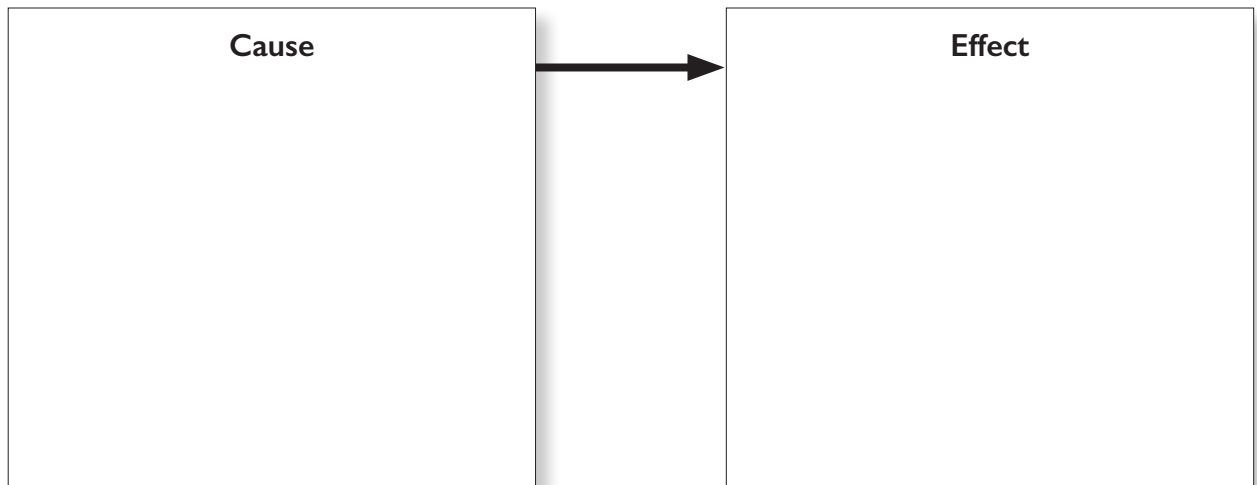
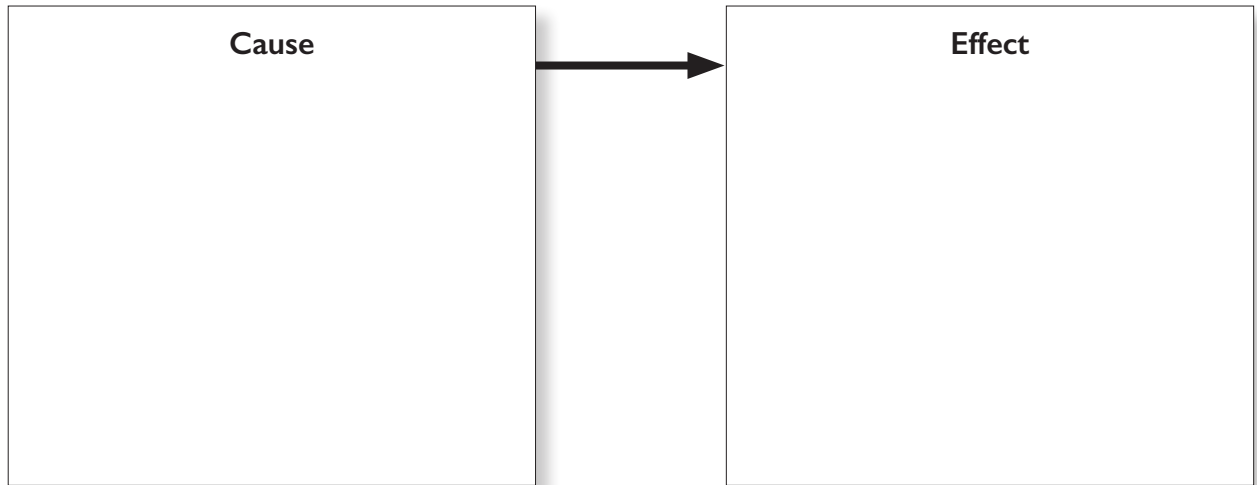
Sequence



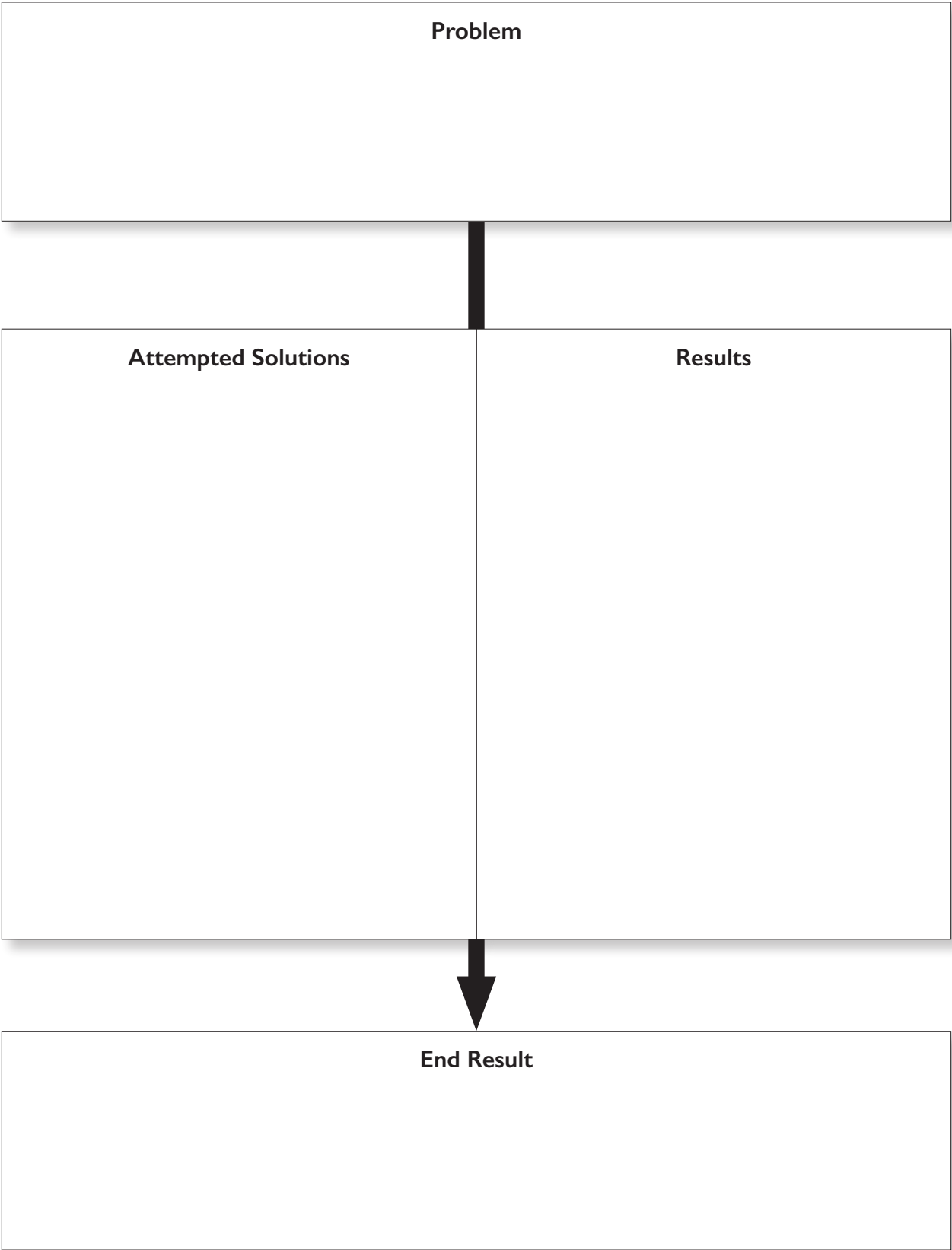
Compare and Contrast

A: _____	B: _____
Shared Characteristics	

Cause and Effect



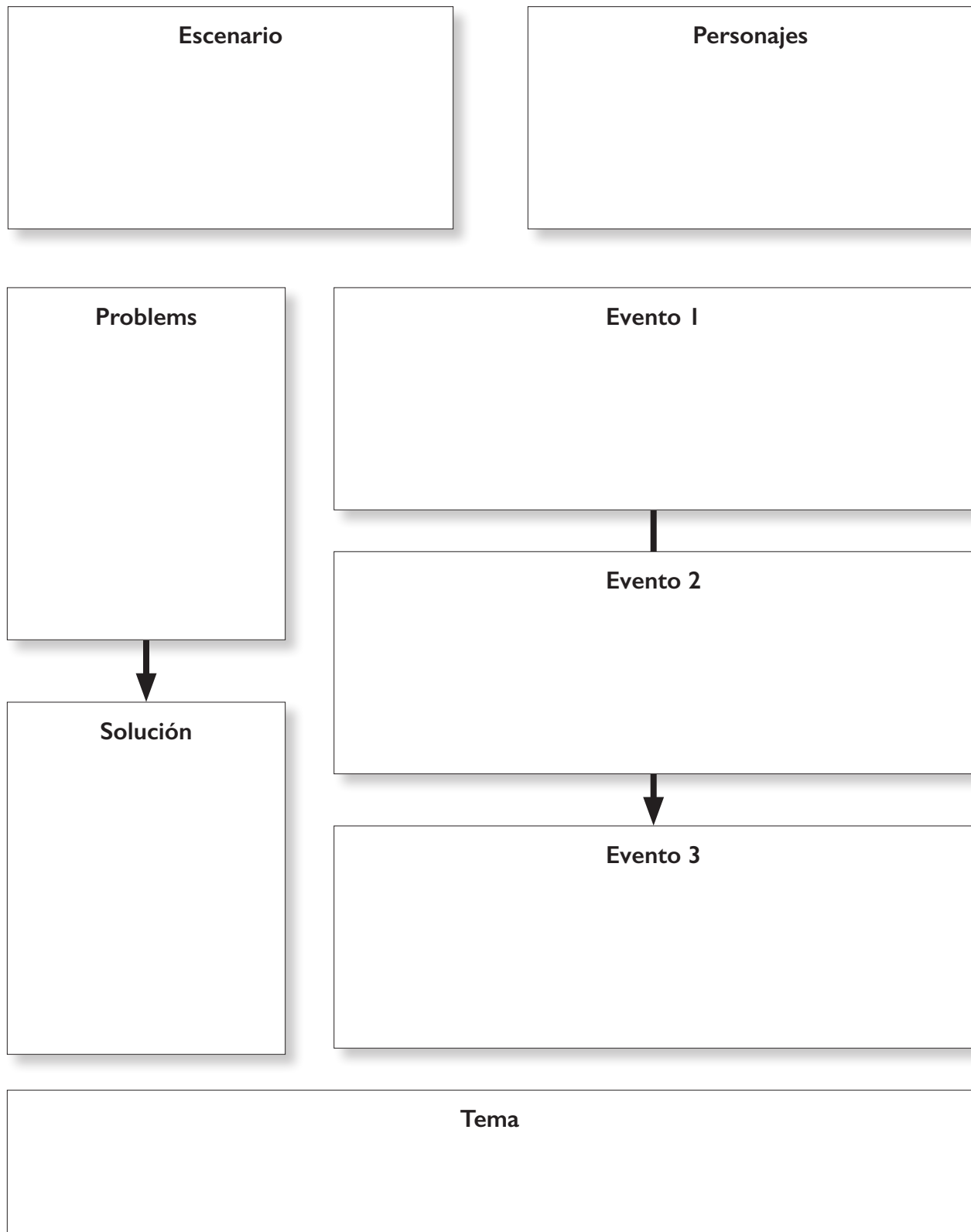
Problem and Solution



Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006.

Organizadores gráficos para diferentes tipos de estructura de texto

Mapa de la historia



Análisis de personajes

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

Cómo se ve el personaje

Cosas que le pasan al personaje

Personaje

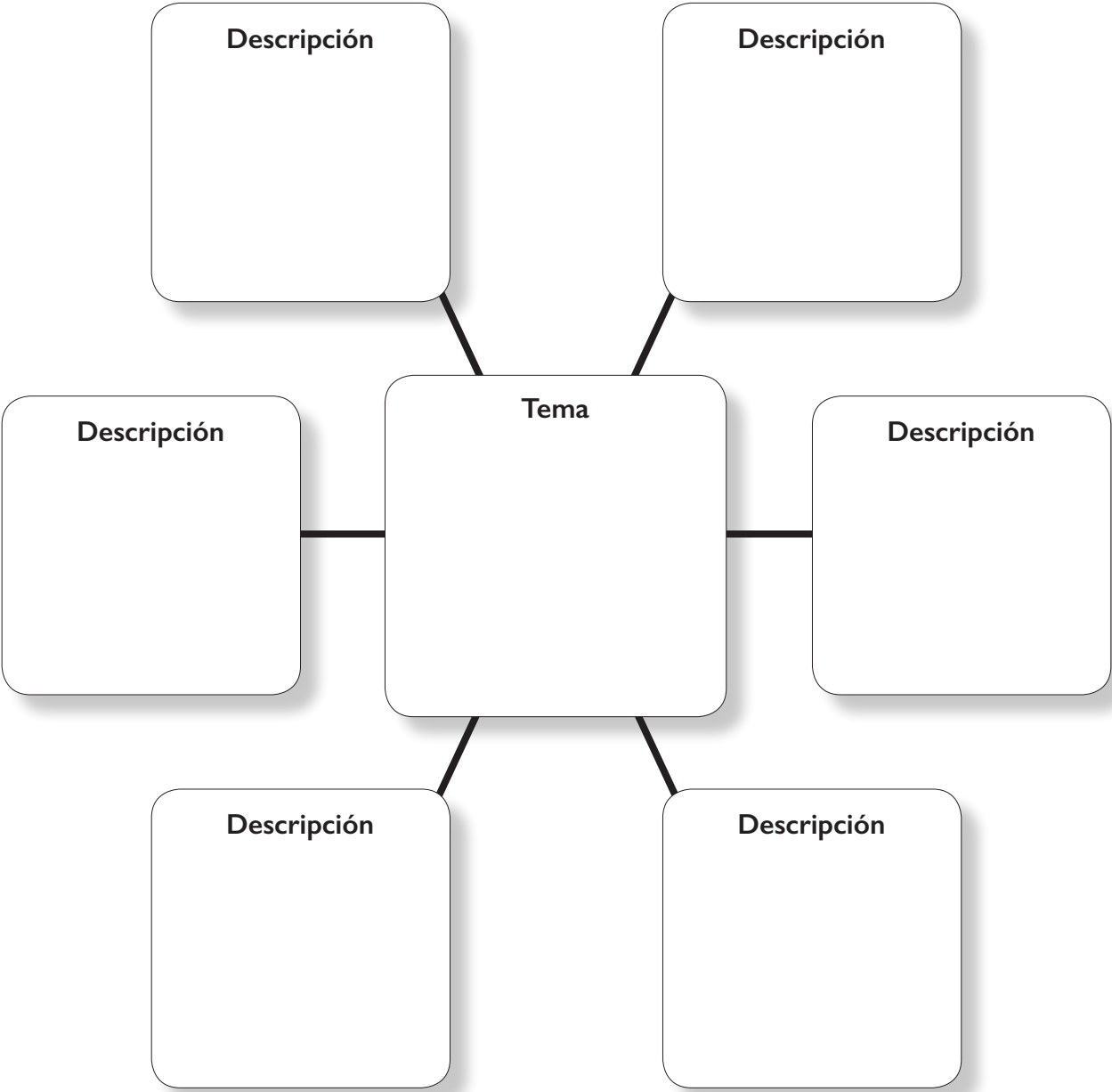
Qué es lo que le pasa al personaje

Por qué hace el personaje esas cosas

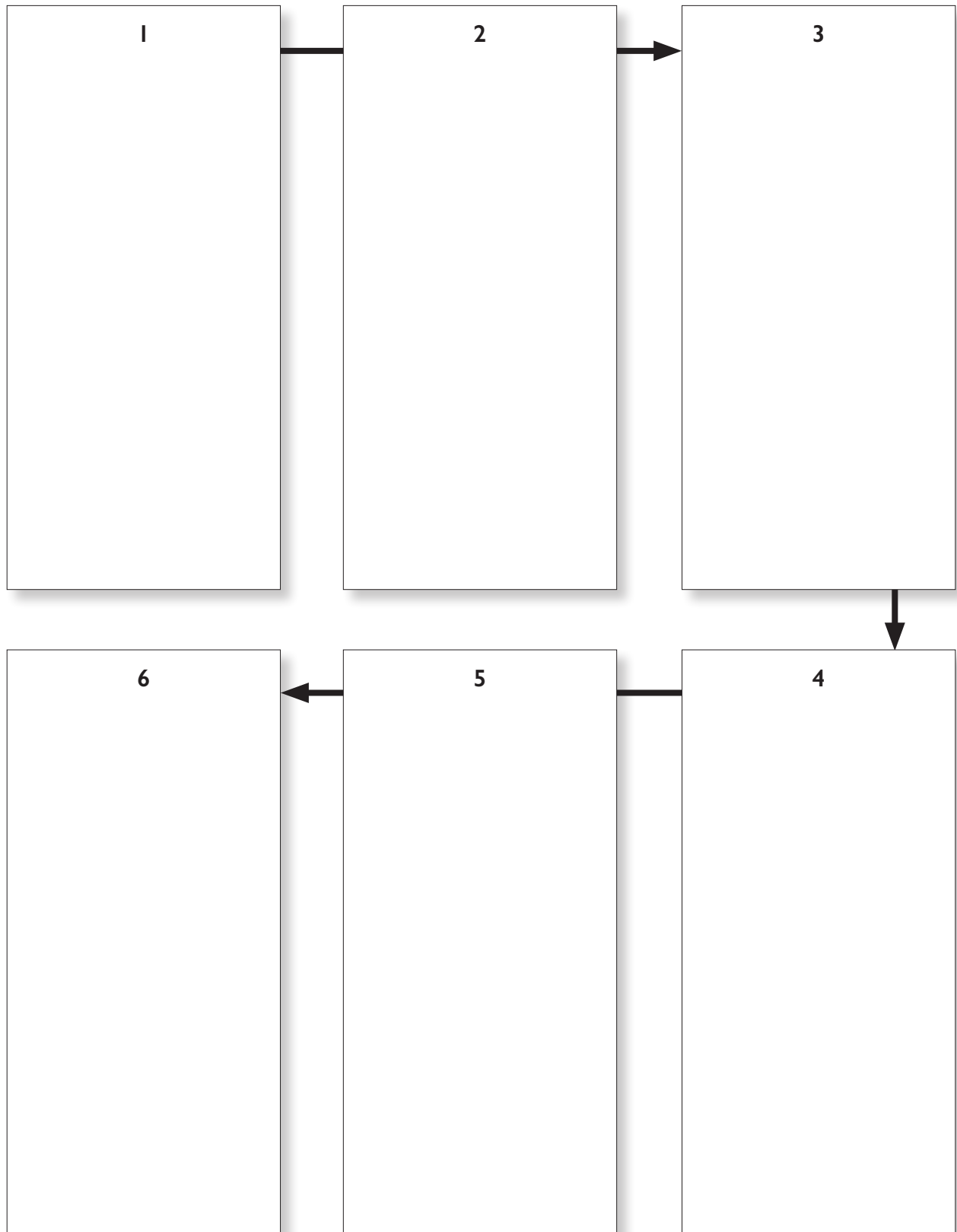
Comparación de personajes

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

Tema y descripción



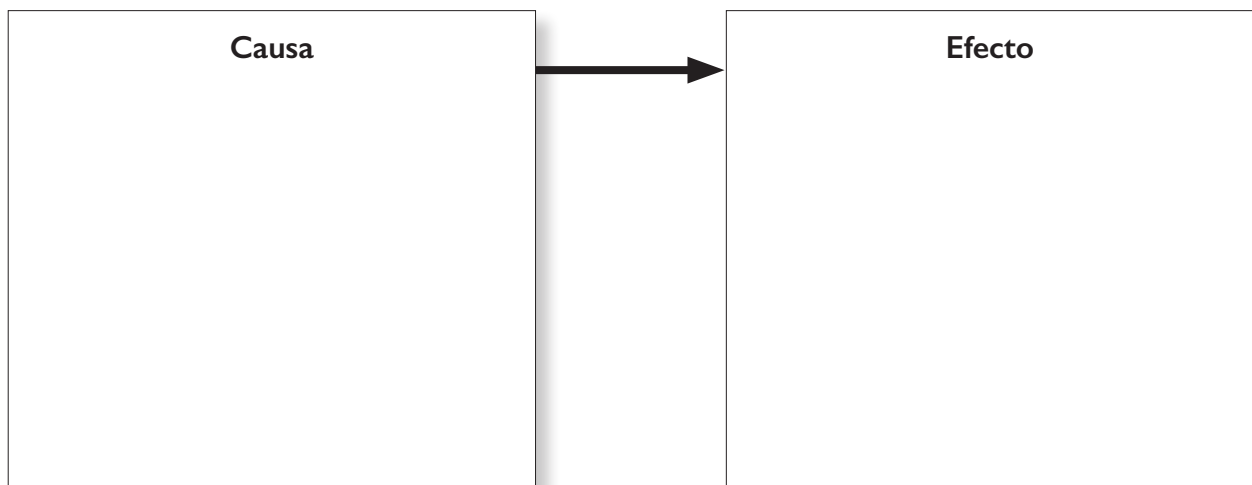
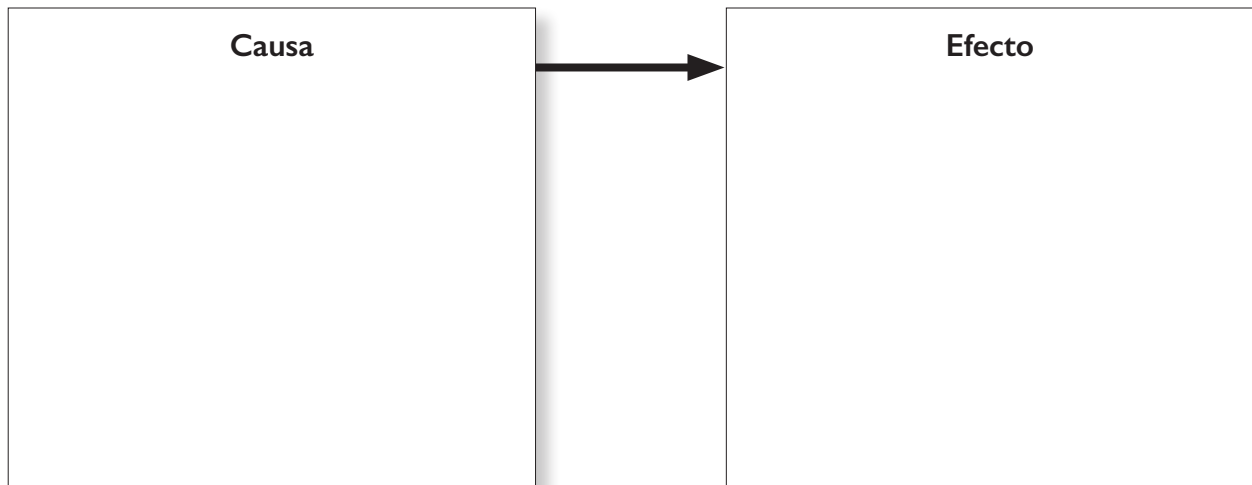
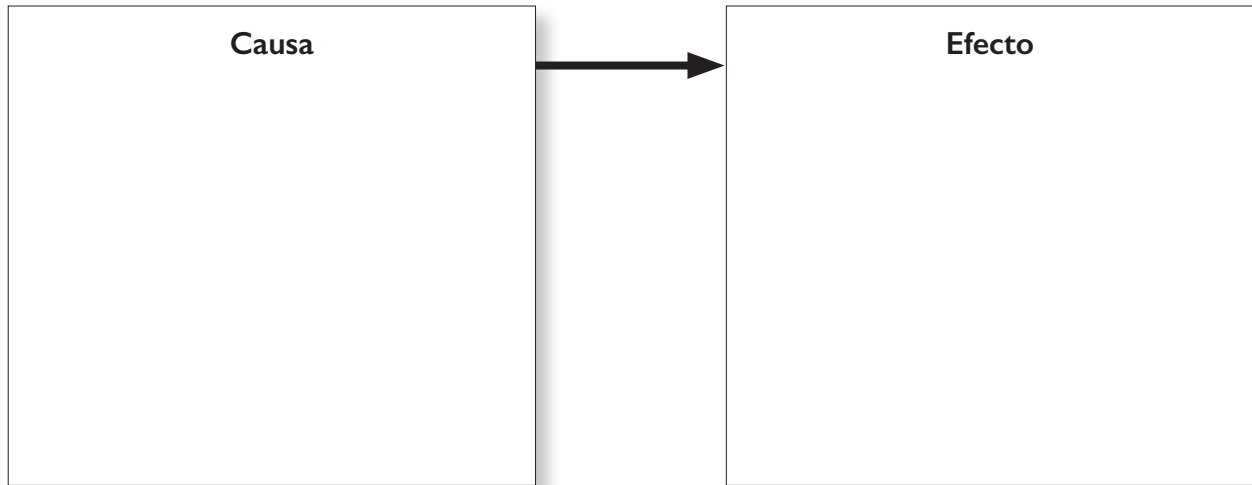
Secuencia



Comparar y contrastar

A: _____	B: _____
Características compartidas	

Causa y efecto



Problema y solución

Problema	
Soluciones intentadas	Resultados
Resultado final	

Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2006.

Activities for Building Connections Within and Across Sentences

Syntax Surgery

Read a text and note all the cohesive inferences needed to make sense of the text. Pay attention to connectives, pronouns and their referents, the renaming of nouns, etc. These are all elements of text that we often do not realize we are attending to as we read to build meaning.

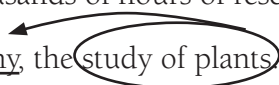
Choose pieces of the text to model how you make these connections.

As you read the text aloud to students, perform “syntax surgery” on the text. In other words, think aloud about the connections you are making between ideas, pronouns and their referents, etc., and “mark up” the passage by putting a circle or square around words and drawing arrows connecting them.

Example 1: “I do”

Here’s an example showing how to connect an appositive with the noun it defines:

After eight years of graduate work—including thousands of hours of research and work with microscopes—Dennis earned a Ph.D. in botany, the study of plants



When you read the phrase “the study of plants,” think aloud about what that phrase is doing. Circle “the study of plants” and draw an arrow to what it renames.

Example 2: “We do”

Here’s an example from the same text focusing on a connective:

Although Dennis was finishing his schooling, he was just beginning a lifetime of scientific learning and discovery.

Read the word *although*. Stop and put a square around it. Tell students that this is a signal word that shows that there will be a contrast. Keep reading. Emphasize the words *finishing* and *beginning*. Go back and underline these two words. Draw an arrow from *although* to *finishing* and another arrow from *finishing* to *beginning*. Think aloud about how the author used *although* to contrast two parts of the scientist’s life—being in school and working as a scientist. This sentence acts as a transition between the first part of the text, which talks about the scientist’s schooling, to the next part, which tells about his work as a scientist. This is also an example of parallel structure.

Suggestion: When using this strategy, do not teach all cohesive elements in a text. Instead, pick one to focus on, like pronouns and their referents. Also, teach and have students practice the strategy in different types of texts—narrative, expository, and persuasive.

Syntax Surgery Activity

Here is another example from the same text, *Hidden Worlds: Looking Through a Scientist's Microscope*. Perform syntax surgery on the text, focusing on pronouns and their referents.

Dennis and the other scientists kept careful records of the kinds of living things that returned to the lakes and when they reappeared. They identified the kinds of algae, protozoans, bacteria, and crustaceans they found. Later, Dennis and the team also discovered that frogs and fish were returning to some of these lakes, apparently carried in by surrounding streams.

Syntax Surgery: Connections to Make

Subject-verb agreement in sentences with single or compound subjects, especially when the subject and verb are separated

My cat and dog, both of whom have a wonderful attitude, love to play in the garden.

My cat, who has many feline friends, still loves to play in the garden with my dog.

Relationships between subjects and compound predicates, especially when they are separated from each other

Emma's parents, daring to go against their daughter's wishes, followed her and her boyfriend to the restaurant, ate dinner in close proximity to them, but did not get caught.

Coordinating or correlative conjunctions connecting ideas in compound sentences

Jessica makes a wonderful buttermilk pie, but Manuel makes an even better strudel.

Either I will go the store, or you will.

Subordinating conjunctions connecting ideas in complex sentences

Although I enjoy playing tennis, I'd rather be playing basketball.

Connections between modifying phrases or clauses and what they modify

Eating dinner with my family and friends at my favorite restaurant makes life livable.

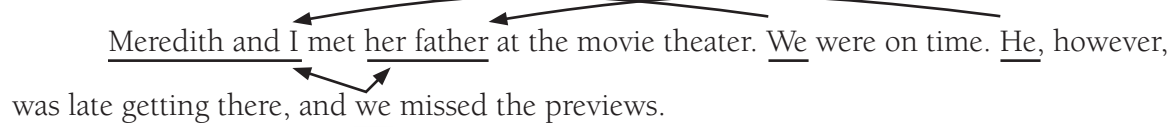
Use of transition words or other connectives to connect ideas within or across sentences

The children played many carnival games, including dart throwing and ring toss.

The children played many carnival games. For example, they played dart throwing and ring toss.

Pronouns and their referents

Meredith and I met her father at the movie theater. We were on time. He, however, was late getting there, and we missed the previews.

A diagram showing pronoun referents. Arrows point from the underlined pronouns to their referents: 'her father' points to 'Meredith and I'; 'We' points to 'Meredith and I'; 'He' points to 'her father'; 'we' points to 'Meredith and I'.**Words or phrases substituted for other words or phrases**

After he found an old peppermint in his pocket, Ricky popped the candy into his mouth.

A diagram showing substitution. An arrow points from 'the candy' to 'an old peppermint'.**Omission of words or phrases using ellipsis**

Either I will go the store, or you will. (*omitted: "go to the store"*)

A diagram showing ellipsis. An arrow points from 'go the store' to 'omitted: "go to the store"'.

Adapted from Beers, 2003; Moats & Hennessy, 2010.

Sentence Combining or Deconstructing

Pull a sentence from a book that students are reading and break it into its constituent sentences. Have students put the sentences back together into one sentence, trying to do it the way the author wrote it.

For a more challenging activity, use the opposite process. Have students deconstruct a sentence into two or more sentences. This activity is more difficult than combining sentences into one.

Examples

- Inserting adjectives and adverbs
In that place she felt completely safe. The place was dark.
In that dark place she felt completely safe. (from *Thank you, Mr. Falker* by Patricia Polacco)
- Making compound subjects, objects, and predicates
Owen stuffed Fuzzy inside his pajama pants. Owen went to sleep.
Owen stuffed Fuzzy inside his pajama pants and went to sleep. (from *Owen* by Kevin Henkes)
- Producing compound sentences with *and*, *but*, *or*, etc.
They laughed. Both hung on to the grass.
They laughed, and both hung on to the grass. (from *Thank You, Mr. Falker* by Patricia Polacco)
- Producing possessive nouns
She longed to go back to the farm. The farm belonged to her grandparents.
How she longed to go back to her grandparents' farm in Michigan. (from *Thank you, Mr. Falker* by Patricia Polacco)
- Making a sentence with an adverbial clause using *because*, *after*, *until*, *when*, etc.
I want to be a Secret Service agent. I will do it when I grow up.
When I grow up, I want to be a Secret Service agent. (from *Diary of a Worm* by Doreen Cronin)
QUESTIONS: Can you write this sentence a different way? Would that sentence need a comma?
- Making a sentence with a relative clause using *who*, *that*, *which*, etc.
More bats gathered around to see the strange young bat. The strange young bat behaved like a bird.
More bats gathered around to see the strange young bat who behaved like a bird. (from *Stellaluna* by Janell Cannon)

Adapted from Beers, 2003; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Saddler, 2009, 2012; Saddler & Graham, 2005.

Comprehension Strategies

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

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

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

Example Lesson Plan: Identifying Main Ideas

Materials

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

Objective

Students will practice identifying main ideas in an expository text.

Vocabulary

Preteach: *recycle, nutrients, absorb*

Build into lesson: *soil, plows and tillers, deposit, process, layers, minerals, digestive system, matter, release*

Modeled Reading: “I Do” and “We Do”

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

“This is interesting. The title, ‘Underground Workers,’ must refer to these billions of creatures it mentions. I’ll keep reading to see whether that’s correct.”

Read the next sentence. Then, stop and say:

“Oh, now it mentions worms. Maybe that’s the important ‘who’ or ‘what’. I’ll read a bit further to see whether that’s correct.”

Read the next two sentences. Then, stop and say:

“Yes. These last two sentences talk about worms and the jobs that they do, so I definitely think that’s the important ‘what’. I’ve learned a few things about worms, too, so I’ll go ahead and write this on my chart. Try to help me.”

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

“The important ‘what’ is definitely worms because they’re talked about in those last three sentences.”

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

“Now, I have to figure out what the author taught me about worms that is important. Well, first, I learned that their work improves soil, so I’ll write that. I learned that there are **a lot** of worms underground—a million in just one acre. Let’s write that. Last, I learned that worms’ work helps plants grow. Let’s read what I wrote.”

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

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

Show students a starter sentence written on another piece of paper that is a bit too long: Millions and millions of worms work underground at jobs to improve soil and help plants grow.

Read the sentence aloud and count the words. Say:

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

Model by thinking aloud. Say:

“I see the words *millions and millions*. If there really are millions and millions, we could actually say there are...”

Pause for students to say, “lots” or “billions.”

“Yes, billions, so I’ll get rid of the words *millions and millions* and replace them with the word *billions*. That leaves the sentence: Billions of worms work underground at jobs to improve soil and help plants grow.”

Count the words in the new sentence, 14 words. Continue working to shrink the sentence to about 10 words or less. A final sentence might be: Billions of worm workers improve soil and help plants grow. That’s 10 words.

Moving From “I Do” to “We Do”

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

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

Follow the same procedure with the third paragraph.

Graphic Organizer

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart

Partner and Cooperative Reading: “We Do”

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

Independent Reading: “You Do”

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

Underground Workers

There are billions of small creatures living in the soil. All these creatures work day and night to improve the soil for plants. The hardest workers among these underground creatures are worms. There are about a million worms in every acre of soil. The jobs these worms perform help plants grow.

As worms move through the soil, they create tunnels. These tunnels provide more space for air and water to reach plant roots. In this way, worms loosen the soil like garden plows or tillers. When worms tunnel along, they eat the soil. Later on, they deposit the soil somewhere else. This process mixes the layers of soil, bringing important minerals buried deep within the soil to the surface, closer to plant roots.

A worm's most important job is recycling soil nutrients. They recycle by eating living or dead plant matter, like leaves, stems, and roots. The worm's digestive system then breaks down the plant matter, and they release rich nutrients back into the soil. Plants can easily absorb these nutrients through their roots.

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary

Student Name: _____

Date: _____

Paragraph	Who or What (Topic)	Important Information	Main Idea Sentence (About 10 words or less)
1			
2			
3			

Summary:

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

Lección ejemplo para identificar la idea principal en un texto expositivo

Materiales

- Copias de “Los bosques tropicales” (más adelante)
- Ilustración de un bosque tropical
- Hoja grande con copia del organizador gráfico “Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto”
- Copias del organizador gráfico “Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto” para los estudiantes

Objetivo

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

Vocabulario

Antes de la lectura: *promedio, Ecuador, ciclo*

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

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

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

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

Distribuya copias de “Los bosques tropicales”. Coloque una copia en la cámara para documentos. Diga:

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

Escriba 1 al lado del primer párrafo:

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

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

“Parece que vamos a leer sobre los bosques tropicales. Me voy a preguntar de quién o de qué están hablando en el primer párrafo. El título del texto me dice eso también. Dice que los bosques tropicales se encuentran, están localizados, cerca del Ecuador. Yo aprendí que el Ecuador es el área que se encuentra a la mitad de la Tierra. También dice que las selvas tropicales son muy húmedas, extremadamente húmedas.”

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

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

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

“Primero, ¿cuál es el quién o el qué más importante de este párrafo? Todo el párrafo dio información sobre los bosques o selvas tropicales. Me dice que son cálidos, húmedos, cuánta lluvia reciben, y cuál es la temperatura. Todo esto es sobre los bosques tropicales. Así que los bosques tropicales es el qué o el quién del cual se habla en el párrafo. Escribiré ‘bosques domésticos’ en la segunda columna.”

Escriba “bosques tropicales” en la segunda columna. Diga a los estudiantes que hagan lo mismo en su copia. Continúe:

“Ahora, tengo que reflexionar sobre lo que el autor escribió sobre los bosques tropicales. Bueno, primero leí muchas cosas sobre los bosques tropicales: que son cálidos, muy húmedos, que reciben hasta 400 pulgadas de lluvia anualmente, y que la temperatura promedio es de 90 grados Fahrenheit.”

Escriba estos datos en la tercera columna. Pida a los estudiantes que completen su hoja de ejercicio con usted. Continúe:

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

“Los bosques tropicales son cálidos y húmedos porque reciben hasta 400 pulgadas de lluvia al año y tienen una temperatura promedio de 90 grados Fahrenheit.”

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

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

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

“La idea principal es realmente que los bosques tropicales son cálidos y muy húmedos. Eso es realmente lo más importante. Los otros datos me explican por qué son cálidos y húmedos por la lluvia. Pero realmente la idea principal es que los bosques tropicales son cálidos y muy húmedos. La oración quedaría:

“Los bosques tropicales son cálidos y extremadamente húmedos porque reciben mucha lluvia.

“Lo logramos. Ahora tenemos 12 palabras.”

Avanzando de “Yo hago” a “Nosotros hacemos”

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

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

Organizador gráfico

Tabla para identificar la idea principal y escribir un resumen.

Lectura en parejas y colaborativa: “Nosotros hacemos”

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

Lectura independiente: “Tú haces”

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

Los bosques tropicales

¿Por qué son especiales los bosques tropicales?

Las selvas tropicales, localizadas cerca del Ecuador, son áreas cálidas y extremadamente húmedas que tienen muchos árboles. Las selvas tropicales reciben de 77 pulgadas (200cm) a 400 pulgadas (1,000) de lluvia anualmente. La temperatura promedio en una selva tropical es 90 grados Fahrenheit (32 grados centígrados).

¿De dónde viene toda esta lluvia?

Los bosques tropicales crean su propia lluvia. Como el sol tropical calienta la selva en la mañana, la niebla se levanta a través de los árboles. Esta niebla se forma debido a la humedad de las plantas combinadas con las cálidas temperaturas. Entonces, la niebla sube y forma nubes sobre la selva. Por la tarde, las nubes llenas de humedad derraman su lluvia sobre el bosque. Este ciclo continúa día tras día en el bosque tropical.

Source: McKenzie, P. (2014). *Los bosques tropicales*. North Mankato, MN: Rourke Educational Media.

Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto

Nombre del estudiante: _____ Fecha: _____

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

Resumen:

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

Example Lesson Plan: Summarizing

Materials

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

Objective

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

Vocabulary

Preteach: *recycle, nutrients, absorb*

Build into lesson: *soil, plows and tillers, deposit, process, layers, minerals, digestive system, matter, release*

Modeled Reading: “I Do” and “We Do”

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

“Now that we have figured out the main ideas of all three paragraphs in the ‘Underground Workers’ text, let’s put them together to summarize what we learned. Our gist statements are ‘Billions of worm workers improve soil and help plants grow. Worm tunneling helps plant roots get water, air, and minerals. Worms digest plant matter and release nutrients, which plant roots absorb.’ Let me think about how we can put these three sentences together to create a short summary.

“The first one is a general statement about the work billions of worms do, and the last two are about specific types of work they perform. A summary is usually general without a lot of details. I could mainly use the first gist statement, which is more general, and then add information from the last two about the specific work that worms do. Maybe I can say something like, ‘Billions of worms perform underground jobs, like tunneling and recycling nutrients, that improve soil and help plants grow.’ What do we think about that summary?”

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

Graphic Organizer

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary chart

Partner and Cooperative Reading: “We Do”

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

Independent Reading: “You Do”

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

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary

Student Name: _____

Date: _____

Paragraph	Who or What (Topic)	Important Information	Main Idea Sentence (About 10 words or less)
1	Worms	<p>Their work improves soil.</p> <p>A million worms live in one acre.</p> <p>Their work helps plants grow.</p>	Billions of worm workers improve soil and help plants grow.
2	Worm tunneling	<p>It helps plant roots get air and water.</p> <p>Worms eat the soil and put it somewhere else.</p> <p>It brings up minerals and puts them closer to plant roots.</p>	Worm tunneling helps plant roots get water, air, and minerals.
3	Worm recycling	<p>Worms recycle soil nutrients.</p> <p>They digest plant matter and release nutrients into soil.</p> <p>Plant roots absorb the nutrients.</p>	Worms digest plant matter and release nutrients, which plant roots absorb.

Summary:

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

Lección ejemplo para resumir

Materiales

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

Objetivo

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

Vocabulario

Antes de la lectura: NA

Durante la lectura: NA

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

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

“Ahora que ya hemos identificado la idea principal de los dos párrafos del texto sobre los bosques tropicales, vamos a unirlos para resumir lo que aprendimos. Nuestras dos ideas principales fueron: ‘Los bosques tropicales son cálidos y extremadamente húmedos porque reciben mucha lluvia,’ y ‘Los bosques tropicales crean su lluvia porque el ciclo del agua pasa a diario.’ Voy a pensar cómo unir estas dos oraciones para escribir un pequeño resumen.

“La primera idea principal me explica que los bosques tropicales son muy húmedos por tanta lluvia que reciben. La segunda idea principal me explica que reciben tanta lluvia porque el ciclo del agua sucede a diario en los bosques tropicales. Entonces tengo que poner estas dos ideas juntas. Puedo decir que los bosques tropicales son muy húmedos porque en ellos se produce lluvia todos los días debido a que el ciclo del agua sucede a diario en esos lugares. Entonces, puedo usar esto como resumen: ‘Los bosques tropicales son muy húmedos porque el ciclo del agua sucede a diario.’ ¿Qué les parece este resumen?”

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

Organizador gráfico

Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto

Lectura en parejas y colaborativa: “Nosotros hacemos”

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

Lectura independiente: “Tú haces”

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

Identificando ideas principales para resumir un texto

Nombre del estudiante: _____ Fecha: _____

Párrafo	Qué o quién (tema)	Información importante	Oración para la idea principal (15 palabras o menos)
1	bosques tropicales	están cerca del ecuador son cálidos son muy húmedos reciben hasta 400 pulgadas de lluvia al año tienen una temperatura promedio de 90 grado Fahrenheit	Los bosques tropicales son cálidos y extremadamente húmedos porque reciben mucha lluvia.
2	bosques tropicales	sol calienta la tierra la niebla sube y forma nubes las nubes dejan caer lluvia esto pasa todos los días	Los bosques tropicales crean la lluvia porque el ciclo del agua pasa a diario.

Resumen:

Los bosques tropicales son muy húmedos porque el ciclo del agua sucede a diario.

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

Text Title: _____

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

Sample Stems for Each Question Level

“Right There” Questions

Who...?

What...?

Which...?

When...?

Where...?

“Think and Search” Questions

How did...?

Why did...?

Describe...

Describe the relationship between _____ and _____.

What was the main idea of...?

Explain how...

Explain why...

Summarize...

“Author and Me” Questions

How is _____ similar to _____?

How is _____ different from _____?

How is _____ related to _____?

How would you describe...? Why?

What do you think about...?

Which _____ was most important? Why?

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

How do you think...? Why?

How would you characterize...? Why?

Student Log for Self-Generated Questions (Example)

Text Title: Chicken Sunday

QUESTION 1: What do the three children want to get Miss Eula?		
Question Type: Right there		
Answer An Easter bonnet	Evidence After Miss Eula says the Easter bonnet is "the most beautiful" one she's seen, the text says the children want to get her "that hat."	Page(s) 4
QUESTION 2: Why did the children count the money in the Band-Aid tin?		
Question Type: Think and search		
Answer They wanted to see whether they had enough money to buy Miss Eula the Easter bonnet.	Evidence The narrator says they "wanted to get her that hat more than anything in the world." Then, the children went outside to count the money. Next, the narrator says that they would need more money to buy the hat.	Page(s) 6
QUESTION 3: How is the point of view in "Chicken Sunday" different from the point of view in "Thank You, Mr. Falker"? Why do you think the author, Patricia Polacco, uses different points of view in these two stories?		
Question Type: Author and me		
Answer "Chicken Sunday" is told from the first-person point of view, and "Mr. Falker" is told in third person. I think Polacco writes in first person in "Chicken Sunday" because it helps the reader to see what she really felt and thought about the other characters. This story is about these relationships, so this is helpful. I think she told "Mr. Falker" in third person because she wanted to surprise the reader at the end of the story when she reveals the story was about her.	Evidence In "Chicken Sunday," the narrator uses pronouns like "I" and "we." In "Mr. Falker," the narrator uses pronouns like "she" and "they." In "Chicken Sunday," Polacco lets you see her relationships with the characters through her eyes. She includes personal details, such as Miss Eula's voice being like "slow thunder and sweet rain" and the phrase "she squeezed my hand." In "Mr. Falker," Polacco tells you on the last page that Trisha is her as a little girl. That's when you find out why the book is titled "Thank You, Mr. Falker."	Page(s) Throughout both stories

Source: Polacco, P. (1992). *Chicken Sunday*. New York, NY: Putnam & Grosset Group.

Student Log for Self-Generated Questions

Text Title: _____

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

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

Preguntas auto-generadas por el estudiante

Título del libro: _____

PREGUNTA 1:**Clase de pregunta:**

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

PREGUNTA 2:**Clase de pregunta:**

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

PREGUNTA 3:**Clase de pregunta:**

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

Ejemplos de preguntas para cada nivel

Preguntas “ahí en el texto”

¿Quién...?

¿Qué...?

¿Cuál...?

¿Cuándo...?

¿Dónde...?

Preguntas para “pensar y buscar”

¿Cómo pudo...?

¿Por qué...?

Describe...

Describe la relación entre _____ y _____?

¿Cuál fue la idea principal de...?

Explica cómo...

Explica por qué ...

Resume...

Preguntas “entre el autor y yo”

¿Cómo son _____ y _____ similares?

¿Cómo son _____ y _____ diferentes?

¿Cómo se relaciona _____ con esto?

¿Cómo describirías a ... ¿Por qué?

¿Qué piensas sobre...?

¿Qué _____ fue más importante? ¿Por qué?

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

¿Cómo crees...?

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

Guidelines for High-Quality Discussions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Example Lesson Plan

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

Three Ideas to Support Student Discussions While Applying Comprehension Strategies

1.

2.

3.

Disciplinary Texts

1. Read each text below. Think about how you make sense of it. Do you use a strategy or technique to put the information together? Do you read each text the same way, or do you use different processes?
2. Compare the vocabulary and language patterns across the texts. What differences do you notice? How might these differences affect your instruction when using each text?

Literary Text: Poem

Excerpt from “Flying Lesson” by Joyce Sidman

This time, Father says,
he will not bring me my dinner.
This time
he will let it fall,
and I must try to catch it.

Flying, Father says,
is like seeing the air.
Not just the blue shimmer,
not just the bright clouds,
but the air itself
as it swells and swirls
around our rocky cliff.

To show me,
he leaps from the nest,
gathers the wind in his wings,
and dives.
He comes up dangling dinner
between his claws.

He calls to me:
Now! Fly!

Historical Explanation

Excerpt from “On the Road to Statehood”

Most Texans wanted to join the United States. But there were many people in the United States who were not sure if the annexation of Texas would be successful.

Texas had very large debts. The United States would have to take over these debts if Texas became a state. This was a big responsibility. Many people also worried about the Mexican and American Indian attacks. No one wanted to be caught in the middle of disagreements. The biggest concern was slavery. People in Texas, like many southern states in the United States, were allowed to own other people as slaves. These enslaved people were forced to work and did not have the freedoms other Americans had. Many people, especially in the North, did not want another state that allowed slavery.

Scientific Description
Excerpt from “Hybrids”

A hybrid is the offspring of two different species. Most species cannot have offspring with other species. Hybrids are usually sterile, which means they cannot have their own offspring. Hybrids like certain mice can also have more health problems than their parents.

A mule is a hybrid. It is the cross between a horse and a donkey, and it cannot reproduce. Mules have attributes from both useful horses and good, sturdy donkeys. Since mules can’t reproduce, there aren’t as many of them around.

Hybrids don’t always have to be animals. Plants can be hybrids, too. Plant hybrids are found in nature quite frequently. To create plant hybrids, the pollen of one plant must come in contact with another plant of a different variety. Many farmers also experiment with hybrid crops, such as types of corn, to produce and harvest.

Mathematics: Word Problems

1. Raymond used 42 cubes to build the first layer of a rectangular prism. The edge length of each cube was one inch. The finished prism had a total of seven layers. What is the volume of Raymond’s prism in cubic inches?
2. Phoebe divided her rectangular vegetable garden into three sections, as shown in the drawing below.

Potatoes	Corn
	Carrots

- The potato section is a square with a side length of seven meters.
 - The carrot section is a square with a side length of five meters.
- What is the area, in square meters, of the corn section of Phoebe’s garden?

Adapted from Studies Weekly, 2017a, 2017b; Texas Education Agency, 2016a, 2016b.

Text Differences Across the Disciplines

General Differences

Vocabulary

Technical terms: Words have different meanings across disciplines. For example, *producer* has a different meaning in biology than in economics. As another example, *prime* has a precise mathematical meaning that's very different from its meaning in other contexts. Here are a few other examples that differ in meaning across disciplines: *revolution*, *solution*, *difference*, *matter*, *equal*, *transformation*, *rotation*, *figure*, and *gravity*.

1. List some other examples.

Impact of morphological changes: Morphology affects language across disciplines, but words in some disciplines, such as the sciences, are especially affected by derivational prefixes and suffixes. Consider the relationships among words like *carnivore*, *herbivore*, and *omnivore* or *water vapor*, *evaporate*, and *evaporation*. Nominalization, changing verbs and adjectives into nouns, is especially prevalent in science. With so many scientific words deriving from Latin and Greek, it makes sense to teach morphology within the context of science instruction.

Use of metaphorical terminology: Some disciplines, like English language arts and history, use more metaphorical language. For example, in history, many technical terms connect groups, people, or events or express perspectives on specific time periods, actions, or other historical elements. Examples include: *Industrial Revolution*, *Civil War*, *Elizabethan Era*, *Emancipation Proclamation*, and *Great Depression*.

Grammatical Patterns

Passive versus active voice: Some disciplinary texts, such as those in the sciences, are more likely to use passive voice than other types of texts. Passive voice can be more difficult for readers to comprehend. The following is an example of passive versus active voice:

- **Active:** The water evaporated, leaving an empty cup.
- **Passive:** The cup was made empty by the water's evaporation.

2. Change the following sentence from active to passive voice: The wood absorbed the sound waves.

How ideas are connected: In narrative language, idea relationships can often be identified explicitly through the use of connectives like *because*, *however*, *so*, and *if*. In more abstract linguistic constructions, like those used in science and math, such relationships are signaled through the use of specific verbs, nouns, or prepositional or other phrases. Examples include *cause*, *produce*, *relate*, *decrease*, *increase*, *reason*, *results*, *factors*, *difference*, *improvement*, *in reaction to*, and *as a result of*.

Lengthy noun phrases: Across history, science, and mathematics, noun phrases are often extended with the use of prepositional phrases, relative clauses, and other linguistic constructions. The following are a few examples:

- **In science:** two species with similar characteristics but different evolutionary origins
- **In mathematics:** two lines that are parallel and the same length
- **In history:** economic relationships between consumers and producers

Author and Context Awareness

Is knowledge of the author important to text understanding and interpretation?

Should the context of when the text was written have an impact on comprehension?

Textual and Linguistic Patterns Within Disciplines

English Language Arts

- Understanding of sensory and figurative language is important.
- Abstract literary elements like character motivation, theme, motif, and tone are inferred during reading.
- In general, more focus is placed on literary texts with narrative, poetic, or dramatic structures.
- Text analysis and interpretation is the focus of instruction (as opposed to building conceptual knowledge and skills in other disciplines).
- Consideration of author and context is often important.

History

- Technical terms are used to describe events or groups or to give a specific perspective on an action or event (e.g., *the Enlightenment*).
- Text structure relates narrative aspects to author's argument.
- Critical analysis is inherent to effective reading.
- Consideration of author and context is crucial, especially when reading primary or secondary sources.

Science

- Technical language includes morphological derivations (e.g., nominalizations), use of passive voice, and abstract causation (as opposed to human causation in literary or history texts).
- Integration of text with graphics is often important.
- Text structure is used to support understanding and find information.
- Consideration of author and context is not usually important.

Mathematics

- Understanding of precise mathematical definitions of vocabulary is crucial.
- Integration of text with graphic elements, equations, and other mathematical elements is important.
- Text structure is used to support understanding and find information.
- Extensive rereading is often necessary to ensure identification and correction of errors.
- Consideration of author and context is not necessary.

Adapted from Fang 2012; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012; Shanahan, Shanahan, & Misischia, 2011

Teaching Within Disciplinary Texts

Using the texts in Handout 17, answer the following questions.

Literary Text: Poem

What literacy and linguistic elements could you teach with this poem?

Which of these elements is more abstract and, thus, more difficult to help students see and understand?

Is it important to think about who wrote this poem? Would that knowledge help you better understand the poem?

Historical Explanation

What technical terms would you have to preteach to ensure that students understand this text? (One of these terms is an example of “metaphorical terminology.” Do you know which one? How would you teach it?)

How is this text organized? How would you use this information to help students make sense of the text?

Scientific Description

What technical terms would you have to preteach to ensure that students understand this text?

What words of Latin or Greek origin could you use to teach morphology?

How is this text organized? How could you use this information to help students make sense of the text?

Mathematics: Word Problems

What technical terms do students need to understand to complete each problem?

Problem 1:

Problem 2:

As you work through each problem, how could you connect the text with graphic elements—either those provided or those you create in your mind?

Expert mathematicians reread extensively to identify and correct errors. Did you find yourself rereading the problems or parts of them to ensure accuracy? In the second word problem, which parts did you reread most?

Analyzing Text Complexity

Literary Texts: Factors to Consider

Levels of meaning: Can the text be taken literally, or should the reader consider multiple levels of meaning?

Figurative language: How significant a role does figurative language play in understanding the text? Are the connections explicit or more sophisticated?

Purpose: How is the main idea or purpose of the text learned—explicitly or through interpretation?

Genre: Is the genre familiar? Is the genre consistent throughout the text, or does the text bend the rules for the genre (e.g., a fictional story that incorporates poetic elements)?

Organization: Does the text follow a logical, conventional sequence, or does it shift back and forth among time points and perspectives (e.g., using flashbacks, telling a story from two points of view)?

Narration: Who is the narrator? Is the narrator consistent throughout the text? What point of view is used?

Text features and graphics: Are visuals or graphics provided that support understanding? Are explicit connections made between the text and these features?

Standard English and variations: How closely aligned are the text's language and the reader's language?

Register: Is the text's language casual or more formal?

Background knowledge: How closely does the reader's knowledge match the level of knowledge necessary to understand the text?

Prior knowledge: Is technical or specialized knowledge necessary to understanding the text?

Cultural knowledge: Does the text make reference to cultural experiences or other texts with which the reader is familiar or unfamiliar?

Vocabulary knowledge: How extensive are the vocabulary demands in the text? Does the text provide contextual support for figuring out words?

Literary Texts: Qualitative Rubric

Levels of Meaning and Purpose			
Three Points (Stretch) Text stretches the reader and/or requires instruction.		Two Points (Grade Level) Text requires grade-appropriate skills.	One Point (Comfortable) Text builds background knowledge, fluency, and skills.
Levels of meaning	Significant density and complexity with multiple levels of meaning; meanings may be more ambiguous	Single level of meaning that's more complex or abstract; some meanings are stated, and others are left to the reader to identify	Single and literal levels of meaning; meaning is explicitly stated
Figurative language	Figurative language plays a significant role in understanding the text; more sophisticated figurative language is used; reader must interpret these meanings	Figurative language is used to make connections within the text to more explicit information; reader is supported in understanding these language devices through examples and explanations	Limited use of figurative language that alludes to other unstated concepts; language is explicit and relies on literal interpretations
Purpose	Purpose is deliberately withheld from the reader, who must use other interpretive skills to identify it	Purpose is implied but is easily identified based on title or context	Purpose or main idea is directly stated at the beginning of the reading

	Three Points (Stretch) Text stretches the reader and/or requires instruction.	Two Points (Grade Level) Text requires grade-appropriate skills.	One Point (Comfortable) Text builds background knowledge, fluency, and skills.
Structure			
Genre	Genre is unfamiliar or bends the rules for the genre	Genre is either unfamiliar but a reasonable example of it or familiar and bends the rules for the genre	Genre is familiar; text is consistent with elements of that genre
Organization	Organization distorts time or sequence in deliberate effort to delay the reader's full understanding of the plot, process, or concepts	Organization adheres to most conventions but digresses on occasion to temporarily shift the reader's focus to another point of view, event, time, or place before returning to the main idea or topic	Organization is conventional, sequential, or chronological with clear signals and transitions to lead the reader
Narration	Unreliable narrator provides a distorted or limited view; reader must use other clues to deduce the truth; multiple narrators provide conflicting information; shifting points of view keep the reader guessing	Third-person limited or first-person narration provides accurate but limited perspectives	Third-person omniscient narration or authoritative and credible voice provides appropriate level of detail and keeps little hidden from reader's view
Text features and graphics	Limited use of text features to organize information and guide the reader; information in graphics is not repeated in main part of text but is essential for understanding	Wider array of text features that compete for the reader's attention; graphics and visuals are used to augment and illustrate information in the main part of text	Text features organize information explicitly and guide the reader; graphics or illustrations may not be present but are not necessary to understand main part of text

	Three Points (Stretch) Text stretches the reader and/or requires instruction.	Two Points (Grade Level) Text requires grade-appropriate skills.	One Point (Comfortable) Text builds background knowledge, fluency, and skills.
Language Conventionalty and Clarity			
Standard English and variations	Text includes significant and multiple styles of English and its variations, and these are unfamiliar to the reader	Some distance exists between the reader's linguistic base and the language conventions used in the text; vernacular used is unfamiliar to the reader	Language closely adheres to reader's linguistic base
Register	Archaic, formal, domain-specific, or scholarly register	Register is consultative or formal and may be academic but acknowledges reader's developmental level	Register is casual and familiar
Knowledge and Demands			
Background knowledge	Text places demands on the reader that extend far beyond one's experiences and provides little in the way of explanation of these divergent experiences	There is distance between the reader's experiences and those in the text, but there is acknowledgment of these divergent experiences and sufficient explanation to bridge these gaps	Text contains content that closely matches the reader's life experiences
Prior knowledge	Specialized or technical content knowledge is presumed, and little in the way of review or explanation of these concepts is present in the text	Subject-specific knowledge is required, but the text reviews or summarizes this information	Prior knowledge needed is familiar and draws on a solid foundation of practical, general, and academic learning
Cultural knowledge	Text relies on extensive or unfamiliar references to other texts and uses artifacts and symbols that reference archaic or historical cultures	Text primarily references contemporary and popular culture to anchor explanations for new knowledge; references to other texts are used but are mostly familiar to the reader	Reader uses familiar cultural templates to understand the text; limited or familiar references to other texts
Vocabulary knowledge	Vocabulary demand is extensive, domain-specific, and representative of complex ideas; text offers few context clues to support the reader	Vocabulary draws on domain-specific, general academic, and multiple-meaning words with text support to guide the reader's correct interpretations of their meanings; vocabulary used represents familiar concepts and ideas	Vocabulary is controlled and uses the most commonly held meanings; multiple-meaning words are used in a limited way

Informational Texts: Factors to Consider

Levels of meaning: Can the text be taken literally, or should the reader consider multiple levels of meaning?

Analogies and abstract comparisons: Does the text use analogies and other abstract comparisons (e.g., metaphors) to make abstract connections? Does the reader's prior knowledge match what's needed to interpret these comparisons?

Purpose: Is the purpose of the text explicitly stated, or must the reader analyze the text to derive its purpose?

Genre: Is the genre familiar? Is the genre consistent throughout the text, or are multiple genres embedded within the text (e.g., a procedural text within an expository essay)?

Organization: Does the text use one structural pattern or multiple structural patterns? Are signal words available to support the reader in identifying the text's organization?

Text features: What kinds of features does the text provide to support the reader? How well are these features integrated with the information in the text?

Graphic elements: Are graphic elements provided that support understanding? How much interpretation do these elements require?

Language level: How closely aligned are the text's language and the reader's language?

Register: Is the text's language casual or more formal?

Voice: Is the text's tone more personal or authoritative?

Background knowledge: How closely do the reader's knowledge and experiences match the level of knowledge necessary to understand the text?

Prior knowledge: Is technical or specialized knowledge necessary to understanding the text?

Vocabulary knowledge: How extensive are the vocabulary demands in the text? Does the text provide contextual support for figuring out words?

Informational Texts: Qualitative Rubric

		Three Points (Stretch) Text stretches the reader and/or requires instruction.	Two Points (Grade Level) Text requires grade-appropriate skills.	One Point (Comfortable) Text builds background knowledge, fluency, and skills.
Levels of Meaning and Purpose				
Levels of meaning	Significantly dense and complex with multiple layers of content topics; reader is expected to critique or evaluate information	Multiple layers of specific content; some information must be inferred or integrated with previous content	Single and literal levels of meaning are present; meaning is explicitly stated	
Analogies and abstract comparisons	Metaphors and analogies are abstract and require sophistication and depth of knowledge from the reader; process or phenomenon to make comparison requires prior knowledge	Analogies and metaphors help the reader make connections between new concepts and the reader's knowledge; associations draw on familiar processes and phenomena	Limited use of analogous statements; language relies on literal interpretations	
Purpose	Text may involve multiple purposes, some of which may be implicit; requires reader to critically analyze across texts to discern implicit purposes	Text serves both explicit and implicit purposes, which become evident with close inspection of text	Purpose is directly stated at the beginning of the text and is in evidence throughout text	

	Three Points (Stretch) Text stretches the reader and/or requires instruction.	Two Points (Grade Level) Text requires grade-appropriate skills.	One Point (Comfortable) Text builds background knowledge, fluency, and skills.
Structure			
Genre	Text presented as specific genre but includes other embedded genres	Text exemplifies one genre but deviates from typical characteristics of that genre	Text exemplifies conventional characteristics of one familiar genre
Organization	Text includes variety of conventional organization patterns dictated by text content but with little notification or guidance to reader	More than one conventional organization pattern is used; signal words and phrases are present	One conventional organizational pattern predominates throughout text; signal words and phrases are overt and numerous
Text features	Text contains access features that require the reader to integrate information outside of the text (e.g., from preface, afterward, or author notes)	Text contains conventional access features but also includes detailed information in sidebars, insets, and bulleted lists	Text contains familiar access features such as a table of contents, headings and subheadings, a glossary, and an index
Graphic elements	Text contains less familiar graphic elements that require interpretation and have information that complements and is integrated with text	Text contains graphic elements that require interpretation and have additional information that supplements the text	Text contains familiar graphic elements that repeat information in the text

	Three Points (Stretch) Text stretches the reader and/or requires instruction.	Two Points (Grade Level) Text requires grade-appropriate skills.	One Point (Comfortable) Text builds background knowledge, fluency, and skills.
Language Conventinality and Clarity			
Language level	Text uses unfamiliar language conventions and structures, especially those that reflect voices found in specific content areas	There is some distance between the text's language and the developmental and experiential language of the reader	Language is appropriate to the developmental and experiential level of reader
Register	Domain-specific, formal, and/or scholarly register	Consultative or formal register and may be academic but acknowledges the reader's developmental level; humorous or casual language may be used in titles and headings and subheadings	Casual and familiar register; humorous language may be used throughout to engage reader in information
Voice	Strong authoritative voice dominates; language is used to impart knowledge to reader and makes little effort to engage reader on personal level	Vocabulary and diction invite reader's curiosity about the text content while presenting information with an authoritative tone	Information presented in straightforward way; may use second-person language and personal tone to draw reader into text
Knowledge and Demands			
Background knowledge	Content demands specialized knowledge beyond reader's experiences and provides no bridge or scaffolding between known and unknown	Content represents distance between reader's experiences, but text provides explanations to bridge gap between what is known and unknown	Content closely matches reader's lived experiences and experiences gained through other media
Prior knowledge	Specialized or technical content knowledge is presumed; little review or explanation of these concepts present in text	Subject-specific knowledge required but augmented with review or summary of information	Prior knowledge needed to understand text, which is familiar and draws on solid foundation of practical, general, and academic learning
Vocabulary knowledge	Vocabulary demand is extensive, domain-specific, and representative of complex ideas; few context clues to support reader	Vocabulary draws on domain-specific, general academic, and multiple-meaning words with text supports to guide reader's correct interpretations of meanings; represents familiar concepts and ideas	Controlled vocabulary that uses most commonly held meanings; multiple-meaning words are used in a limited way

Adapted from Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2016.

Magnetism

Magnetism is an invisible force or field that causes certain materials to be attracted to or repelled from each other. A **magnet** produces a **magnetic field** that attracts metals, especially iron and steel, and other magnets. Magnetism may seem like magic, but it's not. We have learned a lot about magnets over the last century.

TYPES OF MAGNETS

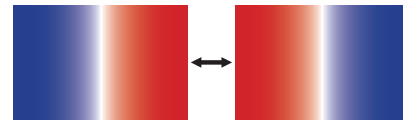
There are different types of magnets. Certain metals can be **magnetized**, or turned into magnets, easily. These metals are called **ferromagnetic**, and they are described as either hard or soft magnetic materials.

Soft magnetic materials such as iron quickly lose their magnetism. They are used to create **temporary magnets**. Hard ferromagnetic materials such as steel stay magnetized for much longer. They are used to make **permanent magnets**.

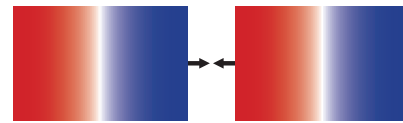
POLES

Ever heard the phrase “opposites attract”? This phrase describes magnets perfectly. All magnets have two poles—a **north** or **north-seeking pole** and a **south** or **south-seeking pole**. The north pole of one magnet will pull toward, or **attract**, the south pole of another magnet. Additionally, like poles push away, or **repel**, one another. If you put a north pole next to another north pole, you'll find it difficult to get them close to each other.

Like poles repel each other.



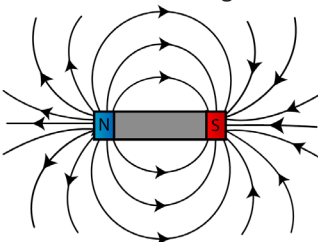
Unlike poles attract each other.



If a magnet hangs from a string tied around its middle or floats on water, it will always line up in a north-south direction. The north and south poles of the magnet are attracted to the south and north poles of the Earth. Our planet is like one giant magnet!

MAGNETIC FIELDS

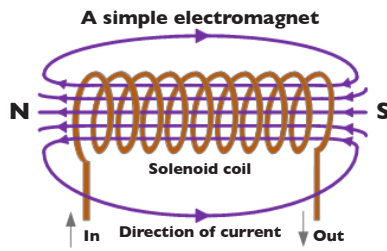
Magnetic flux lines showing the direction of the magnetic field around a bar magnet



The lines are closest near the poles, where the field is strongest.

The area around a magnet in which objects are affected by its magnetic force is called a **magnetic field**. When drawing a magnetic field, scientists show the strength and direction of the magnetic field with **magnetic flux lines**. The lines' arrows show the field's direction, and where the lines are closest together, the magnetic field is the strongest.

Because it acts like a giant magnet, the Earth itself has a magnetic field. This is why a compass's north pole points toward **magnetic north**, and its south pole points toward **magnetic south**. These two points are slightly different from the geographic North and South Poles.



ELECTROMAGNETISM

An electric current produces a magnetic field around a wire as the electric current flows through the wire. This is called **electromagnetism**. The wire's magnetic field can be strengthened if the wire is wound in a coil. When a current passes through the coil, the coil acts like a magnet and is called a **solenoid**. The area inside the coil is called the **core**.

If a solenoid has a bar of soft magnetic material such as iron inside it, the bar quickly magnetizes and adds its own magnetic field to that of the solenoid. Together the solenoid and the magnetic core create an **electromagnet**. The position of the north and south poles in an electromagnet depends on which direction the current is flowing through the wire.

Systematic Instruction: Comprehension Checklist

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

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

Instrucción sistemática: Lista de control para comprensión

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

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

English Language Learners and Reading Comprehension Instruction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Scaffold comprehension.

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

Be explicit and model effective comprehension strategies.

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

Check comprehension and monitor progress frequently.

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

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

Examples of Formal Comprehension Assessments

Retell

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

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

Cloze (Oral or Written)

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

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

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

Maze

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

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

Multiple Choice

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

Example 1

Read line 4 from the poem:

I struggled to keep up.

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

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

Example 2

The author includes headings in bold print to –

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

Example 3

What is the best summary of this article?

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

Open-Ended Response (Oral or Written)

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

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

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

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

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

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

Sample Comprehension Lesson

OUTCOME

Students learn to ask questions about what they read.

DESCRIPTION

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

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

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

INTRODUCING QUESTION TYPES

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

LEVEL 1: “RIGHT THERE” QUESTIONS

TEACHER-MODELED PHASE

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Sample text continues on the following page.

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

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

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

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

(Source: **Time For Kids: World Report**
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Teacher: To create a "right there" question, I need to find information that's in only one place in the passage.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

TEACHER-SUPPORTED PHASE

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

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

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

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

LEVEL 2: “THINK AND SEARCH” QUESTIONS

TEACHER-MODELED PHASE

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

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

Why is learning to create and answer questions important?

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

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

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

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

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

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

TEACHER-SUPPORTED PHASE

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

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

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

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

Continue with straightforward sentences before moving on to paragraphs.

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

LEVEL 3: “MAKING CONNECTIONS” QUESTIONS

TEACHER-MODELED PHASE

Introduce “making connections” questions.

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

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

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

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

TEACHER-SUPPORTED PHASE

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

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

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

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Taking a Closer Look

Comprehension component: Asking questions about a text

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

Explicit, Systematic Instruction
Modeling
Scaffolded Practice
Immediate Feedback

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Helpful Websites

School-Home Links Reading Kit (archived): www.ed.gov/pubs/CompactforReading/tablek.html

U.S. Department of Education free educational materials: www.edpubs.gov

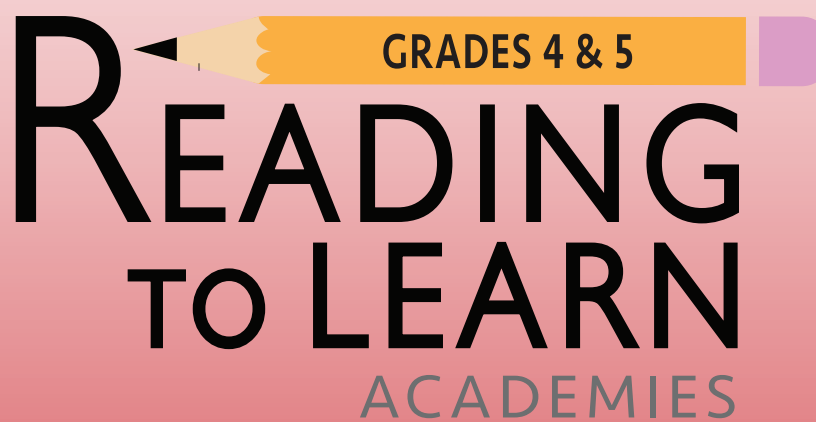
Colorín Colorado: www.colorincolorado.org

Reading Rockets, PBS Launching Young Readers: www.readingrockets.org/shows/launching



Comprehension

Presenter Resources



GRADE 4

Scavenger Hunt

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

1. In fourth grade, which type of transition words are students expected to develop an understanding of when reading? Can you list examples?
Time-order transition words (e.g., "later," "then," "first," "eventually," "finally")
Transitions that indicate a conclusion (e.g., "in conclusion," "to conclude," "thus," "for this reason")
2. In relation to sensory language, what is the difference between what third-graders are expected to do and what fourth-graders are expected to do?
Third-graders must learn to identify sensory language in general, and fourth-graders must learn to identify the use of similes and metaphors specifically.
3. In what grade are students expected to distinguish fact from opinion?
Fourth grade
4. In which grade are students expected to begin summarizing texts?
Third grade
5. Between what kinds of texts are students expected to make connections starting in third grade?
Literary and informational texts
6. In which grade are students expected to begin making inferences?
Kindergarten
7. Which specific strategies for monitoring and adjusting comprehension are mentioned in the TEKS?
Using background knowledge, creating sensory images, rereading a portion of text aloud, generating questions
8. In fourth grade, which type of techniques used in media are students expected to explain the positive and negative effects of?
Advertisement techniques

Adapted from Texas Education Agency, 2009.

Activities for Building Connections Within and Across Sentences

Syntax Surgery

Read a text and note all the cohesive inferences needed to make sense of the text. Pay attention to connectives, pronouns and their referents, the renaming of nouns, etc. These are all elements of text that we often do not realize we are attending to as we read to build meaning.

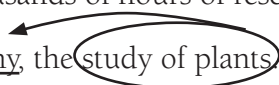
Choose pieces of the text to model how you make these connections.

As you read the text aloud to students, perform “syntax surgery” on the text. In other words, think aloud about the connections you are making between ideas, pronouns and their referents, etc., and “mark up” the passage by putting a circle or square around words and drawing arrows connecting them.

Example 1: “I do”

Here’s an example showing how to connect an appositive with the noun it defines:

After eight years of graduate work—including thousands of hours of research and work with microscopes—Dennis earned a Ph.D. in botany, the study of plants

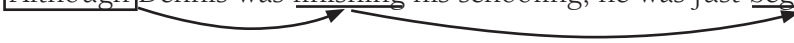
A diagram illustrating the connection between an appositive and the noun it defines. The word "botany" is underlined, and the phrase "the study of plants" is circled. A curved arrow points from the circled phrase to the underlined word, indicating that the phrase renames the word.

When you read the phrase “the study of plants,” think aloud about what that phrase is doing. Circle “the study of plants” and draw an arrow to what it renames.

Example 2: “We do”

Here’s an example from the same text focusing on a connective:

Although Dennis was finishing his schooling, he was just beginning a lifetime of scientific learning and discovery.

A diagram illustrating the use of a connective. The word "Although" is boxed, "finishing" is underlined, and "beginning" is underlined. Two curved arrows originate from the box around "Although": one points to "finishing" and the other points to "beginning", showing how the connective links two contrasting parts of the sentence.

Read the word *although*. Stop and put a square around it. Tell students that this is a signal word that shows that there will be a contrast. Keep reading. Emphasize the words *finishing* and *beginning*. Go back and underline these two words. Draw an arrow from *although* to *finishing* and another arrow from *finishing* to *beginning*. Think aloud about how the author used *although* to contrast two parts of the scientist’s life—being in school and working as a scientist. This sentence acts as a transition between the first part of the text, which talks about the scientist’s schooling, to the next part, which tells about his work as a scientist. This is also an example of parallel structure.

Suggestion: When using this strategy, do not teach all cohesive elements in a text. Instead, pick one to focus on, like pronouns and their referents. Also, teach and have students practice the strategy in different types of texts—narrative, expository, and persuasive.

Syntax Surgery Activity

Here is another example from the same text, *Hidden Worlds: Looking Through a Scientist's Microscope*. Perform syntax surgery on the text, focusing on pronouns and their referents.

Dennis and the other scientists kept careful records of the kinds of living things that returned to the lakes and when they reappeared. They identified the kinds of algae, protozoans, bacteria, and crustaceans they found. Later, Dennis and the team also discovered that frogs and fish were returning to some of these lakes, apparently carried in by surrounding streams.

The diagram illustrates syntax surgery on the text. It shows three pronouns circled: 'they' (first), 'They' (second), and 'they' (third). Arrows indicate the referents: one arrow points from the first 'they' to 'Dennis and the other scientists', and another arrow points from 'that' to 'living things'. The text is also underlined for emphasis.

Identifying Main Ideas and Writing a Summary

Student Name: _____

Date: _____

Paragraph	Who or What (Topic)	Important Information	Main Idea Sentence (About 10 words or less)
1	Worms	<p>Their work improves soil.</p> <p>A million worms live in one acre.</p> <p>Their work helps plants grow.</p>	Billions of worm workers improve soil and help plants grow.
2	Worm tunneling	<p>It helps plant roots get air and water.</p> <p>Worms eat the soil and put it somewhere else.</p> <p>It brings up minerals and puts them closer to plant roots.</p>	Worm tunneling helps plant roots get water, air, and minerals.
3	Worm recycling	<p>Worms recycle soil nutrients.</p> <p>They digest plant matter and release nutrients into soil.</p> <p>Plant roots absorb the nutrients.</p>	Worms digest plant matter and release nutrients, which plant roots absorb.

Summary:

Billions of worms perform underground jobs, like tunneling and recycling nutrients, that improve soil and help plants grow.

STARTER SENTENCE FOR PARAGRAPH 1:

Millions and millions of worms work underground at jobs to improve soil and help plants grow.

STARTER SENTENCE FOR PARAGRAPH 2:

Worm tunneling helps plant roots get water and air, and it brings minerals closer to plant roots.

STARTER SENTENCE FOR PARAGRAPH 3:

Worms recycle soil nutrients by digesting plant matter and releasing it into the soil, where plant roots absorb it.

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

Teaching Within Disciplinary Texts

Using the texts in Handout 17, answer the following questions.

Literary Text: Poem

What literacy and linguistic elements could you teach with this poem?

Point of view, imagery, alliteration, repetition

Poetic structures: stanza structure, free verse, use of punctuation or lack of punctuation

Which of these elements is more abstract and, thus, more difficult to help students see and understand?

Point of view: A young eagle learning to fly

Imagery: Where it says, "...the air itself as it swells and swirls around our rocky cliff." Air is invisible, so how can the narrator see it? How does this relate to the point of view?

Is it important to think about who wrote this poem? Would that knowledge help you better understand the poem?

No, not really. It's more important to focus on the use of language and imagery in the poem.

Historical Explanation

What technical terms would you have to preteach to ensure that students understand this text? (One of these terms is an example of "metaphorical terminology." Do you know which one? How would you teach it?)

"annexation," "debts," "responsibility," "disagreements," "concern," "slavery," "southern states," "enslaved," "the North"

Metaphorical term: "The North" is a way of referring to the northern states during this time.

How is this text organized? How would you use this information to help students make sense of the text?

The first paragraph provides a problem. The next paragraph lists three reasons for the problem: Texas' debts, Mexican and American Indian attacks, and slavery.

You could use a graphic organizer with the problem in one box and attach it to three smaller boxes, one for each reason.

Scientific Description

What technical terms would you have to preteach to ensure that students understand this text? "offspring," "species," "cross," "reproduce," "attributes," "pollen," "variety," "experiment," "produce" ("hybrid" and "sterile" are both defined within the text)

What words of Latin or Greek origin could you use to teach morphology?

"hybrid," "species," "reproduce," "attributes," "produce"

How is this text organized? How could you use this information to help students make sense of the text?

A biological term is defined ("hybrid"). The first paragraph then describes two aspects of an animal hybrid. The next paragraph gives an example of an animal that's a hybrid. The third paragraph describes plant hybrids and how they're created naturally and by humans.

You could put "hybrid" with its definition in the center of a web. On one side, you could put "animal hybrids" and write their aspects and the example. On the other side, you could put "plant hybrids" and write how they're created.

Mathematics: Word Problems

What technical terms do students need to understand to complete each problem?

Problem 1: "cubes," "rectangular prism," "edge length," "layers," "volume," "cubic inches"

Problem 2: "rectangular," "square," "length," "area," "square meters"

As you work through each problem, how could you connect the text with graphic elements—either those provided or those you create in your mind?

In the first problem, it helps to visualize 42 cubes creating a rectangle. Then, I imagine stacking six more rectangles with 42 cubes each on top. This helps me to see that I will need to multiply 42 by 7 to figure out how many cubes there are total, which will give me the volume. (It may help some people to actually draw this on the paper.)

In the second problem, I initially read the words and went back and forth between them and the graphic. Then, I wrote the numbers 7 and 5 on the graphic. That helped me to see what the sides of the corn section would be. Then, I just had to multiply those numbers to get its area.

Expert mathematicians reread extensively to identify and correct errors. Did you find yourself rereading the problems or parts of them to ensure accuracy? In the second word problem, which parts did you reread most?

Yes. I read the whole problem first. I reread the bulleted list a couple of times, going back and forth between what it said and the graphic. Then, I wrote the numbers on the graphic. I then reread each bullet, checking to make sure I had written the numbers correctly. I read the question at the end again and looked at my graphic. I wrote the numbers for the corn section on the graphic. I reread the question again and then answered it.

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Word study and recognition (30–45 minutes)			
Fluency (10–15 minutes)			

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners	
Vocabulary (10–15 minutes)			
Comprehension (25–30 minutes)			
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Use content-rich texts across genres• Conduct read-alouds with think-alouds to model effective comprehension• Explicitly teach comprehension strategies through modeling and guided practice• Use graphic organizers when teaching comprehension strategies and thinking• Ask questions to model and practice coherence and elaborative inferences• Use graphic organizers to teach text structures• Participate in sentence-level activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Complete simple graphic organizers (e.g., text structures)• Listen to text with no book and stop occasionally to draw mental images• Apply comprehension strategies with narrative and informational texts• Engage in sentence activities, including syntax surgery and sentence combining and deconstructing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provide extensive modeling and guided practice• Break strategies into smaller steps• Use visualization and graphic organizers• Ask questions at various levels to scaffold thinking	<p>Build background knowledge by explaining concepts more in depth and bringing in visuals to connect to ideas</p>


Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Writing (20–30 minutes)			

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Comprehension

Activity Resources

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black lead tip, positioned horizontally behind the text.
READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4



Slide—Modeling Effective Questioning and Thinking Aloud: Examples



At your table, number off one to three.

- Ones will use the first text and lesson plan on the handout **Modeling Effective Questioning and Considering the Author's Intentions**.
- Twos will use the second text and lesson plan.
- Threes will use the third text and lesson plan.

Read your assigned text and lesson plan.

With the others in your numbered group, discuss the plan and decide who will model the read-aloud.

At your tables, whoever was chosen to model will be the teacher. The rest are students.

Practice the read-aloud and questioning with all three texts.



Slide—Using Comprehension Purpose Questions



Read page 1 of the handout **Comprehension Purpose Questions**.

Underline key words or phrases that help answer the question, “What is important to remember when setting a comprehension purpose question?”

Work with a partner to complete the chart on page 2.

Check your answers on page 4. Discuss with your partner any discrepancies between your answers and the answer key.



Slide—Ways to Support High-Quality Discussions



Skim the first section on page 1 of the handout **Guidelines for High-Quality Discussions**.

Highlight key ideas in that section as you skim.

Then skim the next section on page 1.

With a partner, write five sample question stems that can help you and your students ask higher-level questions to spark effective discussions.

Skim the next section, on page 2.

With a partner, write a few follow-up questions to help you and your students clarify thinking, elaborate responses, and tie responses to the text.



Slide—Examining Qualitative Complexity: Literary Versus Informational Texts



Look over the handout **Analyzing Text Complexity**.

Using the literary text rubric on pages 2 to 4, work with a partner to analyze the first chapter of *Holes* (Handout 4, page 4).

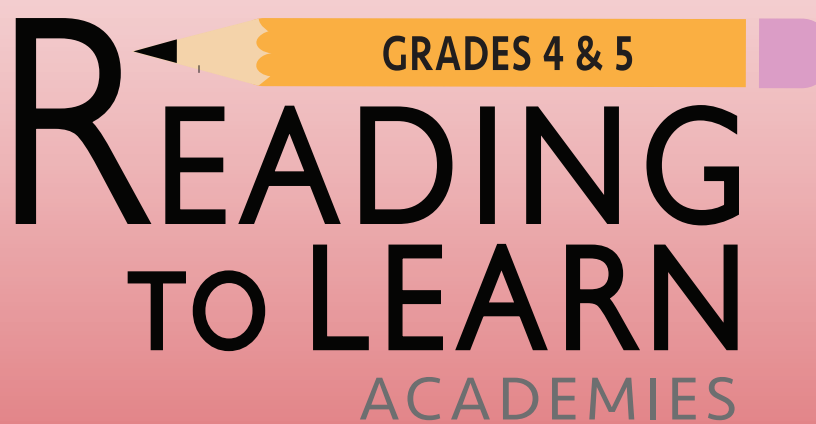
Using the informational text rubric on pages 6 to 8, work with a partner to analyze the science text on pages 9 to 10.

Share.



Writing

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Document camera
- Clipboard with blank paper for recording participant responses to show on document camera
- Laser pointer
- Word cards with the words *bandit*, *hated*, *the*, *cold*, *and*, *wind*, and *rain*
- Prepared copy of Handout 17, highlighting the “I do,” “We do,” and “You do” steps
- Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary
- Video: Peer Conferencing and Editing

Participant Materials

Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary

Materials to Provide Each Table

- Guiding Questions document (two per table)
- Blank index cards
- Markers



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Writing

Slide 1—Title Slide

(0:00–0:30)

We have mentioned various components of writing instruction in earlier sessions. For example, in the Word Study and Recognition session, we discussed the importance of integrating spelling with decoding instruction. In the Fluency session, we briefly shared the importance of handwriting fluency and writing fluency. In the Comprehension session, we provided several sentence-level activities to develop students' understanding of syntax.

Now we will extend our knowledge of writing instruction and why it is important to include in an effective fourth-grade literacy program.

Section Objectives



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

- writing across content areas,
- understanding the writing process, and
- writing for a variety of purposes and audiences.



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:30–2:00)

Take a moment to review the objectives on the slide. These objectives should guide your learning in this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.

Let's return to the reading rope. Find Handout 1: The Reading Rope in your folder. This handout is from the Overview section of this academy.

As participants locate the handout, display your copy on the document camera.

Take a moment to review the handout. We know that when students read to learn new information, they must use all of the reading strands seamlessly.

Pause for a moment for participants to reflect.

Writing is a complex activity that involves all the strands of the reading rope, along with planning and consideration of audience, purpose, idea development,

organization, expressive language, working memory, fine motor control, and spelling, just to name a few. As we dive into this section, keep in mind the two domains of skilled reading—language comprehension and word recognition—and how they contribute to the skills students need to become fluent writers.

Allow a few seconds. Then ask participants to place the handout back in the folder.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Previewing Quick-Write



- Reflect on your current writing instructional practices.
- Quickly write your ideas that relate to teaching writing in each of the writing instructional areas on Handout 1.
- Conclude the quick-write with two sentences that summarize your thoughts about teaching writing in fourth grade.



Slide 3—Previewing Quick-Write

(2:00–6:00)

We will begin with a “quick-write.” In quick-writes, students take one to three minutes to write fluently about a topic. Quick-writes are one way students can write about their thinking and learning before, during, or after instruction. Quick-writes can be used in different content areas to monitor student progress and understanding.

Please locate **Handout 1: Quick-Writes for Teaching Writing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

On this handout, five areas of research-based writing instruction are listed. Take a few minutes to write a sentence or two about your current writing instruction in relation to each component. Then, at the bottom, write a sentence or two describing how you feel about teaching writing.

Provide three minutes for participants to work.

As we address each of these areas related to writing instruction, you may want to reflect back on how your thinking from this quick-write changes.

References

Cunningham, Moore, Cunningham, & Moore, 2003; Graham et al., 2012

What We Know From Research



- Provide daily opportunities for students to write.
- Teach handwriting, spelling, and syntax skills explicitly.
- Model and have students practice writing strategies for different purposes and audiences.
- Teach the writing process explicitly.
- Create a community of writers in your classroom.



Slide 4—What We Know From Research

(6:00–9:30)

Research-based elementary writing instruction is described in the practice guide *Teaching Elementary School Students to be Effective Writers*. The authors claim that students who develop strong writing skills at an early age acquire a valuable tool for learning, communication, and self-expression.

Locate **Handout 2: Recommendations From *Teaching Elementary School Students to be Effective Writers***.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

Read the research-supported recommendations and highlight key words and phrases. Then, share two words or phrases that you highlighted with your tablemates.

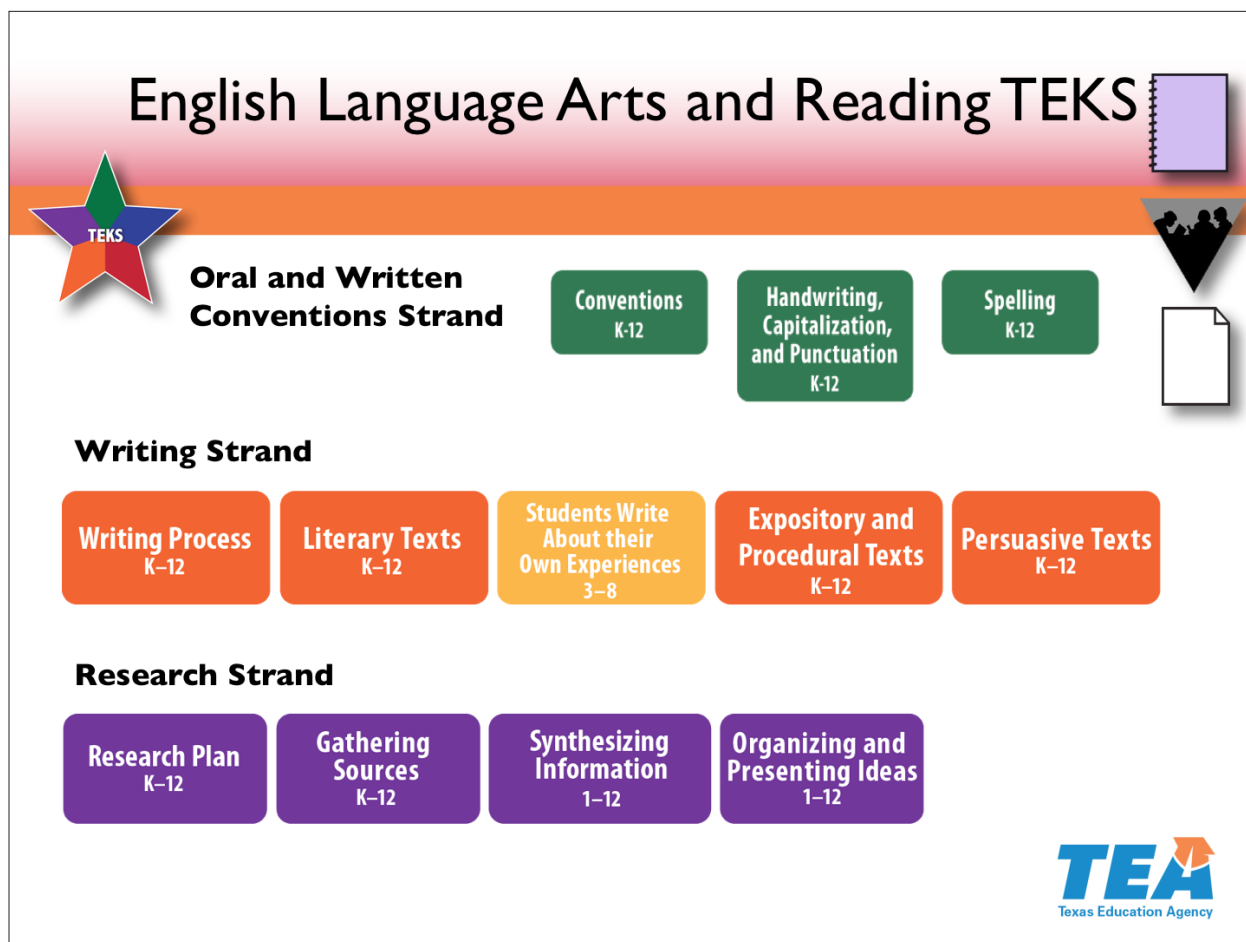
Allow two minutes for participants to work. Key words or phrases could include “daily time,” “writing process,” “variety of purposes,” “handwriting,” “spelling,” “sentence construction,” and “engaged writers.” Walk around and listen to the discussions.

At the end of two minutes, call on a few participants to share their thinking with the whole group.

During this session, we will use these research-based recommendations as a framework to introduce instructional practices and strategies for teaching writing.

Reference

Graham et al., 2012



Slide 5—English Language Arts and Reading TEKS (9:30–16:30)

Locate the Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment chart in your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Writing is addressed in the Oral and Written Conventions, Writing, and Research strands. These expectations can be found on pages 1 through 4 of the Alignment chart.

Now we will do an activity that shows how these expectations relate to the components of effective writing instruction listed on the previous slide. Locate **Handout 3: Writing TEKS and Research-Based Recommendations**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

Using the TEKS Alignment chart, work with a partner to answer the questions in Handout 3. I will give you four minutes.

Allow four minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the four minutes, display Presenter Resource 1 on the document camera so that participants can check their answers.

As you can see, the TEKS address components of effective writing instruction outlined in the research. We will begin with the first element—allocating daily time to writing instruction and practice.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2009

Allocating Daily Time to Writing



How much time does research indicate should be spent on daily writing instruction and practice in fourth grade?

A minimum of one hour



Slide 6—Allocating Daily Time to Writing

(16:30–19:30)

How much time does research say we should spend on writing instruction and practice every day in fourth grade?

Click to show the answer on the slide.

We should spend a minimum of one hour every day. The researchers recommended 30 minutes per day teaching handwriting, spelling, and writing strategies and the other 30 minutes practicing writing and applying these skills and strategies.

On recent surveys, elementary teachers reported that students spend little time writing during the school day. Your daily commitment to writing communicates its importance to students. Ensure that your students write every day so they get the practice they need.

Do you have enough time every day to incorporate at least one hour of writing instruction and practice? Some of you may say, “No,” but the research shows the benefits of such learning. So how can we make it happen?

Activity

Talk with your colleagues to brainstorm ideas. I will give you one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Write participants’ ideas on a sheet of paper on a clipboard. Use the document camera accountability energizer to quickly share participants’ ideas, which might include the following:

- *Integrating reading and writing activities so that students read to write and write to read*
- *Creating a writing workstation for students to visit daily*
- *Integrating writing across the content areas*

One method for increasing daily writing practice is integrating writing across all content areas, including math, science, social studies, art, and music.

References

Cutler & Graham, 2008; Graham, Harris, Fink-Chorzempa, & MacArthur, 2003; Graham et al., 2012

Writing Across the Curriculum



- Every classroom can use writing as part of instruction.
- The opportunity to write in every class develops effective writers.
- Integration of writing in areas like math, science, and social studies helps students to clarify their thinking and facilitates content learning.
- This integration also promotes student participation and engagement.



Slide 7—Writing Across the Curriculum

(19:30–23:30)

No matter the subject, students should write to develop their thinking and help them learn the content.

Writing activities might be more formal like creating a letter from the perspective of a story's character or composing a poem about a science topic. However, writing activities can also be less formal. Examples include brainstorming ideas learned during a discussion or responding to a prompt before learning such as, "We will talk about citizenship. What do you think it means to be a good citizen?" Such informal writing can help students clarify their thinking, activate background knowledge, and put ideas together in new and creative ways.

Locate **Handout 4: Integrating Writing Across the Curriculum**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout. Display the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Activity

This handout lists multiple writing activities that can be incorporated into almost any content area lesson. Take a minute to read the handout. As you read, choose the top two activities that would enhance your content area instruction. Write a one next to your first choice and a two next to your second choice. Then, share your choices with your partner. You will have two minutes for this activity.

Allow two minutes for participants to complete the activity. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of two minutes, call on a few participants to share one of their choices with the whole group.

Rather than having students write to communicate, these activities focus on students writing to learn. We will look more in depth at what we mean by “writing to learn.”

References

Daniels, Zemelman, & Steineke, 2007; Klein & Yu, 2013; Shanahan, 2004

Writing to Learn



“If the purpose were more cognitive than communicative, one would expect to see writing instruction and activity taking place in all of the disciplines ... We are talking about a writing assignment with learning, rather than communication, as the major point.”

— Shanahan, 2004, pp. 51 and 60



Slide 8—Writing to Learn

(23:30–29:00)

Tim Shanahan differentiates two instructional purposes for writing—to communicate and to learn. We should implement cognitive writing, or writing to learn, across the content areas. Shanahan emphasizes the need for students to practice writing across the curriculum and the importance of making learning the focal point of writing assignments. He focuses on the need to view student writing as a learning process.

Locate **Handout 5: Writing to Learn: Examples**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides two examples of how a writing-to-learn activity—the silent conversation—could be used in a mathematics class. The activities are provided in English and Spanish. We will try one of them.

Activity

Read the statement at the top of page 1.

Pause for participants to read the statement.

Think about what this statement means to you.

Pause for participants to think about the statement.

Now, you will have a silent conversation with your partner about this statement. First, you will each have one minute to write on the first page of the handout what this statement means to you. Then, you will trade papers and respond to each other's explanation in writing. Just as in a conversation, you will have the chance to respond back and forth until I stop the discussion. Ready?

Set a timer for one minute and tell participants to begin. After one minute, have them switch papers with their partners. Allow one minute for them to respond. Then have them switch papers back and let them respond again for one minute.

The second example includes an opportunity to complete a step-by-step math problem and uses a silent conversation to explain the reasoning for the process and the response to the reasoning. Take a moment to review the example.

Pause for participants to review the second example.

This activity can be differentiated in multiple ways to support all learners, including students with dyslexia, English language learners, and students with individualized educational plans. Some of the ways differentiation could be implemented are

- strategically pairing students based on content knowledge, language proficiency, or reading and writing abilities;
- providing the opportunity to discuss the statement prior to writing;
- providing sentence stems;
- referencing anchor charts;
- generating word banks; and
- allowing students to create illustrations, labels, bulleted lists and/or complete sentences in their responses.

Now we will look at effective features of writing to learn.

References

Daniels et al., 2007; Klein & Yu, 2013; Shanahan, 2004, pp. 51 and 60

Writing to Learn: Effective Practices

- Provide frequent, brief opportunities for students to write across the curriculum.
- Focus on the ideas and what they tell you about student understanding. Do not grade based on spelling, handwriting, organization, grammar, punctuation, or capitalization.
- Use these activities as an informal method for monitoring student progress in learning the content.



Slide 9—Writing to Learn: Effective Practices

(29:00–30:00)

As described in Handout 4, teachers can support student learning by providing frequent, brief opportunities to write. For example, within a 45-minute science lesson, you can have students complete

- a two-minute prewrite at the beginning of the lesson,
- a three-minute nonstop write in the middle of the lesson, and
- a six-minute silent conversation at the end of the lesson to wrap it up.

When assessing students' writing within these writing-to-learn activities, focus on the ideas, not on spelling, handwriting, or grammar. If you focus on these other elements rather than the ideas, students may shut down and refuse to put their ideas on paper. Remember, the emphasis is on learning and developing content knowledge through writing, not on effectively communicating with an audience.

Providing more extended, formal writing opportunities like creating reports, letters, essays, or poems should also be done across content areas, but these writing

activities shift the focus back to both idea development and communication with an audience.

Now, we will discuss more formal writing instruction and practice supported by the research. We will begin with one of the basics—handwriting.

References

Daniels et al., 2007; Klein & Yu, 2013; Marshall, 1987; Newell & Winograd, 1989; Shanahan, 2004

Why We Should Care About Handwriting: The Presentation Effect

“Non-content factors, such as legibility or spelling correctness, influence readers’ judgments about the quality of ideas in a written text.”

— Santangelo & Graham, 2016, p. 226

“To place the obtained effects in perspective, the score for a typical paper would drop from the 50th percentile to between the 22nd and 10th percentiles if it was written by a school-age student with poor but readable handwriting.”

— Graham, Harris, & Hebert, 2011, p. 10



Slide 10—Why We Should Care About Handwriting: The Presentation Effect (30:00–31:00)

Graham and his colleagues describe two reasons for teaching handwriting effectively. The first reason is what they call the Presentation Effect. Research demonstrates that, in general, a reader’s evaluation of a composition’s quality is influenced by how neatly it is written.

The second quotation on the slide comes from a meta-analysis examining the Presentation Effect. Take a moment to read that quotation.

Pause for participants to read.

Think about what they found. It is powerful. An average paper would drop into the bottom quartile simply because it did not look good. Is that fair to the writer of that paper? Whether it is fair or not, it is what the research found.

Let’s look at an example of student writing to illustrate the Presentation Effect.

References

Graham, Harris, & Hebert, 2011, p. 10; Santangelo & Graham, 2016, p. 226

A Student's Handwriting



← Dear Mary Downing Hahn,
 Hello my name is Zachary
 ← and I like your book Took
 ← and I want you to make
 ← another one of those ghost
 ← stories I like that you write
 ← ghost stories because
 ← I love horror. I like that
 you're a writer and a librarian
 and you've been writing
 children's books for 30
 years. I really want to
 read

Dear Mary Downing Hahn,
 Hello, my name is Zachary, and I like
 your book Took, and I want you to make another
 ghost story. I like that you write ghost stories
 because I love horror. I like that you're a writer
 and a librarian, and you've been writing
 children's ^{books} for 30 years. I really want to read the

Slide 11—A Student's Handwriting

(31:00–33:00)

Locate Handout 6: The Presentation Effect: Handwriting Samples.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

Compare and contrast the samples. With a partner, discuss and answer the questions on both pages of the handout.

Allow one minute for participants to complete the activity. Walk around and listen to the discussions.

The content of both samples is exactly the same, but the second one looks much better. For many of us, it would be difficult to rate both pieces of writing the same. Simply looking at the first one might make us think this is a struggling writer.

Notes continue on the next page.

The only reason the student wrote the second sample is because the teacher held him accountable for using good penmanship and conventions they had learned. Are we holding students accountable for using neat handwriting?

Are we ensuring they can use good penmanship by explicitly teaching handwriting? We will look at another reason for providing such instruction.

References

Graham et al., 2011; Santangelo & Graham, 2016; Texas Education Agency, 2009

Another Reason to Care About Handwriting: The Writer Effect

“Handwriting interferes with other writing processes or consumes an inordinate amount of cognitive resources, at least until handwriting becomes automatic and fluent ... Handwriting-instructed students made greater gains than peers who did not receive handwriting instruction in the quality of their writing, how much they wrote, and writing fluency.”

— Santangelo & Graham, 2016, p. 226



Slide 12—Another Reason to Care About Handwriting: The Writer Effect

(33:00–33:30)

The second reason that educational scientists give for teaching handwriting effectively is called the Writer Effect. Research demonstrates that handwriting difficulties interfere with other writing processes such as expression of ideas and organization.

In fact, a 2016 meta-analysis showed that handwriting instruction improved students' writing fluency, quantity, and quality. The findings of this research report were dramatic, showing moderate effects on writing fluency and very large effects on the number of words students wrote and the quality of their compositions.

Reference

Santangelo & Graham, 2016, p. 226

Supporting Students Struggling With Handwriting



1. Show students how to hold a pencil.
2. Model efficient and legible letter formation.
3. Provide multiple opportunities for students to practice effective letter formation.
4. Use scaffolds, such as letters with numbered arrows showing the order and direction of strokes.
5. Have students practice writing letters from memory.
6. Provide handwriting fluency practice to build students' automaticity.
7. Practice handwriting in short sessions.



Slide 13—Supporting Students Struggling With Handwriting

(33:30–37:30)

Research shows that effective handwriting instruction improves both the amount and quality of students' writing. So we should teach handwriting not only for its own sake, but also to build students' composing abilities and motivation.

How many of you have fourth-graders who are still struggling with writing legibly?

Pause for participants to raise their hands.

If you have students who continue to struggle with handwriting in fourth grade, you will need to address these problems using evidence-based instruction.

This slide lists research-based elements of effective handwriting instruction. These guidelines apply to both manuscript and cursive handwriting. Locate **Handout 7: Guidelines for Teaching Handwriting**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides more information about each of the guidelines listed on the slide. Again, these guidelines may not apply to your entire class. Instead, you may need to use these instructional methods in small groups with students whose penmanship is illegible or dysfluent. Take two minutes to examine the handout and mark a star next to three techniques you will use to support students struggling with handwriting.

*Allow two minutes for participants to examine the handout and mark their choices.
Use the cold call energizer to have a few participants share their choices.*

Often, administrators or teachers say these guidelines are outdated due to technological advances. They argue that teaching handwriting is unnecessary because computer keyboarding will make pen-and-pencil writing obsolete. Let's review what research tells us about these ideas.

References

Berninger et al., 1997; Berninger et al., 2006; Denton, Cope, & Moser, 2006; Feder & Majnemer, 2007; Graham et al., 2012; Graham, Harris, & Fink, 2000; Graham & Weintraub, 1996; Karlsdottir & Stefansson, 2002; Schlagal, 2013

Handwriting Versus Keyboarding



- Pen-and-paper handwriting has been shown to have advantages over keyboarding for elementary and intermediate students, including in the amount written, writing rate, and number of ideas expressed.
- Writing by hand activates areas of the brain that keyboarding does not, which helps build neural networks among visual, auditory, and motor areas that help students read and spell words effectively.
- Taking notes by hand versus on a computer resulted in improved content learning and attention during class discussions for college students.

Which of these findings provides the strongest reason for having students write by hand over keyboarding?



Slide 14—Handwriting Versus Keyboarding

(37:30–40:00)

Research in the past 30 years consistently shows advantages of learning to write by hand over keyboarding, especially for elementary and intermediate students but even for older students, including those in college. The slide lists a few specific advantages of handwriting versus keyboarding.

Activity

Take a moment to read the advantages on the slide.

Provide one minute for participants to read.

Now, think about your response to the question on the slide.

Pause for participants to think about their answer to the question.

Turn to your partner and share your answer. Be sure to tell why you think it is the most compelling finding.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss their responses. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the minute, call on a few participants to share their choices and reasoning with the whole group.

References

Berninger, 2012; Connelly, Gee, & Walsh, 2007; Graham et al., 2012; National Association of State Boards of Education, 2012; Peverly, 2012

Teaching Keyboarding

Technology Applications, Grades 3–5

6(E) The student is expected to use **proper touch keyboarding techniques** and ergonomic strategies such as correct hand and body positions and **smooth and rhythmic keystrokes**.



Slide 15—Teaching Keyboarding

(40:00–41:00)

Although keyboarding should not replace effective handwriting, students do need to develop effective keyboarding skills. In fact, in the technology applications expectations, students in grades 3 to 5 are expected to develop effective typing techniques. These techniques include positioning the hand over the keyboard correctly and using effective keystrokes.

Research shows that direct keyboarding instruction and practice can improve both the quality and quantity of student writing. As with handwriting instruction, keyboarding lessons should be short and focused. Handwriting and keyboarding should be part of every elementary school's curriculum, along with other elements like spelling, syntax, and grammar.

In the Comprehension section, we learned a few activities for teaching grammar and syntax. Let's learn a few others.

References

Abbott, Berninger, & Fayol, 2010; Berninger, 2012; Burke & Cizek, 2006; Christensen, 2004; Connelly, Gee, & Walsh, 2007; Feder & Majnemer, 2007; Graham et al., 2012; Texas Education Agency, 2011

Building Syntactic Knowledge



- Find sentences to model different syntactic elements
 - Subject + predicate = complete sentence
 - Verbs, nouns, modifiers, prepositions, pronouns
 - Capital letters
 - Punctuation
- Use sentences in various activities
 - Examining and manipulating model sentences
 - Playing with sentence anagrams
 - Expanding or elaborating sentences



Slide 16—Building Syntactic Knowledge

(41:00–43:30)

Students can examine sentences in their reading and writing, looking for syntactic elements like the subject and predicate, parts of speech, capitalization, and punctuation. They can also manipulate sentences by moving words, phrases, and clauses and discuss how such changes affect meaning. Locate **Handout 8: Sentence Activities for Building Syntactic Knowledge**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides three more sentence activities—model sentences, sentence anagrams, and expanding or elaborating sentences—that can be used to build students' syntactic knowledge. Take a moment to review the handout.

Provide two minutes for participants to look at the handout.

Now we will practice each of these sentence activities.

References

Anderson, 2005, 2007; Oakhill et al., 2015; Poulsen & Gravgard, 2016; Saddler, 2012; Sénéchal, Pagan, Lever, & Ouellette, 2008

Examining Model Sentences



“Right in the middle of our game, Mrs. Craig came around the corner and caught us red-handed.”

— Kinney, 2007

“In the evenings, they sat around the lantern and ate their handful.”

— Kamkwamba & Mealer, 2012

“In 2002, the Mars spacecraft Nozomi was caught in a solar flare and broke down.”

— Aguilar, 2013



Slide 17—Examining Model Sentences

(43:30–45:30)

We will begin with examining model sentences.

Activity

This slide shows an example of a model sentence from the book *Diary of a Wimpy Kid*. What syntactic elements could you teach with this sentence? Turn to your partner and see how many you can list.

Allow one minute for participants to work. Then, have partners share the elements they identified. Possible elements include capitalization of a proper noun, title abbreviations, introductory phrases indicating time, prepositional phrases, hyphenation, and compound predicates.

You and your students can find other sentences with the element you want to teach. You can teach students to become detectives looking for patterns in sentences.

Click to show the next two sentences.

Here are other sentences that demonstrate some of the same syntactic elements as the first sentence—introductory phrases indicating time, prepositional phrases, and compound predicates.

As you find model sentences, you can write them on sentence strips and put them on a model sentence wall. Students can use the wall to support their reading and writing.

References

Aguilar, 2013; Kamkwamba & Mealer, 2012; Kinney, 2007

Manipulating a Model Sentence



Right in the middle of our game, Mrs. Craig came around the corner and caught us red-handed.

Right in the middle of our game, Mrs. Craig came around the corner. Mrs. Craig caught us red-handed.

Mrs. Craig came around the corner and caught us red-handed.



Slide 18—Manipulating a Model Sentence

(45:30–47:00)

Another activity that you can use with model sentences is manipulating them to change their meaning or effectiveness. Changing one element in a sentence can affect its clarity, accuracy, or interpretation.

Activity

I will model this activity with our original sentence. What if I make one change?

Click to show the sentence broken into two sentences.

Why didn't Jeff Kinney write it like this?

Call on a participant.

Yes, it is repetitious. We do not need two Mrs. Craigs. Instead, we can combine these two sentences to make it clearer.

We can make a more significant change.

Click to show the next sentence.

Why is this problematic?

Call on a participant.

Yes, now we do not know when Mrs. Craig came around the corner and caught them. Also, we do not know what it means by “caught red-handed,” which relates to them being in the middle of a game.

Bruce Saddler tells us that this kind of analysis shows students how syntax works to convey meaning clearly and effectively.

References

Anderson, 2005, 2007; Saddler, 2012

Playing With Sentence Anagrams



hated

wind

rain

bandit

and

the

cold

- Can you arrange these words to make a complete sentence?
- What kind of capitalization do we need? Why?
- What kind of punctuation do we need? Why?
- How we punctuate this sentence depends on the word *cold*. Why?



Slide 19—Playing With Sentence Anagrams

(47:00–52:00)

One way to make syntactic learning into a game is playing with sentence anagrams. To create a sentence anagram, write a sentence on a sentence strip and cut it up into its individual words or write each word in a sentence on an index card. Then, have students arrange the words to build a sentence. Activities such as sentence anagrams can be scaffolded for all learners. Vary sentence length, preview vocabulary or provide visuals, and/or use sentences from previously read texts to support students' understanding of syntax.

This slide shows an example. I also have these seven words on cards.

Hold up the word cards. Give one card to each of seven participants and have them stand at the front of the room facing the other participants, showing their cards.

We will help our colleagues move around to make an effective sentence.

Let the participants tell the seven people holding the words where to move to make the sentence, “Bandit hated the cold wind and rain,” or “Bandit hated the cold rain and wind.” Read the sentence aloud.

Is this a legitimate sentence?

Have participants answer chorally. (Yes.)

Why?

Call on a participant to respond. (Yes. It has a subject and predicate.)

What is the subject?

Have participants answer chorally. (“Bandit”)

What is the predicate?

Have participants answer chorally. (“hated the cold wind and rain”)

What kind of capitalization do we need?

Have participants answer chorally. (capitalize the “b” in “bandit”)

Why?

Have participants answer chorally. (It is the first word of the sentence and a proper noun.)

What kind of punctuation do we need?

Have participants answer chorally. (period at the end)

Why?

Have participants answer chorally. (because it is a statement)

Is there any other punctuation we might add?

Pause to see whether anyone mentions commas.

Some of you might say we need to add commas. Where could we add commas?

Call on a participant. (between “cold” and “wind” and “wind” and “and”)

This is called commas in a series.

Notes continue on the next page.

Note to Presenter

The comma before the “and” is called the Oxford comma. Whether you use it depends on the style you follow. For example, journalists typically do not use it because they follow Associated Press style, but someone writing a literary piece would include it because they follow MLA style.

Whether we use commas in this sentence depends on the word *cold*. Why? Turn and talk to your partner for a minute.

Pause a moment to let participants discuss the answer.

Call on a participant. (If “cold” is a noun, we need the commas because it makes a list of things that Bandit hates. If “cold” is an adjective, we do not need the commas because “cold” is modifying “wind” and/or “rain.”)

It is good to add ambiguity like this into your lesson so you can discuss how our meaning affects the words and punctuation we use. The focus should be on effective sentences, not right or wrong sentences. Let’s continue on with this lesson.

Playing With Sentence Anagrams (cont.)



Bandit hated the cold wind and rain. During a thunderstorm, he jumped the fence and took off.

for

and

nor

but

or

yet

so

I want to combine these sentences to make a compound sentence.

- Which coordinating conjunction should I use to combine these sentences?
- What relationship does it show between the ideas in my two sentences?
- Is there a different conjunction I could use instead?



Slide 20—Playing With Sentence Anagrams (cont.) (52:00–54:00)

Now, here is the next sentence in my story.

With the laser pointer, point to the sentence “During a thunderstorm, he jumped the fence and took off.”

I have decided that these two sentences would sound better if I combined them into one compound sentence. Instructionally, I am using sentence anagrams with sentence combining, which we discussed in the Comprehension section.

To create a compound sentence, I need to use one of the coordinating conjunctions, which are often referred to as the FANBOYS.

With the laser pointer, point to the FANBOYS cards on the slide (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So).

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Working with a partner, decide which of the FANBOYS I should use to combine the sentences. Discuss the relationship it shows between my two sentences.

Allow one minute for participants to decide on the coordinating conjunction. Have a few participants share their choices. There is more than one possible response. Possible sentences are shown on the next slide.

Playing With Sentence Anagrams (cont.)



for

and

nor

but

or

yet

so

- **To simply connect ideas:**

Bandit hated the cold wind and rain, **and** during a thunderstorm, he jumped the fence and took off.

- **To show cause and effect:**

Bandit hated the cold wind and rain, **so** during a thunderstorm, he jumped the fence and took off.

- **To show conflict:**

Bandit hated the cold wind and rain, **yet** during a thunderstorm, he jumped the fence and took off.



Slide 21—Playing With Sentence Anagrams (cont.) (54:00–1:01:00)

There are actually a few coordinating conjunctions we could use to combine these two sentences.

Click to show the first option.

If we simply want to connect these two sentences, we can use *and*.

Read the sentence on the slide aloud.

Click to show the second option.

However, if we want to show a cause-and-effect relationship, we could use *so*, which may be the one that many of you chose.

Read the sentence on the slide aloud.

Click to show the third option.

Notes continue on the next page.

We may want to show a different relationship—conflicting ideas. If that is the case, we could use *yet*.

Read the sentence on the slide aloud.

The last example shows the conflict within Bandit. He hates the cold wind and rain, but now he is stuck in it because he decided to jump the fence. That is not very smart of him.

Again, as we can see, this type of instruction is not about right or wrong. It is about meaning. If I want to show that Bandit's hatred of the weather caused him to jump the fence, I would use *so*, but if I want to illustrate how conflicted he is, I would use *yet*.

Note to Presenter

Participants may come up with other valid FANBOYS to use. These three are the most likely ones participants or students would choose.

You can teach sentence anagrams the way we have demonstrated with the whole group. Asking questions like the ones we discussed is crucial to students developing a deeper understanding of syntax and how words and other markers like capital letters and punctuation affect meaning.

After you teach with anagrams, you can put them at a workstation for students to do in small groups or with partners. Make sure that students write the final sentence with correct capitalization and punctuation.

Activity

Let's practice making our own sentence anagrams. Using the blank index cards on your table, create a sentence that you could use in your classroom. Think about syntactic elements you teach, like pronouns, transition words, or compound sentences. After you have made your anagram, take turns building sentences with your partner. You have four minutes.

Allow four minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the four minutes, have participants share with the whole group or share ideas you heard that were interesting.

References

Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Pinker, 2014

Expanding or Elaborating Sentences



- Start with an original sentence.
- Have students add words, phrases, and clauses to provide more details.
- Use questions to develop these details related to the predicate and subject.

Predicate Questions

Did what?
How...?
When...?
Where...?
Why...?

Subject Questions

Who or what?
Which...?
What kind of...?



Slide 22—Expanding or Elaborating Sentences (1:01:00–1:04:30)

One other activity for developing syntactic knowledge is expanding or elaborating sentences. Locate the description and guidelines for this activity that start at the bottom of page 1 in Handout 8.

Pause for participants to locate page 1 of Handout 8.

In this activity, you start with an original sentence and then add words, phrases, and clauses to expand it. Start by identifying the subject and predicate of the sentence. Then, to help students add details, ask questions related to the predicate and subject.

For example, if my original sentence is, “The baby screamed.” I could ask, “How did the baby scream?” and “Why did the baby scream?” I could also ask, “Which baby?” or “What kind of baby?” The answers to these questions can then be added to the sentence to provide more details.

Notes continue on the next page.

Notice the two sample routines for using the expanding sentences activity on page 2.

Pause for participants to locate page 2 of Handout 8.

Activity

Take a moment to read through those routines and the charts that go with them. Then, talk at your tables about which routine you would prefer to use in your classroom. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Have a few participants share their thinking. You may want to use the document camera accountability energizer to share participants' responses.

As with anagrams, sentence expansion activities can be put into a workstation for students to use in partners or small groups.

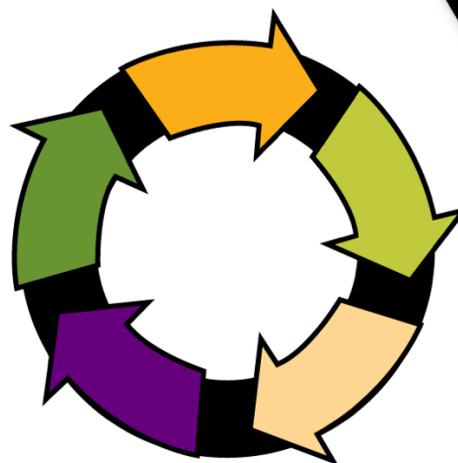
References

Greene, 2000; Moats & Hennessy, 2010

Teaching the Writing Process



- Planning
- Drafting
- Revising for content
- Editing for mechanics
- Publishing



Slide 23—Teaching the Writing Process

(1:04:30–1:09:00)

Now that we have discussed more fundamental writing instruction, let's learn about teaching the writing process. Locate **Handout 9: The Writing Process**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

The first page includes key terms and procedures specific to each of the five stages in the writing process. Page 2 of this handout includes the writing process in Spanish. Read the handout now.

Provide a minute for participants to read the handout.

The writing process is not a linear series of neatly packaged steps, like a recipe to bake a cake. Instead research says that writing is a recursive process, meaning that in your classroom, the stages merge and recur as your students write.

Notes continue on the next page.

Writing is flexible. The goal for young writers is to learn to move easily back and forth between components of the writing process, often altering their plans and revising their text along the way.

Activity

Based on your current teaching practices, estimate the percentage of time students spend engaged in each of the stages of the writing process. Your percentages should total 100 percent. Then compare your estimates with those of others at your table.

Allow two minutes for participants to discuss their responses.

Most professional writers and writing researchers recommend more time be spent on planning and revising. If a writer has planned well, then drafting should go quickly. Editing and publishing need be done only if the writer will share a piece with an actual audience.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Graham, MacArthur, & Fitzgerald, 2013; King, 2000; Murray, 1982; Poindexter & Oliver, 1999

Planning: A Key Step in the Process



Prewriting Activities

- Conducting research
- Drawing pictures, creating lists, etc.
- Conferencing about, brainstorming, or webbing ideas

Other Activities

- Using a graphic organizer to structure ideas
- Applying a mnemonic strategy, such as TREE or DARE, to organize writing
- Creating an outline to organize main ideas, reasons, details, etc.



Slide 24—Planning: A Key Step in the Process (1:09:00–1:11:00)

Researchers believe that planning is the most neglected stage in the writing process. They suggest that we think about this stage as being as crucial to writers as warming up is to athletes.

D.M. Murray proposes that elementary students spend at least 70 percent of their writing in the prewriting and planning stage. In this stage, students research and gather ideas. Students can read books, draw pictures, and brainstorm or web ideas. Students can use their brainstormed lists, illustrations, and notes to select a topic they are interested in and have knowledge about.

One of the most important considerations is the genre or form the writing will take. Will it be an essay, a letter, a poem?

Notes continue on the next page.

Once writers have made these prewriting decisions, they need to organize their ideas. Research supports several strategies for structuring writing, including the use of graphic organizers, mnemonic strategies, or outlining.

You can use the sample graphic organizers provided during the Comprehension session of this academy to help students arrange their ideas before writing their own stories, expository essays, or other pieces.

Now, please locate **Handout 10: Ideas for Supporting Student Planning**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides specific ideas for supporting student planning and student materials in both English and Spanish, including a tool to support students when conferencing with one another during planning.

Given the importance of planning, be sure to model and give students plenty of practice when prewriting.

Now, we will discuss revising, another important step.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2013; Harris, Graham, Mason, & Friedlander, 2008; Hochman, 2009; Lassonde & Richards, 2013; Murray, 1982

Teaching Revising



- Set clear, meaningful goals for writing.
- Ensure students receive feedback on their writing from you and their peers.
- Teach how to use specific criteria to evaluate writing and how to revise based on those criteria.
- Integrate instruction in critical reading with evaluation and revision instruction.
- Allow students to word process their writing when possible.
- Explicitly teach specific revision strategies.



Slide 25—Teaching Revising

(1:11:00–1:16:30)

Effective revising requires students to evaluate their own writing for strengths and problems and then to do something about the problems. These are difficult skills for even advanced writers to master, which is why interactions with teachers and peers are so important.

To help students build revision skills, model and have students practice processes such as setting clear goals for writing, using specific criteria to evaluate writing, and applying specific revision strategies. This slide lists these and other research-based methods for developing students' revision abilities.

Locate **Handout 11: Teaching Revising Strategies**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Notes continue on the next page.

This handout provides more information about the instructional methods on the slide. Examples of rubrics with specific evaluation criteria in both English and Spanish and an example of a revision strategy also can be found.

Activity

Display the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Take a moment to review the handout. Then, working with a partner, place a star next to the three instructional techniques you believe are most important to improving your students' revising abilities. Discuss how you plan to implement them in your literacy classroom. You have three minutes.

Allow three minutes for participants to read and discuss. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Write participants' ideas on a sheet of paper on a clipboard. Use the document camera accountability energizer to quickly share participants' ideas.

As you can see, revising helps students focus on their goals, purpose, and audience for writing a specific text. It also helps them think more critically about what they read and what effective writers do.

Now, we will look at the last two steps in the writing process.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2008; MacArthur, 2013

Editing and Publishing



Editing

Checking and correcting elements such as the following:

- **C**apitalization
- **U**sage (e.g., subject-verb agreement)
- **P**unctuation
- **S**pelling

Publishing

Sharing student work through methods such as the following:

- Posting in a classroom, hallway, etc.
- Posting on a website, in a newsletter, or other publication
- Giving to a family member, peer, community member, etc.



Slide 26—Editing and Publishing

(1:16:30–1:25:00)

Not all student writing needs to be edited and published. If students decide to publish a piece, they should first edit by checking the elements listed on the slide. These elements can be remembered by using the mnemonic *CUPS*—capitalization, usage, punctuation, spelling.

Locate **Handout 12: Editing Tools**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Research demonstrates that using editing checklists like those in the handout improves students' editing skills and writing quality. Take a moment to review the checklists, which are provided in English and Spanish.

Provide a moment for participants to examine the editing checklists.

Notes continue on the next page.

Note that checklists are provided for students to edit their own writing and their peers' writing. As with revising, students benefit from editing others' writing. In fact, it is often easier to edit someone else's work rather than your own.

We will watch a video of students conferencing with each other during the revision and editing stages. As you watch the video, use **Handout 13: Video: Peer Conferencing and Editing** to note revising feedback you observe the teacher and students providing. Also, make note of editing elements that are mentioned in the video.

Video: Peer Conferencing and Editing

Play the video.

Now, take two minutes to compare notes with your tablemates.

*Allow two minutes for participants to compare notes. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of two minutes, display **Presenter Resource 2** on the document camera so participants can compare it to their notes.*

After editing, students can publish their writing by either word processing or rewriting it, using correct spacing and margins and adding pictures if needed.

You can post student writing on a classroom wall or in the hallway; put it on a class website or in a class newsletter; or have students share writing with a family member, peer, community member, or someone else.

Now that we have discussed the steps of the writing process, let's examine in more depth instructional methods and tools to develop student writing within the process.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2008

Explicit Instruction in the Writing Process: Gradual-Release Model



“I do”

- Read model texts aloud to model specific writing components.
- Use “think-alouds” and “write-alouds” to show students the writing process.

“We do”

- Use shared writing activities in which students work with you and one another.
- Support young writers through a gradual-release model of instruction.

“You do”

Have students try out what they have learned.



Slide 27—Explicit Instruction in the Writing Process: Gradual-Release Model (1:25:00–1:30:00)

Following the “I do,” “We do,” “You do” framework is crucial when teaching the writing process.

Locate **Handout 14: Gradual-Release Model for Writing Instruction**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

The first page describes each step of the gradual-release framework. You can print, cut, and laminate this graphic and use it as an oversized bookmark to help you when designing writing lessons.

The second and third pages of the handout provide a similar set of steps for teaching writing strategies. The first four steps are part of the “I do” stage, the next step is the “We do” stage, and the last step is the “You do” stage. To illustrate the steps, an instructional example with the CUPS editing strategy is provided.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Take a moment to examine the handout. Think about whether you use this gradual-release model in your writing instruction. Then, talk with your tablemates about why following such a model is especially important to teaching the writing process. You have three minutes.

Allow three minutes for participants to review the handout and discuss the gradual-release model. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Call on a few participants to share their thinking with the whole group.

This framework is not linear. “I do” modeling and “We do” supported writing require many lessons with the whole group, in small groups, and one-on-one for students to understand the writing process.

Students move to the “You do” step while continuing to move back and forth between the other steps. Students apply what they have learned from modeled, shared, and guided writing to independent writing.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Dorfman & Cappelli, 2007, 2009

“I Do” Teacher Modeling

- Reading model texts
- Modeling thinking processes, planning and organizing strategies, etc.
- Showing students where you struggle and how you solve problems
- Modeling not only the cognitive processes necessary to writing effectively, but also the motivational and emotional processes



Slide 28—“I Do” Teacher Modeling

(1:30:00–1:31:00)

Whatever we want students to do, we should do first. If we want students to write rhyming poetry, we have to write rhyming poetry first. If we want students to use a specific revising strategy, we should use that strategy first.

When modeling, pay attention to where you struggle, what works for you, and what does not. Show and discuss these aspects of the process with students. Writing is not a neat process. In fact, it is often messy and difficult. Students need to see you struggle so they understand that struggling is part of the process.

To make your modeling more authentic, ask questions and make comments aloud, such as: “What should I say next?” or “Let me think about what word to put here.” Ask students: “What did you notice?” as part of your daily modeling. Research shows that modeling of such self-talk and self-monitoring helps develop students’ writing ability, motivation, and self-regulation. This modeling is imperative for students who struggle with writing and for English language learners.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Graham et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2008

“We Do” Guided Practice



- Shared writing
- Interactive writing
- Writing aloud

Activity: Zach’s Story

- What does his story tell you about the “We do” process?
- Have you had a student who refused to write? Why do you think that student refused to write?
- What can you learn from Zach’s story to support such students?



Slide 29—“We Do” Guided Practice

(1:31:00–1:39:30)

The next step of the model is “We do,” or guided practice. This step is critical, especially when teaching struggling or reluctant writers. Students need a lot of guided practice through collaborative writing activities, like shared writing, before they are willing to take a risk and create their own piece of writing.

Locate **Handout 15: Collaborative Writing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides several examples of collaborative writing activities, including shared writing, interactive writing, and writing aloud. During guided practice, you can combine these types of writing. Take a moment to read the handout.

Provide time for participants to read the handout.

Locate **Handout 16: Importance of “We Do” for Teaching Writing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

In this handout, you will see the story of Zach struggling to produce a piece of writing and how his teacher uses the “We do” process to help Zach create two pieces of poetry. Take a moment to read the story and examine Zach’s prewriting and draft poems. As you read, think about a student you know who is like Zach. Afterward, discuss the questions on the slide with your tablemates. You have four minutes.

Allow four minutes for participants to read the handout and discuss the questions on the slide. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Call on a few participants to share their thinking with the whole group.

Zach was not a defiant student. He was not a behavior problem. He simply did not feel he had the ideas or words to create his own poem. As we can see, however, he did have the ideas and words. He just needed support in getting them out and on paper.

Imagine what would happen if Zach’s teacher had not taken the time to provide these extended “We do” opportunities. Imagine him sitting at his desk with nothing to share while all of the other students read their poems aloud to their peers and family members.

Now, imagine him in third grade experiencing the same failure. Then, imagine you get him in fourth grade. What will you do? What will you assume about Zach? Take one minute to discuss such patterns of failure and what they mean for you in fourth grade.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss. Have a few participants share their thinking.

As Zach’s example shows, taking the time to scaffold a student’s writing by planning and writing together can move a student from a nonwriter to a poet.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Graham et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2013; Harris et al., 2008

The Writing Process: Instructional Tools

- Model texts
- Anchor charts
- Writer's notebooks
- Collaborative books
- Technology tools



Slide 30—The Writing Process: Instructional Tools

(1:39:30–1:40:00)

Now, let's discuss some specific tools to support students within the writing process. We will spend a few minutes talking about each tool listed on the slide.

Model Texts

Books, essays, poems, letters, newspaper articles, and other texts used to teach specific aspects of writer's craft

As you read a model text, do the following:

- Reveal your thinking related to the writer's craft.
- Explicitly model how to notice what authors do and how they do it.
- Model and have students practice imitating what an author does well.



Slide 31—Model Texts

(1:40:00–1:41:00)

Model texts are books, essays, poems, letters, newspaper articles, or any other pieces of writing that you use to model an aspect of effective writing. These texts allow you to show students how you think about a writer's craft and notice what writers do that is effective.

These texts also provide models for students to imitate. Sometimes, teachers think it is not OK—that it is almost cheating—to borrow an idea from or imitate the writing style of an author. But think about how we learn to walk, to talk, to do almost anything—we imitate what we see others doing. Students and teachers continually reinvent themselves as writers when using model texts to learn and practice writing strategies.

References

Fisher & Frey, 2012; King, 2000

Using Model Texts

Read the text aloud to students before using it in a lesson.

Then, use a small section of text to model and focus on an element such as the following:

- A writing genre (e.g., poetry) or purpose (e.g., to describe)
- A particular aspect of a writer's craft (e.g., effective word choice, organization)
- The use of a specific strategy



Slide 32—Using Model Texts

(1:41:00–1:41:30)

Before using a model text within a writing lesson, simply read it aloud to students.

After this initial read-aloud, the text can be used to focus on a writing element, such as those listed on the slide.

Researchers remind us how important it is to use only a small section of text, paying close attention to the author's word choice, structure, or other style elements, based on the instructional goals of the lesson.

Reference

Fisher & Frey, 2012

Using Model Texts: Example



The important thing
about a spoon is
that you eat with it.
It's like a little shovel,
You hold it in your hand,
You can put it in your mouth,
It isn't flat,
It's hollow,
And it spoons things up.
But the important thing
about a spoon is
that you eat with it.

— Brown, 1990



Slide 33—Using Model Texts: Example

(1:41:30–1:47:30)

Activity

On the slide is an excerpt from *The Important Book* by Margaret Wise Brown. Working with a partner, brainstorm all of the different writing elements and strategies you could teach with this excerpt. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to brainstorm writing elements to teach with the text. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Write participants' ideas on a sheet of paper on a clipboard. Use the document camera accountability energizer to quickly share participants' ideas.

Now, locate **Handout 17: Writing Lesson: Creating a Descriptive Text**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Notes continue on the next page.

This handout uses the lesson design template we examined earlier. The lesson teaches descriptive writing with effective details by using the writing frame from *The Important Book*. Take a moment to examine the handout. As you read, highlight and label the steps of the gradual-release framework—"I do," "We do," and "You do." You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to read the handout and highlight and label the steps. If time permits, display your copy of the handout, highlighted and labeled, on the document camera.

Reference

Brown, 1990

Anchor Charts

Class-, teacher-, or student-created graphic organizers, charts, word lists, etc., that support a specific aspect of writing

Benefits

- Create a visible trail of shared thinking
- Assist students in recalling key information and/or concepts
- Serve as teaching and learning tools
- Can be posted on walls and in writer's notebooks



Slide 34—Anchor Charts

(1:47:30–1:48:00)

Anchor charts are posters that teachers and students generate as learning occurs and then display in the classroom for continued learning and support. Anchor charts act as a visible trail of student thinking and learning. They are most effective when students generate the charts with teacher guidance and they support some aspect of learning to write.

Anchor charts can be posted on walls and in students' writing notebooks. We will look at a few examples of anchor charts created to support all students' writing.

Anchor Chart Examples

- Lists of the writing process steps
- Prewriting and planning graphic organizers
- Text structure graphic organizers
- Revising and editing checklists
- Word walls: Vocabulary and high-frequency words
- Transition words
- Top 10 word list
- Descriptive words or phrases
- Strong (action) verbs



Slide 35—Anchor Chart Examples

(1:48:00–1:48:30)

The slide lists sample anchor charts. The column on the left includes charts related to the writing process and specific steps within it.

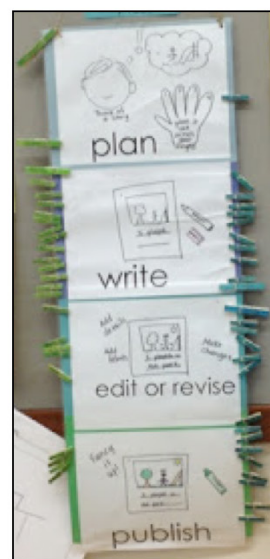
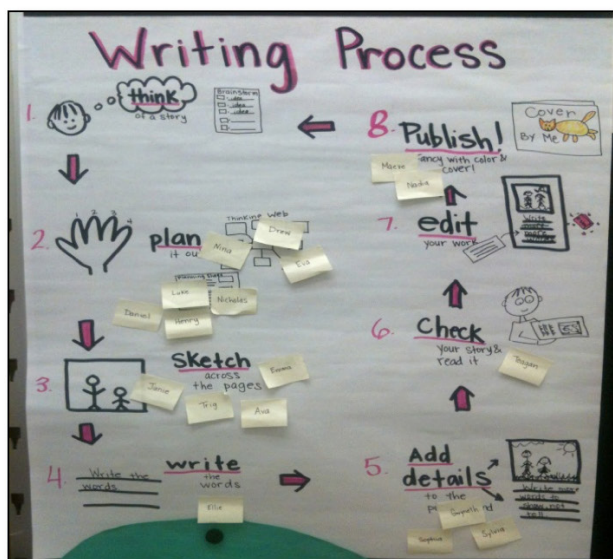
Use the laser pointer to point to the left column.

The column on the right includes charts to support students' vocabulary and word choice development.

Use the laser pointer to point to the right column.

The next few slides show specific examples of anchor charts seen in teachers' writing classrooms.

Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)



The Writing Process



Slide 36—Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)

(1:48:30–1:51:30)

Here are two charts showing the writing process.

Activity

With a partner, compare and contrast the two charts. Discuss what you like about each one and what you would change. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to compare and contrast the charts. Have a few participants share their thinking. The following are possible responses:

- Both charts show all steps of the writing process, use moveable parts (sticky notes and clothespins) to show where students are in process, and use visuals to represent each step.
- The chart on the left represents the process as circular, breaks the process into specific steps, and doesn't use the words "draft" or "revise."
- The chart on the right represents the process as linear; puts "edit" and "revise" in same step, but they aren't the same; and doesn't use "draft."

Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)



El proceso de la escritura

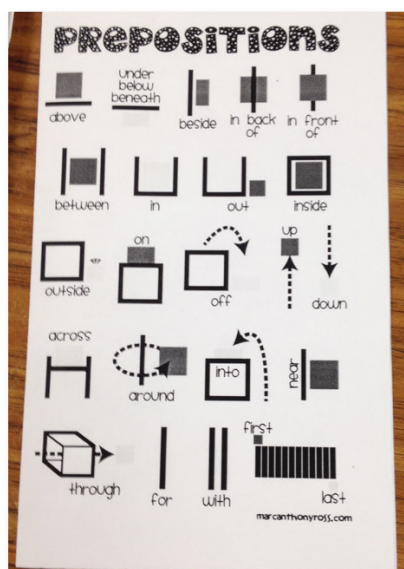


Slide 37—Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)

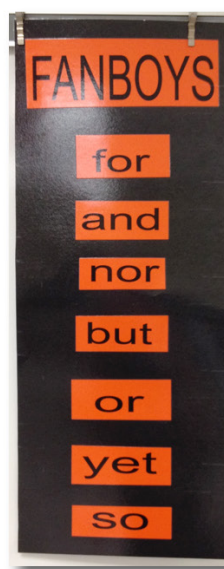
(1:51:30–1:51:50)

And here is an anchor chart in Spanish showing the writing process.

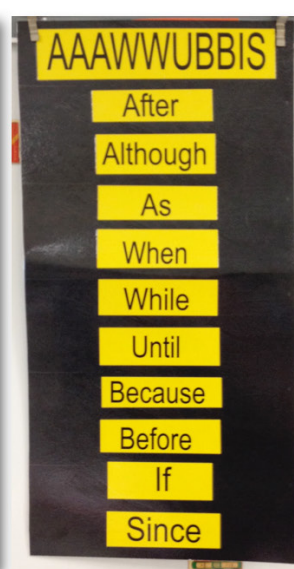
Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)



Prepositions



Connectives



Slide 38—Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)

(1:51:50–1:52:30)

Here are three charts with lists of words that help glue texts together.

The chart on the left provides prepositions and visuals to represent them.

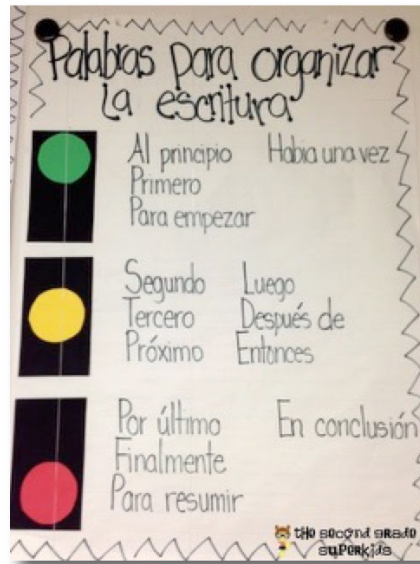
The next two charts feature mnemonics that help students remember connectives. *FANBOYS* is used to remember the coordinating conjunctions used to make compound sentences.

AAAWWUBBIS, based on Jeff Anderson's work, is used to remember several useful subordinating conjunctions. Students can use these charts during the drafting and revising stages to build effective sentences.

References

Anderson 2005, 2007

Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)



Palabras para organizar la escritura



Slide 39—Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)

(1:52:30–1:52:50)

This slide shows an example anchor chart in Spanish on connective words.

Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)



More Precise Word Choice



Slide 40—Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)

(1:52:50–1:54:00)

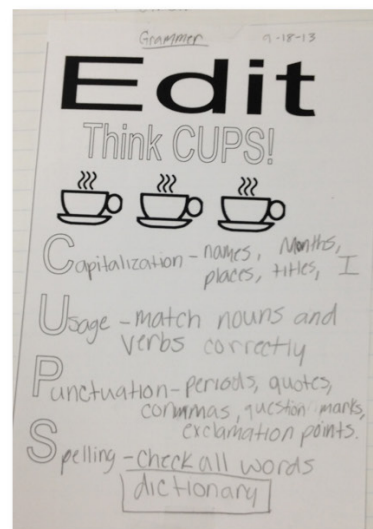
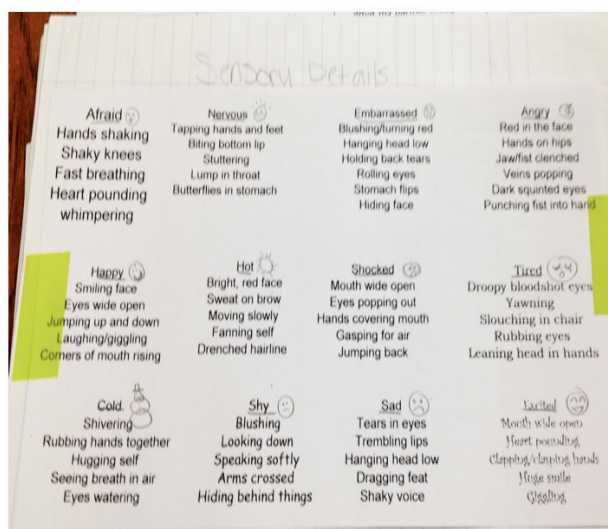
Here is an example of an anchor chart that shows more precise, vivid words to use instead of *said*. To introduce this chart, you could read aloud a book that uses many different words that take the place of the word *said*. As you read it, have students pay attention to all of the different variations of *said*. These words could be the first ones to add to the chart.

One example of such a book is *Piggie Pie* by Margie Palatini, which uses words like *shouted*, *mumbled*, *muttered*, *screamed*, *cackled*, *screeched*, *quacked*, and *mooed* instead of simply using the word *said*.

As students come across new words to substitute for *said*, they add the words to the anchor chart. This yearlong process can be implemented with other overused words, such as *happy*, *good*, *bad*, and *very*.

Students can then use these charts during the revising stage of the writing process to make their writing clearer and more precise.

Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)



Revising and Editing Tools



Slide 41—Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)

(1:54:00–1:56:30)

The anchor chart on the left was created by a teacher to help students “show, don’t tell.” For example, instead of saying that someone felt nervous, the chart includes phrases such as *tapping hands and feet*, *stuttering*, and *butterflies in stomach*. As with the previous anchor chart, this one can be used during the revising stage to help students make their writing more vivid.

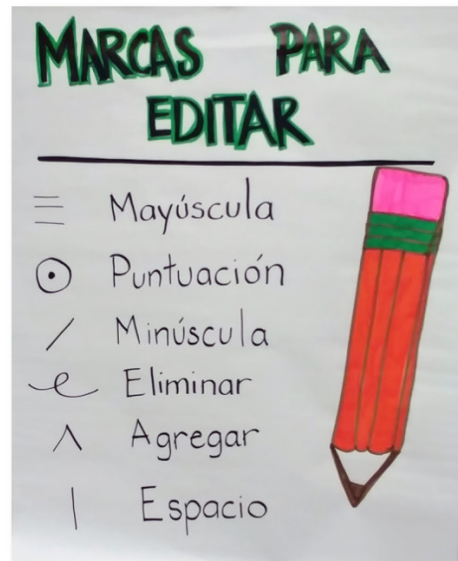
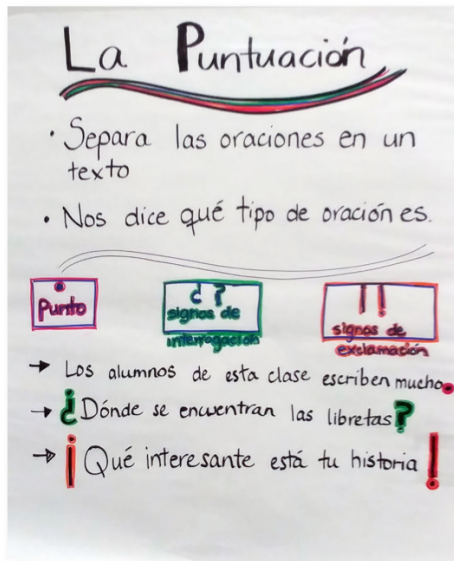
Activity

Working with your partner, create “show, don’t tell” phrases for the word *shocked*, similar to this anchor chart. I will give you one minute.

Provide one minute for participants to work. Have a few participants share their thinking. Possible responses include “mouth opened wide,” “jaw dropped,” “eyes popped out,” “jumped back,” “hands covered mouth,” “gasped for air,” and “did a double take.”

The second chart was created by a teacher and filled in by a student to show the CUPS strategy to use during the editing stage. Both of these charts were in a student's writer's notebook for him to access within the writing process.

Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)



Herramientas para revisar y editar



Slide 42—Anchor Chart Examples (cont.)

(1:56:30–1:56:50)

These anchor charts in Spanish show information on punctuation and editing marks.

Writer's Notebook

Journal with stored information and ideas—such as anchor charts, prewriting and planning notes, drafts, and revising and editing tools—that students use to experiment with drafting and revision

Sections

Writer's notebooks are usually divided into separate sections, which may include the following:

- Prewriting and planning area
- Drafting section
- Collection of revision and editing tools



Slide 43—Writer's Notebook

(1:56:50–1:57:30)

Another tool for students to use during writing instruction is a writer's notebook. Each student should have his or her own notebook to use throughout the writing process. Students can use writer's notebooks to prewrite, draw pictures, take notes, write initial drafts, experiment with revision, and store anchor charts and other helpful information.

Some writing experts recommend that students divide their notebooks into sections according to the writing process. This slide provides one example for dividing the notebook into three sections. How students divide their notebooks depends on the organization of your writing instruction and your students' needs.

References

Anderson 2005, 2007; Buckner, 2013

Collaborative Books

Student-created books kept in a classroom library in which individual students or groups of students create one or more pages to add to the book

Examples

- Pattern or ABC books
- Poetry anthologies
- Class-created stories
- Informational books that focus on a theme or topic



Slide 44—Collaborative Books

(1:57:30–1:58:00)

A collaborative book is created by the students in your class. Small groups of students or individual students can each create a page to be added to the book. Such books can be stories, poetry books, informational texts, or other kinds of texts.

Collaborative books could even be simpler books like pattern books or ABC books that an older group of students creates for a younger group of students. For example, your fourth-graders could create a book and then take it to a kindergarten class to read aloud.

Technology Tools

“Technology integration is only as effective as the lesson constructed by the teacher.”

— Karchmer-Klein, 2013, p. 329

- Identify content, processes, or skills to be mastered.
- Plan specific learning goals.
- Make instructional decisions based on these goals, such as grouping formats to use (partners, small groups, or the whole group).
- Decide whether a technology tool will support student learning based on the specific content and goals.



Slide 45—Technology Tools

(1:58:00–1:59:00)

Many web-based tools and applications are helpful for writing collaborations. But digital tools alone do not teach students the content, processes, or skills we want them to master. Instead, technology should be viewed as a support tool within the instructional process.

Please read the quotation at the top of this slide.

Pause for participants to read the quotation.

The teacher identifies the content, processes, or skills to be mastered and then plans specific learning goals and makes instructional decisions related to the classroom context. Only after all of this planning has occurred should specific digital tools be considered.

The choice of which website or application to use should be based directly on whether it will enhance students' mastery of the content, processes, or skills.

Reference

Karchmer-Klein, 2013

Writing for a Variety of Purposes and Audiences



- Model planning strategies.
- Help students generate topics of interest.
- Help students identify a purpose and match it to form and audience.
- Allow students to choose writing topics.
- Help students decide what to share and/or publish.
- Let students decide how to publish their writing.



Slide 46—Writing for a Variety of Purposes and Audiences

(1:59:00–2:00:30)

Now that we have discussed instructional methods and tools for teaching and practicing the writing process, we will discuss how to use this process to write for various purposes and audiences. Locate **Handout 18: Different Forms of and Purposes for Writing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

The first page lists purposes for writing and writing genres. The second and third pages provide specific strategies related to the different writing purposes. This handout is also provided in Spanish.

Give participants a moment to review the handout.

Purpose and audience affect our planning strategies, the topic we choose to write about, and the genre.

In teaching a genre, emphasize its purpose and how its features relate to the purpose. Also, relate genres to real-world scenarios. Many genres can be used for various purposes. For example, a letter can persuade someone to do something, narrate an event to a friend, or inform someone about an upcoming event.

The intended audience affects our writing as well. We write differently for a friend versus a work colleague. Have students write not only for you, but also for families, friends, and members of their community. These various audiences make writing a more authentic task than simply writing something for a teacher to evaluate.

Next, we will explore a mini-lesson you could use to introduce the importance of purpose and audience for writing.

References

Bromley, 1998; Cunningham et al., 2003; Dorfman & Cappelli, 2007; Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008

Narrative Writing



- **Fictional stories**

In fourth grade, students are expected to include detailed characters, a setting, and a plot with a climax.

- **Personal narratives**

Students must reflect on important personal experiences and show why they are meaningful.



Slide 47—Narrative Writing

(2:00:30–2:12:00)

Two types of narrative writing are described in the TEKS—fictional stories and personal narratives. In fourth grade, students are expected to write stories that provide details related to characters and setting. Their stories must also have a plot with a climax.

Locate **Handout 19: Writing Lesson: Using Behaviors and Dialogue to Develop a Character**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This lesson uses a model text to introduce how to develop characters through their thinking, actions, and words. It also follows the template based on the “I do,” “We do,” “You do” framework introduced earlier. Take a moment to review the handout, paying attention to the modeling, guided practice, and independent practice sections.

Provide a few minutes for participants to review the handout.

Now, turn to page 2 of the handout and locate the Modeling section.

Pause for participants to locate the Modeling section. Place your copy of page 2 on the document camera to reference.

Notice how the teacher models developing character details based on an experience from her childhood and uses a simple graphic organizer.

Point out the graphic organizer on page 4 of the handout. Go over the example.

If you used this lesson, you would use your own example to model this strategy. That way, students can see how you decide on writing ideas authentically, based on your own life. It also helps you build relationships with your students by giving them a glimpse into who you are and what you have experienced.

Activity

Now, we will practice this type of planning. Please turn to page 4 of this handout if you will be planning in English or page 6 if you will plan in Spanish.

Provide a moment for participants to locate the page. Place your copy of page 4 on the document camera for reference.

First, write your name under “Character” in the center. Then, think about one of your personal attributes. In the model text, Mr. Kodinski was grateful, generous, humble, and perceptive. In the teacher’s lesson, she discussed being honest. Maybe you have a funny sense of humor or you are nurturing. Write your attribute under “Character Attribute” in one of the boxes.

Next, write a short description of an experience that shows this attribute. In the description, make sure you describe your behaviors or words that show the attribute. After you have filled out one box, share it with your partner and then listen for feedback. You have three minutes.

Allow three minutes for participants to work. Walk around and note what participants write. At the end of the three minutes, as time permits, have a few participants share their partner’s ideas.

For many students, writing about their own experiences is easier than creating fictional characters and settings. Students can learn to create stories based on their experiences. Many writers, including Stephen King, say that they use this process when they write.

Notes continue on the next page.

In this way, the line between fictional stories and personal narratives often becomes blurred. However, personal narratives, as described in the TEKS, are a specific type of narrative in which the writer shares an experience and shows why that particular experience was meaningful.

Activities like journaling, drawing pictures or cartoons of experiences, and focusing on specific personal experiences like the one in the previous lesson can help students develop personal narratives.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008; King, 2000; Texas Education Agency, 2009

Poetry Writing



- Start with easier poems, including color poems and acrostics.
- Write poems based on the number of syllables or words like cinquain poems and haikus.
- Create poems related to specific themes.
- Write both nonrhyming (free verse) and rhyming poetry with students.
- Use various models, such as Dr. Seuss, Jack Prelutsky, Shel Silverstein, Nikki Giovanni, and Gary Soto.

Helpful Websites

- www.childrenspoetryarchive.org
- www.poetry4kids.com
- www.readwritethink.org
- www.poetryfoundation.org



Slide 48—Poetry Writing

(2:12:00–2:22:00)

Poetry writing can be a fun and freeing writing experience for students. Poetry does not have any set form. It does not have to sound a certain way or have to rhyme.

This slide provides a few ideas for practicing writing poetry with students. Other lesson ideas can be found at the websites listed in the box.

Locate **Handout 20: Poetry Writing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides two lessons on writing haiku poetry. The first uses a model text to scaffold students writing haiku animal riddles. The second has students revise their haiku riddles to include a simile. Take a moment to examine the hook, modeling with a text, modeling, and shared and guided writing sections of each lesson.

Notes continue on the next page.

Allow two minutes for participants to examine the handout. Put your copy of page 5 of the handout on the document camera to model the next activity.

Let's see whether you can use the graphic organizer and haiku template on page 5 to create your own haiku animal riddle.

Pause for participants to find page 5 of the handout.

First, decide on an animal you'd like to write about. Write the name of the animal in the middle of the graphic organizer.

Model by writing "starfish" on your copy on the document camera.

Then, write attributes about the animal in the boxes around it.

Model by writing "lives in the ocean" in the first box, "has five arms" in the second box, etc. (Use the starfish example on page 3 of the handout.)

Last, using these animal attributes and the template at the bottom of the page, write a haiku riddle. Each blank represents a syllable. Write the poem from the animal's perspective using pronouns like *I* or *we*.

Model by writing "My" in the first blank, "home" in the second blank, "is" in the third blank, etc. (Use the starfish example on page 3.)

Activity

Your turn. Work with your partner to create a haiku animal riddle to share with the rest of the group.

Allow four minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to discussions. After the four minutes, ask a few participants to share their haiku riddles with the group. Let the rest of the participants guess each animal.

Notice that the second lesson extends the poetry writing by having students revise their haikus to include a simile and later a metaphor. Including such figurative language in writing is a fifth-grade student expectation, but we can model and provide scaffolded practice in fourth grade.

Informational Writing



Expository Essays

- In fourth grade, students are expected to include a central idea, or thesis, that controls the paper.
- Explanations, details, and examples tie directly to the thesis.
- Essays end with a concluding statement.

Literary Responses

- In fourth grade, students are expected to show an understanding of the text.
- In fourth and fifth grades, students are expected to provide text evidence.



Slide 49—Informational Writing

(2:22:00–2:31:00)

We have already seen a lesson related to informational writing, the *Important Book* lesson. Several forms of informational writing are included in the TEKS. The first two student expectations are expository essays and literary responses.

Inherent to both of these essay types is a central idea, or thesis, that controls the paper. In an expository essay, all explanations, details, and examples must link directly back to the thesis. That is why the thesis is said to control the paper.

Locate **Handout 21: Expository Writing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

These lessons teach students how to write a thesis statement and then use that thesis statement to plan an expository essay. Take a moment to read the two lessons.

Notes continue on the next page.

Allow two minutes for participants to read the lessons.

Now, turn to the two example outlines on pages 9 and 10 of the handout.

Pause for participants to find the outlines. Put the first one on page 9 on the document camera to refer to.

Activity

Read the example thesis statement about friendship.

Point to the thesis statement at the top of the first outline.

Examine and compare the two example outlines. The first uses examples to support the thesis, and the second uses a cause-and-effect structure. Talk with your partner about which one you would use with your students and why you'd prefer that one.

Allow two minutes for participants to discuss the outlines. At the end of the two minutes, use the cold call energizer to have a few participants share their thinking.

In a literary response, a writer must also start with a central idea that focuses on a literary element within a text that has been read. For example, a writer may create an analysis of the relationship between two characters with a thesis that begins, "Patricia and Henry should both be considered tragic figures." The writer would then include text evidence, including quotes, to support that thesis.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008; Texas Education Agency, 2009

Informational Writing (cont.)



Letters

- In fourth grade, students are expected to tailor their writing to the purpose and audience.
- This type of writing requires the use of appropriate conventions.



Slide 50—Informational Writing (cont.)

(2:31:00–2:31:30)

One last type of informational writing that can be fun to teach is letter writing. Many model texts are good for introducing students to writing letters, including the following:

- *Dear Mr. Blueberry* by Simon James
- *The Gardener* by Sarah Stewart
- The LaRue series by Mark Teague

Remember, when writing letters, it is important to keep the audience in mind. This is also true of our next genre—persuasive writing.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008; TEA, 2009

Persuasive Writing



- In fourth grade, students are expected to establish a position and use details to support it.
- This type of writing must be created with a specific audience in mind.



Slide 51—Persuasive Writing

(2:31:30–2:36:00)

Similar to writing expository essays, creating effective persuasive pieces requires the writer to focus on an idea, but instead of creating a thesis, a persuasive writer must take a position in an argument. In fourth grade, students are expected to take a position related to an issue and use details to support it. For example, when learning about elections, you could ask students to write a statement about the importance of voting. A sample position statement could be, “Anyone who can vote in this country should vote because that is one way to make a difference.” Students would then need to come up with a few details to support this position, such as, “Your vote makes our government work” and “Voting holds our leaders accountable.”

A fun set of books you can use to introduce the concept of persuasion is the pigeon series by Mo Willems. In these books, a pigeon speaks directly to the reader to try to persuade him or her to let the pigeon do something like drive a bus or get a puppy. These books show how important it is to take your audience into consideration when writing a persuasive piece. The writer speaks directly to an audience, just as the pigeon does, to affect their thinking or behavior.

As an example lesson, you could read aloud *The Pigeon Wants a Puppy!* and have students evaluate how effective the pigeon is at persuasion. Then, you could challenge them as a class to be better at persuasion than the pigeon. Students could work as a class to plan, draft, and revise a persuasive letter explaining to a parent or guardian why they should be given a puppy.

An example lesson using a different kind of text is in **Handout 22: Persuasive Writing**. Please locate this handout.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout includes two lessons using the “I do,” “We do,” “You do” framework to teach position statement writing and persuasive writing using a specific text structure. Take one minute to read the lessons.

Provide one minute for participants to read the lessons.

All types of writing—narrative, poetry, informational, and persuasive—can enhance student learning in any content area. Incorporating writing activities across the content areas shows students that everyone, including scientists, mathematicians, and historians, needs to write effectively.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008; Texas Education Agency, 2009

Research Report Writing

Planning

- Generating research topics and formulating questions
- Creating a research plan for gathering information

Gathering Sources

- Following a plan to collect information from sources
- Skimming texts to identify data
- Taking notes and sorting evidence
- Identifying sources
- Differentiating between paraphrasing and plagiarizing

Synthesizing and Organizing Information

- Focusing research based on information from expert sources
- Drawing conclusions using brief explanations



Slide 52—Research Report Writing

(2:36:00–2:36:30)

One last type of informational writing to which several TEKS relate is research report writing. Specific expectations related to planning, gathering sources, and synthesizing and organizing information are provided in the TEKS.

You may want to collaborate with your school librarian to support students' research skills. A librarian's expertise is especially helpful for locating and citing sources, but he or she can also help with supportive technology for planning and organizing information.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2009

Creating a Writing Community

- Read model texts to hook students into listening for what effective writers do.
- Write in front of your students and share your writing.
- Weave writing into lessons throughout the day and across content areas.
- Encourage students to collaborate with one another as writers.
- Show students the importance of writing in your daily life.



Slide 53—Creating a Writing Community

(2:36:30–2:37:30)

Creating a writing community in your literacy classroom includes all elements that we have discussed throughout this section, including

- reading model texts aloud,
- modeling writing and thinking processes for students,
- integrating writing across all areas of the curriculum, and
- encouraging student collaboration through writing activities.

Additionally, in a research synthesis, Graham and his colleagues recommend that students see you as an authentic writer. Students need to see you writing for a variety of purposes. Show them how important writing is to you in your daily life—from writing e-mails to crafting parent letters to journaling.

References

Cunningham et al., 2003; Dorfman & Cappelli, 2007; Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008

Creating a Writing Community (cont.)



- In addition to modeling thinking within the writing process, model motivational aspects of writing.
- Make mistakes in front of your students and show them how you learn from mistakes.
- Give students writing choices.
- Celebrate and share student successes.
- Provide positive feedback in one-on-one conferences with students.
- Publish students' writing both in your class and in the wider community.



Slide 54—Creating a Writing Community (cont.) (2:37:30–2:38:30)

Becoming an effective writer involves mastering numerous cognitive and emotional processes. Researchers recommend teaching students how to become self-regulated writers. Show students strategies not only for planning, drafting, and revising their writing, but also for motivating themselves within the writing process. Such strategies include setting goals, using self-talk, and rewarding yourself.

Students need to see what real writing looks like, which includes wrestling with ideas, struggling with organization, and making mistakes. We need to model how we resolve the various difficulties that all writers experience.

Other methods for creating a community of writers include giving students writing choices, celebrating successes, conferencing with students one-on-one about their writing, and publishing students' writing.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008

Scaffolding Writing



- Scaffold writing instruction to meet each student's needs during small-group instruction.
- Extensive writing scaffolding may include more modeling (“I do”), more guided practice (“We do”), a different type of graphic organizer, or a sentence or writing frame.



Slide 55—Scaffolding Writing

(2:38:30–2:42:00)

Some students may learn quickly and need only minimal support. Others may require a bit more support. Some students may need intensive support. Types of extensive writing scaffolding are listed on the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Locate **Handout 23: Think Sheets** and take a moment to review it.

Give participants time to locate and review the handout.

This handout provides graphic organizers and planning sheets to support students who need more extensive scaffolding in English or Spanish. You can use these tools in small groups or one-on-one conferences to scaffold student writing.

When using a think sheet to scaffold struggling students, including those with dyslexia, consider additional supports, such as

Notes continue on the next page.

- numbering the steps on the framework,
- breaking the parts of the organizer into more manageable pieces,
- filling in the chart for the student while he or she dictates, and
- providing electronic spellers.

Activity

Think about one of your fourth-grade students who struggles with writing.

Which of these scaffolds might have helped that student? Take two minutes to talk at your tables about these scaffolds and others you use to support students' writing.

Allow two minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the two minutes, have participants share with the whole group or share ideas you heard.

Reference

Graham et al., 2012

Systematic Writing Instruction



- Allocate at least one hour a day to developing student writing.
- Explicitly teach handwriting, spelling, and syntax skills.
- Explicitly teach the writing process through the “I do,” “We do,” “You do” framework.
- Model and have students practice writing strategies for different purposes and audiences.
- Create a writing community in your classroom.



Slide 56—Systematic Writing Instruction

(2:42:00–2:44:00)

This slide summarizes the ideas that we have discussed throughout this session. Literacy is more than just reading. Rather, reading and writing develop together. Teachers must link reading and writing to help students see the connections between what is read and the writing structures used across various texts.

Locate **Handout 24: Systematic Instruction: Writing Checklist**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Note the writing activities, lessons, and materials that we have discussed in this section can be found in the third and fourth rows of the chart. This handout is also provided in Spanish.

References

Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Bromley 1998, 2000; Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008

Consider Diversity: English Language Learners



- Consider English language development and native language writing skills to tailor writing instruction.
- Create a safe environment where writing risks are supported.
- Pair ELLs purposefully when engaging in writing activities.
- Provide explicit writing and spelling instruction and numerous model texts.
- Focus on the unique writing and print conventions of English.
- Ensure that ELLs have authentic opportunities to engage in meaningful writing activities.



Slide 57—Consider Diversity: English Language Learners

(2:44:00–2:48:00)

Language development significantly affects the writing of English language learners, or ELLs. By providing linguistically accommodated instruction that matches students' current level of English proficiency, ELLs can develop English writing skills as they develop oral English skills. Help ELLs in this process in the following ways:

- Consider ELLs' English language development and writing skills in their native language to tailor writing instruction.
- Create a safe environment and sense of community where ELLs can take risks when writing.
- Provide explicit instruction on how to write different genres and numerous model texts, especially when dealing with content area texts.

- Focus on the unique conventions of writing and spelling in English and, when possible, compare and contrast native language and English conventions.
- Ensure that ELLs have authentic and meaningful opportunities to engage in writing activities.

Activity

Locate **Handout 25: Writing Instruction Considerations for English Language Learners**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Read the handout. Then, reflect on the different writing strategies and activities that we have discussed. Choose one writing strategy or activity and one consideration that can help ELLs when engaging in that activity. For example, in handwriting instruction, I might decide that for ELLs who have a writing system different from English, I will focus on unique English conventions, how letters are formed, and how words are spaced in a sentence. You have two minutes.

Allow participants two minutes to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the two minutes, have participants share with the whole group or share ideas you heard that were interesting.

References

Au, 2000; Brisk & Harrington, 2000; Carrillo, 1994; de Oliveira & Lan, 2014; Farnan, Flood, & Lapp, 1994; Foulger & Jimenez-Silva, 2007; Hudelson, 1994; Hurley & Tinajero, 2001; Kame'enui & Carnine, 1998; Lee et al., 2009; Olson & Land, 2007; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Pérez, 1998; Samway, 2006; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998

Assessing Writing



**“Teachers should analyze rather than criticize ...
Error marks the place where education begins.”**

— Rose, 1989, p. 189

- Collect students’ written work across the year.
- Examine student writing for strengths and needs to design targeted instruction.
- Use response guides, checklists, rubrics, and anecdotal notes to assess students’ writing.
- Conference with students regularly to discuss specific writing elements and skills.



Slide 58—Assessing Writing

(2:48:00–2:50:30)

As the quotation on the slide says, “analyze rather than criticize.” We all make mistakes when writing. It is part of the writing process. Celebrate your students’ writing risk-taking and successes—small and large.

Locate **Handout 26: Assessing the Growth of Student Writers**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout lists considerations for monitoring student writing progress, including

- collecting students’ work across the year;
- asking questions related to student progress across this body of work;
- using response guides, checklists, and rubrics to document student progress and provide feedback; and
- conferencing with students on a regular basis.

Take one minute to review the handout, including the example response guides and rubrics, which are provided in English and Spanish. Place a check mark by the items you use often and a star beside the one you will begin incorporating into your writing instruction.

Provide one minute for participants to examine the handout.

Writing is personal. Students need to feel that you are interested in what they have to say and how they want to say it. Once a score or a grade is placed on a student's writing, it can feel final. Reserve grading rubrics like those on pages 7, 8, 13, and 14 of the handout for final, published pieces. Use qualitative feedback at all other times.

Provide specific feedback—both positive and critical—during individual writing conferences with students.

References

Hattie, 2012; Learning First Alliance, 2000; Rose, 1989

Conferencing With Students



- Meet with a few students each day.
- Keep conferences short (e.g., two to three minutes).
- Make eye contact with the writer.
- Have the student read his or her writing aloud.
- Ask questions to clarify and extend the writing.
- Provide plenty of support and encouragement.
- Emphasize strategies and skills the student is ready to use.

The Big Picture

- Establish a comfortable environment for sharing.
- Build trust by being a good listener.
- Show a genuine interest in each student's writing.



Slide 59—Conferencing With Students

(2:50:30–2:51:00)

Turn to page 2 of Handout 26.

Pause for participants to locate the page.

This page includes guidelines for conferencing with students about their writing. Listen actively as students read their work aloud. Look them in the eye, describe specific effective elements in their writing, and ask specific questions related to their ideas, organization, word choice, etc.

Again, be sensitive about the feedback you provide students. If they feel they can trust you, they are more likely to continue working on their writing in your classroom.

Remember

“In our increasingly technology-mediated society, we can no longer afford to consider writing a skill for the privileged few. Writing is one of the primary ways that we persuade and inform, both socially and professionally ... The ability to communicate through [various] media has become a gatekeeper for full participation in economic and social life.”

— Graham, 2013, p. 3



Slide 60—Remember

(2:51:00–2:51:30)

Being an effective writer is no longer optional. We must start early to ensure that students develop all of the skills necessary to becoming motivated, successful writers.

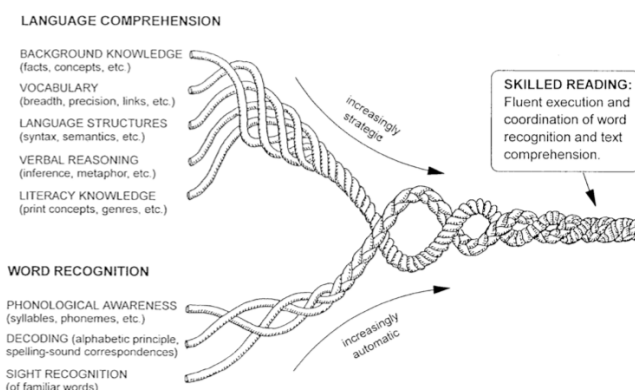
References

Bromley, 2000; Graham, 2013

The Reading Rope



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



Scarborough, 2001



Slide 61—The Reading Rope

(2:51:30–2:53:30)

Activity

Please locate your handout and model of the reading rope.

Display your model of the rope on the document camera.

Recall that each pipe cleaner in our reading rope represents skills needed for students to be proficient, skilled readers. Throughout this section, we have discussed skills necessary for students to be fluent writers. Discuss how the strands affect a student's ability to be a fluent writer.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss the question. Possible examples include the following:

- **Receptive language versus expressive language:** Reading is a receptive task where students understand and learn new information via text. Writing is an expressive task where students create text to communicate and to

express themselves. For students to be fluent writers, they must have well-developed receptive language skills.

- ***Decoding versus encoding:*** *Reading requires decoding, which is the ability to translate a word from print to speech, usually by using knowledge of sound-symbol correspondences, or the act of sounding out a new word. Writing requires encoding in addition to decoding. Encoding is the ability to translate a word from speech to print, or the act of spelling a word.*

Take a moment to reflect on the guiding question on the slide.

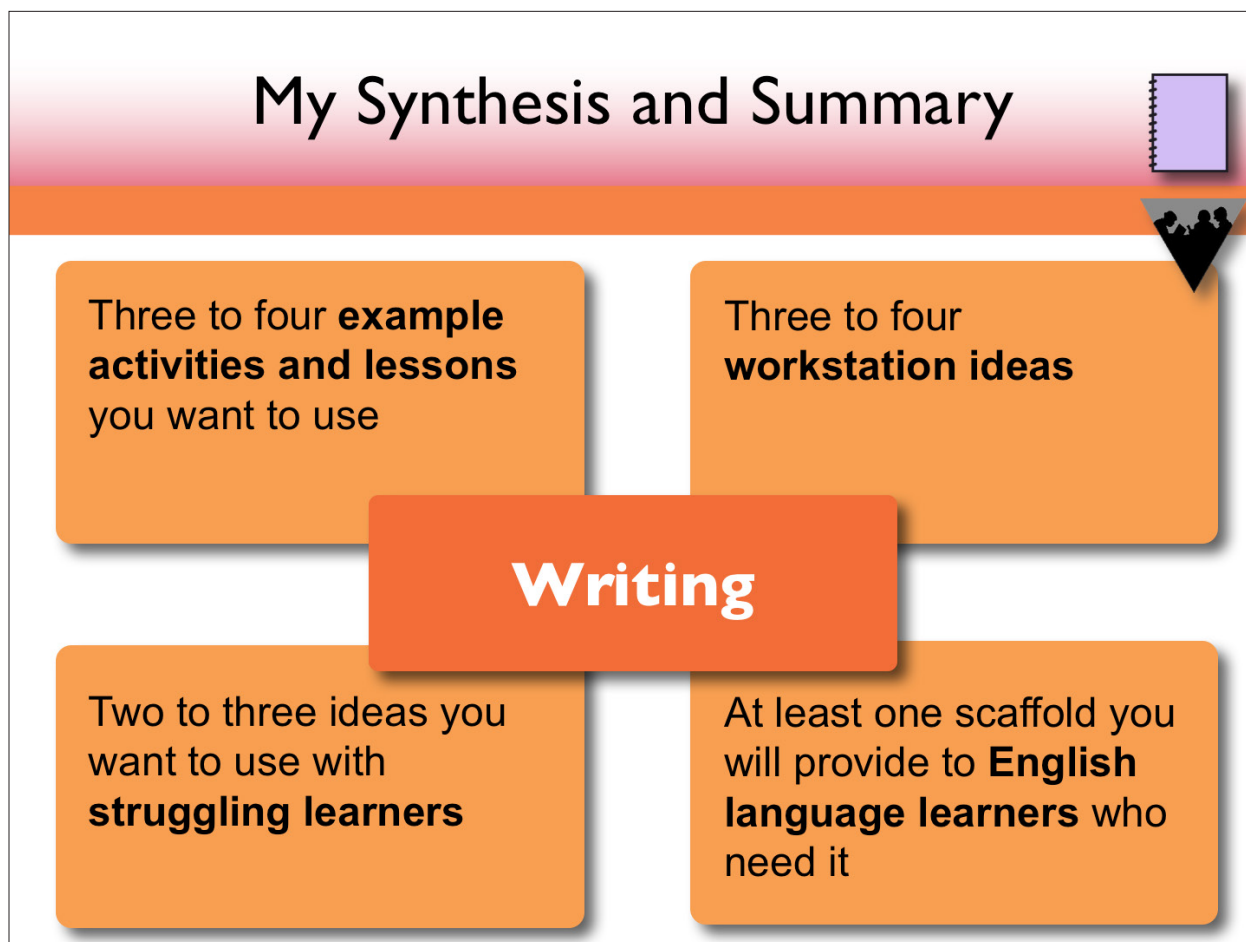
Allow 30 seconds for participants to reflect.

Put your reading rope handout and model back in your folder.

Now that you have had time to reflect, let's see how our new learning can be applied to our daily instruction.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001



Slide 62—My Synthesis and Summary

(2:53:30–3:00:00)

We will wrap up this section by synthesizing what we have learned and what it means for writing within our literacy block. Take out the Grade 4 Literacy Block and the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide from your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the resources.

As with the other sections, we will use these two documents to summarize what we have learned and how we can apply it to our literacy instruction when we get back to our classroom. On the Grade 4 Literacy Block handout, we will complete the fifth row for Writing.

Display Presenter Resource 3 on the document camera.

Activity

Here is a model showing how I completed the Literacy Block document for this section.

Review the example on the presenter resource as needed.

When filling out the last column related to English language learners, you may refer to your English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide. Please take four minutes to fill out all four columns for this section.

Allow four minutes for participants to work.


Please place your Literacy Block and English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide back in your folder to use again.

We have finished the Writing section.



Writing

Handouts

A graphic of a yellow pencil with a black eraser and a black band. The pencil is positioned horizontally, with its tip pointing to the left. The band has the text "GRADES 4 & 5" written on it in a black, sans-serif font.

READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Quick-Writes for Teaching Writing

Reflect for one minute on your current writing instructional practices. Then, for two minutes, complete a quick-write to document those practices as they relate to each of the five areas of writing instruction listed below. Below the table, write one or two sentences to express how you feel about teaching writing.

Writing Instruction Area	Practices
Allocating time	
Explicitly teaching handwriting, spelling, and syntax	
Modeling and practicing the writing process	
Writing for a variety of purposes and audiences	
Monitoring writing progress	

Teaching Writing Reflection:

Recommendations From ***Teaching Elementary School Students to be Effective Writers***

Recommendation 1:

Provide daily time for students to write.

Recommendation 2:

Teach students to use the writing process for a variety of purposes.

- Recommendation 2a:
Teach students the writing process.
 - Teach students strategies for the various components of the writing process.
 - Gradually release writing responsibility to the student.
 - Guide students to select and use appropriate writing strategies.
 - Encourage students to be flexible in their use of the writing process components.
- Recommendation 2b:
Teach students to write for a variety of purposes.
 - Help students understand the different purposes of writing.
 - Expand students' concept of audience.
 - Teach students to emulate the features of good writing.
 - Teach students techniques for writing effectively for different purposes.

Recommendation 3:

Teach students to become fluent with handwriting, spelling, sentence construction, typing, and word processing.

- Teach young writers how to hold a pencil and how to form letters fluently and efficiently.
- Teach students to spell words correctly.
- Teach students to construct sentences for fluency, meaning, and style.
- Teach students to type fluently and to use a word processor to compose.

Recommendation 4:
Create an engaged community of writers.

- Participate as members of the community by writing and sharing writing with students.
- Give students writing choices.
- Encourage students to collaborate as writers.
- Provide students with opportunities to give and receive feedback throughout the writing process.
- Publish students' writing and extend the community beyond the classroom.

Adapted from Graham et al., 2012.

Writing TEKS and Research-Based Recommendations

Use your English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment chart to answer the questions.

Allocating Daily Time

About what percentage of the grade 4 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS address the components of effective writing instruction (e.g., writing process, handwriting, conventions, spelling)?

- (a) 20 percent to 30 percent
- (b) 30 percent to 40 percent
- (c) 40 percent to 50 percent
- (d) 50 percent to 60 percent

What does your answer tell you about the time you should spend on teaching and having students practice writing as compared to teaching and having students practice reading?

Teaching the Writing Process

Which steps of the writing process are students expected to learn about and practice in grade 4?

Writing for a Variety of Purposes

What types of writing are students expected to learn about and practice in grades 3–6?

Teaching Handwriting, Spelling, Sentence Construction, Typing, and Word Processing

In relation to handwriting, what should students be able to do by the end of fourth grade?

How many spelling expectations are in fourth grade?

What sentence types should students master by the end of fourth grade?

Creating a Community of Writers

How often do the TEKS mention writing for an audience or reader? Highlight all uses of the words *audience* and *reader* across grades 3–6. In relation to which areas are these words mentioned?

Adapted from Graham et al., 2012.

Integrating Writing Across the Curriculum

Quick-Writes

Quick-writes are opportunities for students to write in different content areas, such as mathematics, science, and social studies. Quick writes can be read and discussed to monitor student progress and understanding.

Types of Quick-Writes	Example Prompts
Previewing Helps students and teachers determine prior knowledge	We are beginning a unit about energy. Write all the words you think of when you think of energy. You have one minute. Before we begin studying fractions, write two sentences describing what you already know about fractions.
Summarizing Reflects knowledge and concepts learned during a lesson	We have been learning about force. Write a one-sentence definition of force. We have been discussing Stephen F. Austin. Write one or two sentences about how he showed determination.
Self-Assessing Assesses and checks student understanding of important information	Today, we learned a lot of new information about musical instruments. Write one thing you are not sure you understand. Tell me in one or two sentences what the experiment taught you about magnetism.

In-Depth Writing Activities

Quick writes are just one type of writing activity to build into content area lessons. Here are a few other writing activities that help students process content area concepts more deeply.

- Silent conversations:** Like the “turn to a partner” activity, this strategy allows students to talk to one another about a question or concept but on paper (thus, silently), rather than orally. Students need paper or maybe even a dialogue journal to write and keep track of their conversations. To implement this strategy, stop a lesson and have students write a note to a fellow student about a question they have or a concept they are learning. After one to three minutes, have partners stop writing and swap notes. Then, give students another one to three minutes to read and respond silently to each other’s notes. Continue this note-writing and note-swapping process as many times as you see fit.
- Write around:** Similar to silent conversations, students write notes about what they are learning, but in this activity, students work in groups of three to five. Students write on a topic for one to three minutes until the teacher says, “Pass.” Then, students each pass their paper to the next person, who reads what the last person wrote, writes his or her initials in the margin, and begins writing until the teacher says, “Pass” again. The process continues until the teacher decides to stop the activity.

- **Double-column note-taking:** This writing strategy is similar to what is called “Cornell notes,” and it can be used during read-alouds, discussions, video watching, etc. Students first divide a piece of paper in half to create two columns and label each column. The first column is for students to write notes from the reading, discussion, or other lesson; the second is for students to respond or reflect on this information. For example, if the first column is labeled “Quotes From Video,” the second column might be labeled “My Thoughts” or “What It Means to Me.” As another example, the first column might be labeled “Addition Problem” and the second “My Solution.” Tell students what these notes will be used for. Will students use the notes to have a discussion after the lesson? Will they use the notes to write an essay? Will they use the notes later for some other purpose? Make sure to model how to fill in each column before students begin.
- **Nonstop write:** Stop during a lesson, display a prompt related to what students have been learning, and have students write as much as they can on the topic for three to five minutes nonstop. The focus is getting ideas down, not writing with correct punctuation or spelling. Tell students how you will use this writing. Will students use the writing to monitor their learning? Will students share the writing with a partner? Will you collect the writing to read?

Content Journals and Learning Logs

A content journal is a place for students to record their questions, insight, confusion, and ideas about what they are learning. Journal entries are more extended than quick-writes.

Students can incorporate what they are learning and how they may use it. They can write scientific observations, results of experiments, descriptions of how to solve mathematics problems, plans for reports, or responses to questions that the class has brainstormed. Some students include drawings, charts, graphs, and time lines.

Students can choose a subtopic connected to the content, or they can respond to assigned topics from the teacher. Students can write in journals in the beginning or at the end of a lesson. Students can also write brief comments or pose questions during reading or a lesson.

Examples of journal entries in mathematics include the following:

- Creating an anchor chart to show the relationship between fractions and decimals
- Writing a tip to help students work division problems
- Writing a paragraph using mathematics terms from a content word wall

Adapted from Cunningham, 2002; Daniels, Zemelman, & Steineke, 2007; Moore, Moore, Cunningham, & Cunningham, 2010.

Silent Conversation

“Every fraction is a division problem.”

[illegible]

Silent Conversation (Long Division)

Solve: $598 \div 9 = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

Step 1 Reasoning and Response:	Step 1:
Step 2 Reasoning and Response:	Step 2:
Step 3 Reasoning and Response:	Step 3:
Step 4 Reasoning and Response:	Step 4:
Step 5 Reasoning and Response:	Step 5:

Conversaciones silenciosas

“Todas las fracciones son un problema de división.”

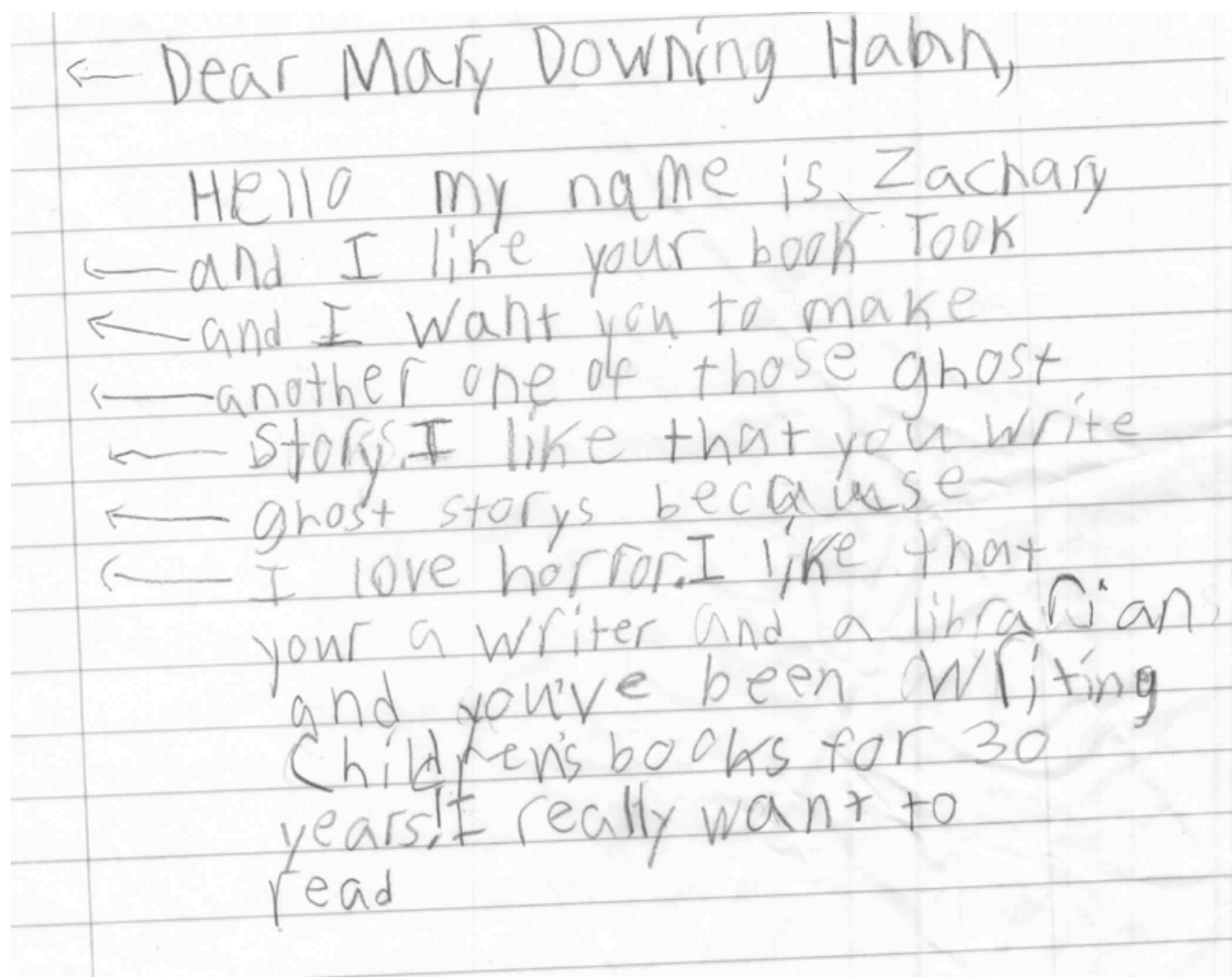
[illegible]

Conversación silenciosa
(División larga)

Resuelve: $598 \div 9 = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$

1er paso—Razonamiento y respuesta:	1er paso:
2do paso—Razonamiento y respuesta:	2do paso:
3er paso—Razonamiento y respuesta:	3er paso:
4to paso—Razonamiento y respuesta:	4to paso:
5to paso—Razonamiento y respuesta:	5to paso:

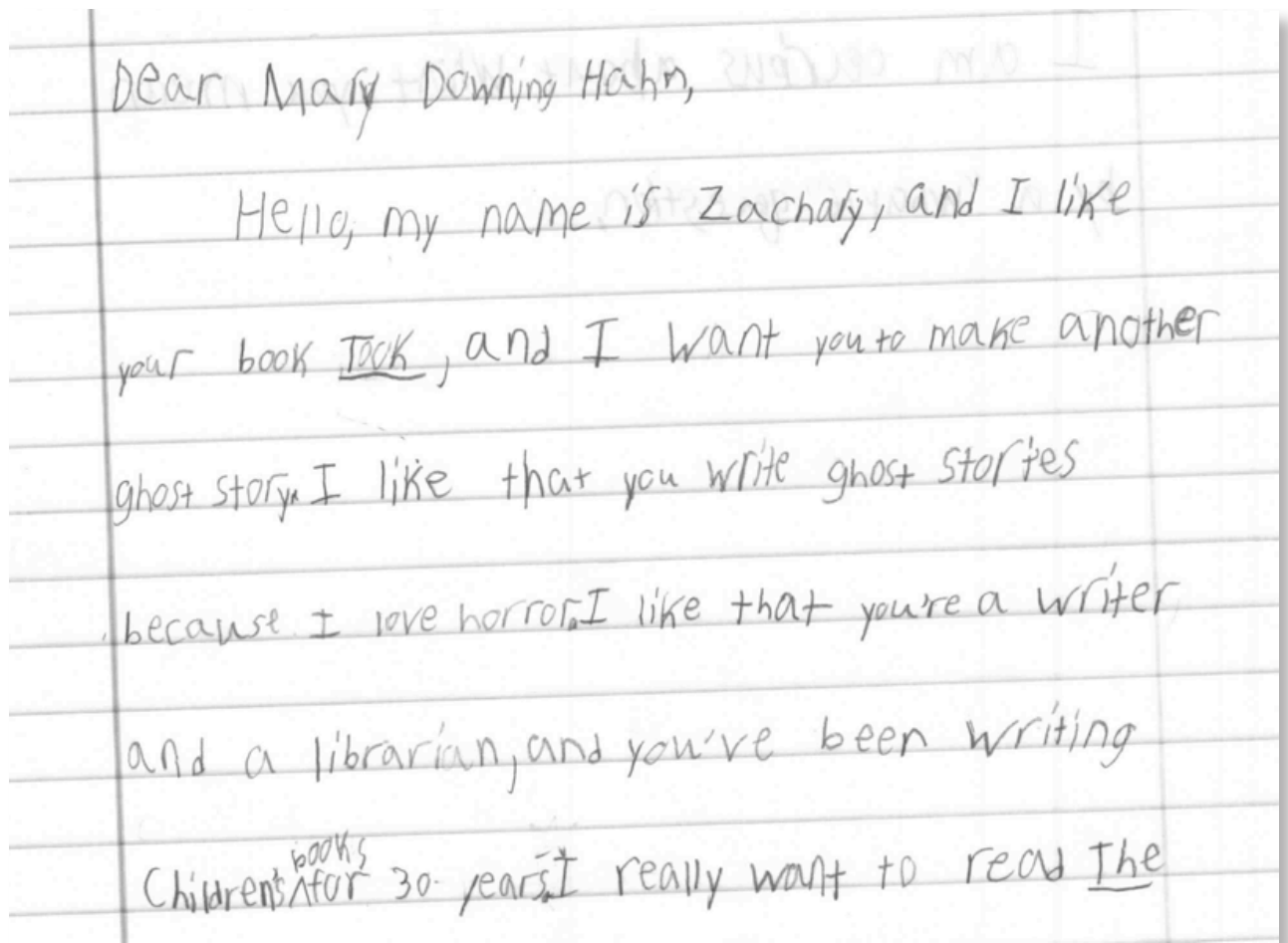
The Presentation Effect: Handwriting Samples



Does it meet the handwriting expectations in the English Language Arts Reading TEKS? Circle YES or NO.

Writes from left to right?	YES	NO	Puts spaces between words?	YES	NO
Writes from top to bottom?	YES	NO	Puts spaces between sentences?	YES	NO
Writes legibly in script or cursive?	YES	NO	Leaves appropriate margins?	YES	NO

What does this writing sample tell you about this student as a writer? Would you say he is a struggling writer?



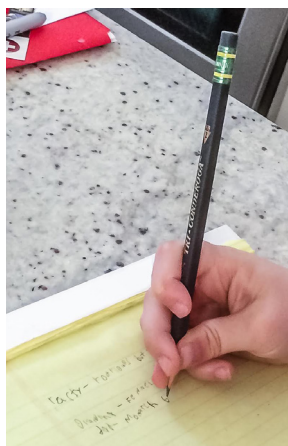
Does it meet the handwriting expectations in the English Language Arts Reading TEKS? Circle YES or NO.

Writes from left to right?	YES	NO	Puts spaces between words?	YES	NO
Writes from top to bottom?	YES	NO	Puts spaces between sentences?	YES	NO
Writes legibly in script or cursive?	YES	NO	Leaves appropriate margins?	YES	NO

The same student wrote both of these samples. Does your opinion of his writing ability change based on the second version?

NOTE: Both samples are rough drafts. After writing the first one, the student conferenced with the teacher. She told him that even though it was a rough draft, he should follow conventions they had been taught. She reminded him about margins, double-spacing, and writing in his best handwriting. She asked him to rewrite the draft. The second one is the rewritten draft.

Guidelines for Teaching Handwriting



1. Show students how to hold a pencil.

Students should learn to hold a pencil comfortably between their thumb and forefinger with it resting on their middle finger.

Make sure to form letters the same way that students should form them. Sometimes, we have developed our own inefficient methods for writing letters, and we do not want to transfer these bad habits to our students' writing.

Do not allow students to continue to grip their pencil incorrectly. The picture on the left shows what happens when teachers do not take the time to correct a student's pencil grip. This student is in third grade. Poor pencil grips lead to illegible handwriting and fatigue.

2. Model efficient and legible letter formation.

Students need to see how each letter is written. Correct letter formation allows students to write both legibly and fluently.

Model correct letter formation on the board or document camera. Form letters the same way that students should form them. Sometimes, we have developed our own inefficient methods for writing letters, and we do not want to transfer these bad habits to our students' writing.

3. Provide multiple opportunities for students to practice effective letter formation.

Students should practice writing their letters both out of context and within the context of writing words and sentences.

Have students say the name of the letter before they write it. As they make progress, have students write groups of letters (e.g., two to five letters). Have students say the letter names before they write them.

During this practice, monitor students' pencil grip and letter formation closely. Provide immediate feedback to students when you see incorrect letter formation. Do not allow bad habits to form.

Make sure that students practice both uppercase and lowercase letter formation. Lowercase letters are much more prevalent in our writing system than uppercase letters, yet students often get more practice with uppercase letters.

Once students have learned how to correctly form a letter, they should practice writing this letter multiple times every day. Once students have learned the entire alphabet, they should practice writing it, especially the lowercase version, at least once a day.

4. Use scaffolds, such as letters with numbered arrows showing the order and direction of strokes.

Each student should have a desk plate with letters that have numbered arrows showing the order and direction of strokes.

Use handwriting paper with a dashed line in the middle. This paper helps students see where to begin and end the formation of certain letters, especially lowercase ones.

You can create handwriting worksheets with both of these elements for free at this website:
www.handwritingworksheets.com

5. Have students practice writing letters from memory.

Students should not only copy letters, words, and sentences, but also practice writing them from memory.

For example, show students the letter with the arrows. Then, cover it and have them write the letter from memory.

Gradually increase the amount of time the letter is covered before students are allowed to write it.

6. Provide handwriting fluency practice to build students' automaticity.

Just like other skills, students need to build automaticity with handwriting.

A simple activity is having students copy a sentence with specific letters in it repeatedly for a certain time period (e.g., three minutes). Afterward, they can count the number of letters they wrote. Students can do this activity with the same sentence three or four times in a week and compare or even graph their number of letters to see their improvement.

7. Practice handwriting in short sessions.

Like other motor skills, it's good to practice handwriting in brief, distributed sessions (e.g., practicing a letter five or six times).

Have students practice handwriting in both the whole group and teacher-led small groups so you can ensure correct pencil grip and letter formation and provide immediate feedback.

Adapted from Berninger et al., 1997; Berninger et al., 2006; Denton, Cope, & Moser, 2006; Graham et al., 2012; Graham, Harris, & Fink, 2000; Graham & Weintraub, 1996.

Sentence Activities for Building Syntactic Knowledge

Model Sentences

Use model sentences to teach specific syntactic elements such as parts of speech, punctuation, or capitalization. You can also use model sentences to teach more sophisticated linguistic elements such as rhyme, alliteration, or sensory language.

Find model sentences in texts that you or your students are reading or writing. Teach your students to become sentence detectives. In planning to teach a convention, find it in your own or your students' reading or writing. Show the sentence and talk about it. Ask students to analyze its interesting features. Scaffold students in discussing how these features relate to meaning.

Next, to extend this knowledge, have students find sentences with similar syntactic patterns. For example, if you are teaching exclamation marks, have students watch for exclamation marks in texts that they're reading or that you're reading aloud to them. When you find a sentence that fits the pattern, write it on a sentence strip. Collect sentences on a model sentence wall that you and students can add to and use.

Teach students to correct errors in sentences. Change one feature that you've taught in a model sentence (e.g., change a period to a question mark). Then discuss how the change affects meaning.

We can use the Spanish term "oraciones modelo" to teach this concept and implement this activity in the bilingual classroom.

Sentence Anagrams

Segment a sentence into single words and have students arrange the words to make a complete sentence. Avoid capitalizing any of the words or including any punctuation, so that students can add these elements after they build the sentence.

HINT: Put the words on individual note cards for students to manipulate. As an additional scaffold, write words from different parts of speech in different colors (e.g., nouns red, verbs blue).

We can use the Spanish translation "anagramas de oraciones" when practicing this activity in the bilingual classroom.

Expanding or Elaborating Sentences

Start with an original sentence. Have students add words, phrases, and clauses to provide more details and expand the sentence.

Guidelines

Have students identify the subject and predicate in the sentence.

Have students answer questions related to the predicate.

- Did what...?

- How...?
- When...?
- Where...?
- Why...?

Have students answer questions related to the subject.

- Who or what...?
- Which...?
- What kind of...?

Use the responses to these questions to expand on their original sentence.

Sample Routine 1

1. Write phrases on index cards that answer the questions *who* (or *what*), *did what*, *when*, *where*, and *why*. Use different-colored cards for each type of phrase. See page 3 of this handout for examples.
2. Place students in small groups.
3. Give each group a set of cards that contains the different types of phrases.
4. Have the group arrange the phrases into complete sentences.
5. Ask students to identify the type of phrase on each card.

OPTIONAL ACTIVITY: Put all the phrases on white index cards. Have students sort the phrases into categories: *who* (or *what*), *did what*, *when*, *where*, and *why*. Have students build sentences using one phrase from each category.

Sample Routine 2

1. Write the original sentence on a sentence strip and put it in a pocket chart.
2. Model how to fill out the chart on page 4 of this handout for the sentence.
3. Transfer your responses in the chart to sentence strips and put them in the pocket chart.
4. Have students help you move the sentence strips around the original sentence to come up with a more detailed sentence.
5. Place students in small groups.
6. Give the groups another sentence or have them come up with their own original sentence.
7. Have students fill out the chart on page 4.

8. Have students transfer their responses on the chart to sentence strips.
9. Students can then move the sentence strips around the original sentence to come up with a more detailed sentence.
10. Have each group share their expanded sentence.

Example Phrases and Key Words

Who or What?	Did What?	When?	Where?	Why?
one small square	has been spinning slowly	in 1885	on the mountains	because...
the rocky region	posed a problem	throughout the day	in the beaker	in order to...
a special citizen	was drawn with care	yesterday afternoon	at the center	so...
many thick, human cheek cells	read a line plot	after the election	near the edge	since...
expanded forms	form clouds	during the process	through the Arctic waters	unless...
distribution maps	clearly features the formations	for weeks and weeks	under the microscope	if not agreed upon
tiny droplets of condensed water	would change the way of life	at the last moment	among the possible solutions	if conditions are right
ordered pairs	write the division sentence	as time ran out	across the rocky terrain	
various trade agreements	is greater than the circumference	at approximately 8:40	beneath the surface	
the conscientious student	slowly carries messages	ahead of today	between the points	
		while calculating		
		later		
		before		

Sentence Expansion

ORIGINAL Sentence	
Expand the Predicate	
How?	
When?	
Where?	
Why?	
Expand the Subject	
Who or what?	
Which?	
What kind of?	
FINAL Sentence	

Adapted from Anderson, 2005, 2007; Greene, 2000; Moats & Hennessy, 2010; Saddler, 2009, 2012.

Expandiendo oraciones

Empiece con la oración original. Pida a los estudiantes que añadan palabras, frases, o cláusulas para dar más detalles y expandir la oración.

Reglas generales:

Pida a los estudiantes que identifiquen el sujeto y el predicado.

Pida a los estudiantes que contesten las preguntas relacionadas al predicado.

- ¿Qué le pasó a....?
- ¿Cómo...?
- ¿Cuándo...?
- ¿Dónde...?
- ¿Por qué...?

Pida a los estudiantes que contesten las preguntas relacionadas al sujeto.

- ¿Quién o qué?
- ¿Cuál...?
- ¿Qué clase de...?

Utilice las respuestas a estas preguntas para agrandar o ampliar la oración original.

Ejemplo de rutina 1

1. Escriba en tarjetas frases que contesten las preguntas: *quién o qué, qué hizo, cuándo, dónde, y por qué*. Utilice diferentes colores de tarjetas para cada frase.
2. Organice a los alumnos en pequeños grupos.
3. Entregue a cada grupo de estudiantes un grupo de tarjetas que contenga diferentes tipos de frases.
4. Pida al grupo que organice las frases en oraciones completas.
5. Después pida a los estudiantes que identifiquen el tipo de frase en cada tarjeta.

Actividad opcional: Ponga todas las frases en tarjetas blancas. Pida a los estudiantes que categoricen las tarjetas dependiendo de que tipo de frase es: *quién o qué, qué hizo, cuándo, dónde, y por qué*. Pida a los estudiantes que formen oraciones, utilizando una frase de cada categoría.

Ejemplo de rutina 2

1. Escriba la oración original en una tarjeta larga para oraciones y colóquela en un tablero con bolsillos.

2. Demuestre cómo completar la tabla que se presenta más adelante para esta oración.
3. Transfiera sus respuestas a tarjetas largas y colóquelas en el tablero con bolsillos.
4. Pida a los estudiantes que le ayuden a mover las tarjetas largas alrededor de la oración original para crear una oración con más detalles.
5. Organice a los alumnos en pequeños grupos.
6. Entregue a los grupos otra oración o pídales que escriban ellos su propia oración original.
7. Pida a los estudiantes que completen la tabla presentada.
8. Pida a los estudiantes que transfieran sus respuestas de la tabla a tarjetas largas.
9. Los estudiantes pueden poner las tarjetas largas alrededor de la oración original para crear una oración con más detallada.
10. Pida que cada grupo comparta su nueva oración.

Ejemplos de frases y palabras clave

Qué o quién	Qué hizo	Cuándo	Dónde	Por qué
el discurso	cabalgó	durante todo el día	en la plaza principal	porque...
pequeñas gotas de agua	siguen desapareciendo	a la media noche	bajo el microscopio	para... debido...
los animales en peligro de extinción	forman nubes	durante los últimos años	en África	con motivo de...
la princesa	se abrió al público	el mes pasado	en Nueva York	sin embargo...
la exhibición	fue escuchado	a las 9:30 am	hasta la cueva	

The Writing Process

Writing Stage	Procedures
Planning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Selecting topics, generating ideas, and organizing ideas and related concepts to write about Determining purpose, audience, and writing form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Think Brainstorm Create webs or maps of ideas Read related information List ideas Make and organize notes Outline important points to include Set goals for writing
Drafting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Putting planning ideas into writing Reading and rereading to determine whether writing makes sense Conferencing with teacher and peers to discuss and review writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have writing materials ready Get ideas down Concentrate on meaning and content Skip lines and write on one side of page Circle unfamiliar words Label: "Work in Progress" Follow planning organizer Remember that first drafts are not perfect
Revising <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making content changes discussed during conferences Changing text to clarify or enhance meaning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conference with peer and/or teacher Reread, reword, rewrite for clearer meaning Refine word choice and sentence structure Use self-revising checklist
Editing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correcting punctuation, capitalization, grammar, and spelling Conferencing with teacher or peer to proofread and edit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reread Proofread Check spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and grammar Use peer-editing and/or self-editing checklists
Sharing or publishing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preparing and sharing writing on a regular basis Celebrating accomplishments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Display for others to read in class and in school Read work to others Write to others (e.g., pen pals) Make own books Write for class newsletter, local newspaper, or children's magazines Write reports or plays to read to class

Adapted from Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Bromley, 1998; Cunningham & Allington, 1999; Graham et al., 2012; Gunning, 2002.

El proceso de escritura

Etapa	Procedimientos
Planear <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seleccionar temas, generar ideas y organizar ideas y conceptos relacionados al tema del escrito • Determinar el propósito, la audiencia, y el tipo de texto a escribir 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pensar • Realizar una lluvia de ideas • Crear mapas y listados de ideas • Leer información relevante al tema • Tomar y organizar notas • Identificar importantes puntos para escribir • Establecer objetivos para el escrito
Escribir un borrador <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poner las ideas por escrito • Leer y volver a leer para determinar si el escrito tiene sentido • Realizar una conferencia con el maestro/a o con compañeros para revisar el escrito 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tener materiales para escribir listos • Escribir las ideas • Concentrarse en el significado y el contenido del escrito • Saltar un renglón al escribir y escribir solo en un lado de la hoja • Circular palabras desconocidas • Marcar el escrito como “En proceso” • Utilizar el organizador gráfico utilizado para la planeación
Revisar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cambiar el contenido del texto escrito de acuerdo a la discusión anterior (la conferencia) • Modificar el escrito para aclarar o mejorar el significado 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Releer y volver a escribir para aclarar significado. • Utilizar una lista de control para la auto-revisión • Realizar otra conferencia para revisar el escrito si es necesario
Editar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Corregir la puntuación, la gramática y la ortografía • Realizar una conferencia con la maestra o compañero para buscar errores y corregirlos 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volver a leer • Buscar errores y revisar el escrito • Revisar y corregir ortografía, puntuación, uso de mayúsculas y gramática • Utilizar listas de control para auto-editar el escrito y listas de control para que otros editen
Publicar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preparar el texto escrito para compartir con los demás regularmente • Celebrar los logros de escritura 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exhibir los escritos para que otros los puedan leer en el salón y en la escuela • Leer el trabajo a otros • Escribir cartas, notas a otros • Escribir sus propios libros • Escribir para el boletín informativo del salón o de la escuela, para el periódico local o para revistas para niños • Escribir reportes u obras de teatro para el salón

Adapted from Bos & Vaughn, 2002; Bromley, 1998; Cunningham & Allington, 1999; Graham et al., 2012; Gunning, 2002.

Ideas for Supporting Student Planning

Create a Supportive Planning Environment

- Allow students to take risks with their writing.
- Be enthusiastic about planning for writing.
- Allow students to set up their own writing space.
- Provide choice in students' writing topics.
- Have students help and provide feedback to one another during the planning process.
- Have students share their works in progress with one another.

Provide Planning Activities

- Have students gather information on the topic from multiple sources.
- Have students brainstorm everything they know or want to know about a topic.
- Use graphic organizers to organize information before writing.
- Generate questions to answer or to focus discussion and planning.



Use Inquiry to Engage Students

- Examine objects for certain characteristics to describe, compare, or contrast.
- Conduct experiments and use the findings as the basis for writing.
- Observe certain phenomena to write about.
- Explore another person's perspective to derive a narrative or expository text.


Teach Planning Strategies Explicitly

- Model and scaffold strategy use until students can apply the strategies on their own.
- Make strategy learning an interactive process among the teacher and students.
- Support students in gaining the knowledge and skills necessary to implement strategies effectively.
- Differentiate instruction in strategy use to meet students' various needs.
- Understand that some students need more time to master a strategy than other students.
- Motivate students to continue to use strategies consistently on their own.
- Teach students how to self-regulate when using a strategy (e.g., monitor their use of the strategy, develop an awareness of the difficulties in using the strategy).
- Help students to use a strategy flexibly by understanding when, where, and why the strategy is most helpful.

Planning Conference Guide

<p>I am the Writer</p>  <p>I have bright ideas!</p>	<p>I am the Partner</p>  <p>I help iron out those ideas!</p>
<p>Planning for My Purpose</p> <p>Explain your purpose for writing.</p> <p>Answer any questions your partner asks.</p> <p>Make a note of suggestions.</p>	<p>Planning for the Purpose</p> <p>Decide whether the writer has a clear purpose for writing.</p> <p>Suggest a possible purpose and help the writer make changes if necessary.</p>
<p>Planning for My Audience</p> <p>Describe your audience.</p> <p>Answer any questions your partner asks.</p> <p>Make a note of suggestions.</p>	<p>Planning for the Audience</p> <p>Decide whether the writer really understands the audience.</p> <p>Suggest possible audiences and new audience characteristics.</p>
<p>Planning for My Content</p> <p>Explain your main ideas to your partner.</p> <p>Describe how you plan to elaborate on each main idea.</p> <p>Make a note of suggestions.</p>	<p>Planning for the Content</p> <p>Listen as the writer shares the ideas.</p> <p>Decide whether the ideas make sense.</p> <p>Suggest new ways to elaborate.</p>
<p>Planning for My Form</p> <p>Share your organization plan with your partner.</p> <p>Answer any questions your partner asks.</p> <p>Make a note of suggestions.</p>	<p>Planning for the Form</p> <p>Look and listen as the writer describes the plan.</p> <p>Decide whether the form is clear and fits the writing purpose.</p> <p>Suggest new ways to organize.</p>

Guía para la conferencia de planeación

<p>Yo soy el escritor</p>  <p>¡Tengo ideas brillantes!</p>	<p>Yo soy la pareja</p>  <p>¡Yo ayudo a mejorar esas ideas!</p>
<p>Planear el objetivo</p> <p>Explica tu objetivo o propósito para escribir.</p> <p>Contesta las preguntas que tu pareja tenga.</p> <p>Anota las sugerencias que te haga tu pareja.</p>	<p>Planear el objetivo</p> <p>Decide si el escritor tiene un objetivo claro para escribir.</p> <p>Sugiere un posible objetivo y ayuda al escritor a hacer cambios si es necesario.</p>
<p>Planear para mi audiencia</p> <p>Describe tu audiencia.</p> <p>Contesta las preguntas que tu pareja tenga.</p> <p>Anota las sugerencias que te haga tu pareja.</p>	<p>Planear para la audiencia</p> <p>Decide si el escritor realmente entiende la audiencia a la que se dirige su texto.</p> <p>Sugiere diferentes audiencias y las características de nuevas audiencias si es necesario.</p>
<p>Planear el contenido</p> <p>Explica las ideas principales a tu pareja.</p> <p>Describe cómo piensas desarrollar cada idea principal.</p> <p>Anota las sugerencias que te haga tu pareja.</p>	<p>Planear el contenido</p> <p>Escucha cuando el escritor te explique las ideas.</p> <p>Decide si las ideas tienen sentido.</p> <p>Sugiere nuevas maneras para desarrollar las ideas.</p>
<p>Planear la estructura del texto</p> <p>Explica la organización de tu texto a tu pareja.</p> <p>Contesta las preguntas que tu pareja tenga.</p> <p>Anota las sugerencias que te haga tu pareja.</p>	<p>Planear la estructura del texto</p> <p>Observa y escucha mientras el escritor te describe la organización de su texto.</p> <p>Decide si la estructura del texto está clara y corresponde al objetivo para escribir.</p> <p>Sugiere nuevas maneras para organizar el texto.</p>

Teaching Revising Strategies

Set clear, meaningful goals for writing tasks.

Make sure that students understand their purpose for writing and the audience.

To make a writing task more meaningful, have students focus on writing for a specific audience.

For students to revise successfully, they must compare the text they've written to the text they intended to write. Having such intentions implies having specific goals for a piece of writing.

Ensure that students receive feedback on their writing from you and their peers.

Conference with students about their writing to provide individual feedback.

ENGLISH

Ideas for Complimenting Writing	Questions and Suggestions to Improve Writing
The beginning of your paper is effective because...	Could you add a sentence at the beginning to get the reader's attention?
This part pulls the reader in because...	I got confused in the part about...
You explained this effectively by...	Could you add an example to show...?
The order you used in this paper works because...	Your paper might make more sense if you rearranged...
You used several details to describe _____, including...	Could you add more information about...?
The dialogue in this story makes it more interesting.	You might add dialogue here to...
Your use of the word _____ works well here because...	Could you use a different word for _____ because...
The facts you chose work well because...	You could leave this part out because...
This example was a good choice because...	Is there an example you could use to illustrate...?
The ending of your paper is effective because...	You might add one more sentence at the end to...
Your [story/essay] made me [feel/think]...	There's quite a bit of repetition at this part. How can we fix that?

SPANISH

Ideas para elogiar el texto	Preguntas y sugerencias para mejorar el texto
El inicio de tu texto es efectivo porque...	¿Podrías añadir una oración al principio del texto que capture la atención del lector?
Esta parte captura la atención del lector porque...	Me confundí en la parte sobre...
Tú explicaste este punto efectivamente porque...	¿Podrías añadir un ejemplo para mostrar o explicar ...?
El orden de tus ideas en este texto funciona porque ...	Tu texto podría tener más sentido si tú reorganizaras...
Utilizaste varios detalles para describir _____ incluyendo....	¿Podrías añadir más información sobre...?
El diálogo que escribiste en esta historia la hace más interesante.	Podrías añadir diálogo aquí para...
La palabra _____ funciona bien en esta parte porque...	¿Podrías añadir una palabra diferente a _____ para...?
Los hechos que escogiste funcionan bien porque...	Podrías eliminar esa parte porque....
Poner este ejemplo fue una buena decisión porque...	¿Puedes utilizar un ejemplo para explicar esta parte?
El final de tu texto es efectivo porque...	Podrías añadir una oración extra al final del texto para ...
Tu historia o texto me hace sentir o pensar...	Repites la misma idea en esta parte. ¿Cómo podemos arreglar esto?

Allow students to discuss each other's writing. Research shows that students learn from revising others' writing and from receiving feedback from their fellow writers.

When students peer revise, provide specific criteria to evaluate each other's writing. Using a rubric with these criteria may be helpful. (See the next point.)

Teach how to use specific criteria to evaluate writing and how to revise based on those criteria.

Revision requires students to evaluate their own writing, which is difficult. Giving students specific evaluation criteria supports this process.

Model how to use evaluation criteria by displaying texts with particular types of problems and discussing how to apply the criteria to revise each text.

Evaluation criteria may be specific to a particular genre, or they could apply more generally across genres. For example, criteria specific to expository writing might include, “Is the thesis clearly stated?” or “Are there at least two clear reasons supporting the thesis?” Specific criteria that could apply across genres include, “Did I use good transition words?” or “Is anything confusing?”

Provide rubrics with specific criteria for students to use when revising others’ or their own writing. See examples on the next two pages.

ENGLISH**Sample rubric for narrative writing**

Score each question:	1 = Needs revision	2 = OK	3 = Well done
Criteria	Feedback		
Is the place where the story takes place clear?	1	2	3
Is the time when the story takes place clear?	1	2	3
Is the main character clearly described?	1	2	3
Are other characters clearly described?	1	2	3
Is there a clear beginning of the story?	1	2	3
Is there a clear middle of the story?	1	2	3
Is there a clear ending to the story?	1	2	3
Is my story entertaining to read?	1	2	3

Sample rubric for expository writing

Score each question:	1 = Needs revision	2 = OK	3 = Well done
Criteria	Feedback		
Is the thesis clearly stated?	1	2	3
Are there at least two clear reasons supporting the thesis?	1	2	3
For each reason, are specific evidence or examples provided?	1	2	3
Is there a clear conclusion that restates the thesis in a different way?	1	2	3
Is there repetition?	1	2	3
Is there anything in my essay that doesn't fit with my thesis?	1	2	3
Does my essay provide a unique perspective on the topic?	1	2	3

Sample rubric for persuasive writing

Score each question:	1 = Needs revision	2 = OK	3 = Well done
Criteria	Feedback		
Is the position clearly stated?	1	2	3
Are there at least two clear reasons supporting the position?	1	2	3
For each reason, are specific evidence or examples provided?	1	2	3
Is the opposing position clearly stated?	1	2	3
Is the opposing position clearly refuted?	1	2	3
Is there a clear conclusion that restates the position in a different way?	1	2	3
Is there repetition?	1	2	3
Does anything in my essay not fit with my position?	1	2	3
Is my essay persuasive?	1	2	3

Sample rubric to apply across genres

Score each question:	1 = Needs revision	2 = OK	3 = Well done
Criteria	Feedback		
Is anything confusing?	1	2	3
Is there repetition?	1	2	3
Does anything in my writing not fit?	1	2	3
Are there gaps where I need to add more information or details?	1	2	3
Does my beginning draw in the reader?	1	2	3
Do I wrap up my writing effectively?	1	2	3
Did I use good transition words?	1	2	3
Do my ideas flow from one sentence to the next?	1	2	3

SPANISH**Ejemplo de rúbrica con criterios específicos para analizar textos narrativos**

Puntuación para cada enunciado: 1 = Necesita revisión 2 = Bien 3 = Excelente			
Criterios	Puntuación		
El lugar donde la historia tiene lugar esta claramente descrito.	1	2	3
El tiempo cuando la historia tiene lugar está claramente descrito.	1	2	3
El personaje principal está claramente descrito.	1	2	3
Los otros personajes también están claramente descritos.	1	2	3
Hay un principio claro en la historia.	1	2	3
Hay una parte media clara en la historia.	1	2	3
Hay un final claro en la historia.	1	2	3
La historia entretiene al lector.	1	2	3

Ejemplo de rúbrica con criterios específicos para analizar textos expositivos

Puntuación para cada enunciado: 1 = Necesita revisión 2 = Bien 3 = Excelente			
Criterios	Puntuación		
La tesis está claramente enunciada.	1	2	3
Hay por lo menos dos razones claras que apoyan la tesis.	1	2	3
Para cada razón, hay evidencia específica o ejemplos dados.	1	2	3
Hay una conclusión clara que exponga la tesis de nuevo pero en una manera diferente.	1	2	3
Repetición de ideas – si la hay—benefician al texto.	1	2	3
Toda la información en el texto concuerda con la tesis.	1	2	3
Mi texto proporciona una perspectiva única sobre el tema.	1	2	3

Ejemplo de rúbrica con criterios específicos para analizar textos persuasivos

Puntuación para cada enunciado: 1 = Necesita revisión 2 = Bien 3 = Excelente			
Criterios	Puntuación		
La posición a persuadir está claramente expuesta.	1	2	3
Hay por lo menos dos razones claras que apoyan la posición.	1	2	3
Para cada razón, hay evidencia específica o ejemplos dados.	1	2	3
La posición opuesta está claramente expuesta.	1	2	3
La posición opuesta está claramente refutada.	1	2	3
Hay una conclusión clara que exponga la posición de nuevo pero en una manera diferente.	1	2	3
Repetición de ideas – si la hay—benefician al texto.	1	2	3
Toda la información en el texto concuerda con la tesis.	1	2	3
Mi texto es persuasivo.	1	2	3

Ejemplo de rúbrica con criterios específicos que se puede aplicar a varios géneros

Puntuación para cada enunciado: 1 = Necesita revisión 2 = Bien 3 = Excelente			
Criterios	Puntuación		
Toda la información está presentada claramente.	1	2	3
Repetición de ideas – si la hay—benefician al texto.	1	2	3
Toda la información en mi texto corresponde con mi tema y mi objetivo.	1	2	3
Toda la información o detalles necesarios están presentes en el texto.	1	2	3
El inicio del texto captura la atención del lector.	1	2	3
El texto termina con una conclusión efectiva.	1	2	3
Utilice palabras de enlace correctamente.	1	2	3
Las ideas fluyen de una oración a la otra correctamente.	1	2	3

Integrate instruction in critical reading with evaluation and revision instruction.

Critical reading and revising writing are similar. They both require the reader to evaluate writing and identify comprehension problems.

Allow students to word process their writing when possible.

Word processing alone does not necessarily improve students' revising abilities; however, allowing students to word process their writing can simplify the physical act of revising.

Word processing may motivate students to revise by removing a major revising deterrent—having to recopy a piece of writing by hand.

Explicitly teach specific revision strategies.

Teach and have students practice syntax revision techniques like sentence expansion for adding details and sentence combining for removing repetition and creating different types of sentences.

Research demonstrates that teaching students a specific strategy for revision can improve both their revising abilities and overall writing quality.

Research-based revision strategies include a combination of peer interaction, specific evaluation criteria, and self-regulation.

Sample revision strategy:

R = Read your essay aloud. Highlight where you think changes need to be made and ask yourself whether you need more ideas. (Use a star to show where you will add something.)

E = Evaluate the problems. Use the evaluation criteria.

V = Verbalize what you will do to fix the problems.

I = Implement the changes.

S = Self-check the one or two goals you set for yourself. Make other revisions based on these goals.

E = End by rereading and making any additional changes.

Adapted from Harris, Graham, Mason, & Friedlander, 2008; MacArthur, 2013; Saddler, 2012; Saddler & Graham, 2005.

Editing Tools

Self-Editing Checklist

	Yes	No	Edits Made
Does each sentence start with a capital letter?			
Does each proper noun (person's name, month, day, title, language, race, nationality) start with a capital letter?			
Does each sentence end with a period, exclamation point, or question mark?			
Do possessive nouns and contractions have apostrophes?			
Do my subjects and verbs match? Does each sentence sound right?			
Did I use a dictionary and/or thesaurus to check my spelling?			
Did I circle words I think are misspelled?			
Do I have commas in the correct places (in lists, dates, and compound sentences)?			
Do I have quotation marks around dialogue?			

Partner Editing Checklist

	Yes	No	Edits Made
Did my partner start each sentence with a capital letter?			
Did my partner start each proper noun (person's name, month, day, title, language, race, nationality) with a capital letter?			
Did my partner end each sentence with a period, exclamation point, or question mark?			
Did my partner use apostrophes in each possessive noun and contraction?			
Did my partner match the subjects and verbs? Does each sentence sound right?			
Did my partner use a dictionary and/or thesaurus to check spelling?			
Did my partner circle words that may be misspelled?			
Did my partner put commas in the correct places (in lists, dates, and compound sentences)?			
Did my partner put quotation marks around dialogue?			

Self-Proofreading Checklist

Did I remember?

- ☐ Capitalization
- ☐ Punctuation
- ☐ Correct spelling
- ☐ Margins
- ☐ Indentation
- ☐ Neatness
- ☐ Complete sentences
- ☐ Beginning and ending of sentences or paragraphs
- ☐ Sentences in order

Peer Editing Checklist

Author: _____

Editor: _____

	Yes	No
All sentences begin with a capital letter.		
Proper nouns are capitalized.		
All sentences end with a punctuation mark (period, question mark, exclamation point).		
All words that need apostrophes have them.		
All sentences are complete sentences.		
All of the words that might be misspelled are circled.		
All sentences that need commas have them.		
All dialogue has quotations marks around it.		

Adapted from Areglado & Dill, 1997; Bromley, 1998.

Herramientas para editar textos

Lista de control para auto-editar

	Si	No	Cambios hechos
Cada oración empieza con mayúscula.			
Cada sustantivo propio (nombres y apellidos de personas, ciudades, países, primera palabra en un título) empieza con mayúscula.			
Cada oración termina con un punto, signo de admiración o signo de interrogación.			
Cada oración suena bien porque mi sujeto y mi verbo concuerdan.			
Utilicé el diccionario para revisar mi ortografía.			
Circulé las palabras que escribí incorrectamente.			
Utilicé comas apropiadamente (en listas y en oraciones compuestas).			
Utilicé el guión de diálogo para escribir diálogo.			

Lista de control para editar con un compañero

	Si	No	Cambios hechos
Mi compañero empezó cada oración con mayúscula.			
Mi compañero empezó cada sustantivo propio (nombres y apellidos de personas, ciudades, países, primera palabra en un título) con mayúscula.			
Mi compañero termino cada oración con un punto, signo de admiración o signo de interrogación.			
Mi compañero revisó que los sujetos y los verbos concuerden en cada oración.			
Mi compañero utilizó el diccionario para revisar la ortografía.			
Mi compañero circuló las palabras que escribió incorrectamente.			
Mi compañero utilizó comas apropiadamente (en listas y en oraciones compuestas).			
Mi compañero utilizó el guión de diálogo para escribir diálogo.			

Lista de control para la auto-corrección

Me acordé de:

- ☐ Mayúsculas
- ☐ Puntuación
- ☐ Ortografía correcta
- ☐ Márgenes
- ☐ Sangría
- ☐ Limpieza
- ☐ Oraciones completas
- ☐ Principios y finales de oraciones y párrafos
- ☐ Oraciones en orden

Lista de control para editar el texto de un compañero

Autor: _____

Editor: _____

	Si	No
Todas las oraciones empiezan con mayúsculas.		
Los sustantivos propios empiezan con mayúsculas.		
Todas las oraciones terminan con un signo de puntuación (punto, signo de interrogación, signo de exclamación).		
Las palabras que necesitan acento lo tienen.		
Todas las oraciones son oraciones completas.		
Todas las palabras que pueden estar mal escritas están circuladas.		
Todas las oraciones que necesitan comas las tienen.		
El diálogo está escrito utilizando guiones de diálogo.		

Adapted from Areglado & Dill, 1997; Bromley, 1998.

Video: Peer Conferencing and Editing

Revising Feedback Observed	Editing Elements Mentioned

Gradual-Release Model for Writing Instruction

I DO	<p>HOOK: Use text to invite participation.</p> <p>PURPOSE: Tell what you will do.</p> <p>BRAINSTORM: Invite writers to sketch or draw, list, talk, create word storms, and so on to generate ideas.</p> <p>MODEL: Use a model text, your own writing, a picture, or sometimes a student sample to demonstrate a writing technique or strategy.</p>
WE DO	<p>SHARED OR GUIDED WRITING: Writers actively take part in the modeled technique or strategy individually, in partnerships, or as a whole class through a shared writing experience. Writers use partner or group sharing, and the teacher has roving conferences to guide young writers.</p> <p>GRAPHIC ORGANIZER: Select according to lesson focus and grade level.</p> <p>ANCHOR CHARTS: Display teacher- and student-generated charts in the classroom.</p>
YOU DO	<p>INDEPENDENT WRITING: Writers compose a new piece or return to a published piece to practice the modeled strategy.</p> <p>REFLECTION: Reflection is an important step that helps students view themselves as writers. How did today's strategy work? What do I do well as a writer? What sets my writing apart from others? If I were to revise, what is one thing I would absolutely change, take out, or add?</p> <p>OPTIONAL STEPS—ANY OF THE ABOVE CAN BE REORDERED</p> <p>WRITE AND REFLECT AGAIN: Writers rewrite their piece using the revision strategy from reflection. Writers ask themselves whether the piece is ready to be published.</p> <p>GOAL SETTING: Writers set goals based on input from the teacher and peers.</p> <p>PUBLISH: The teacher determines what will be published and what will go into a writing folder.</p>

Steps for Teaching Writing Strategies

Instructional Step	Sample Vignette
DEVELOP BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE	
Ensure that students have the necessary skills and knowledge to use the strategy, including new vocabulary.	With the whole class, Mrs. Smith leads a discussion to review and expand what students know about the writing conventions that they need to check when editing their writing. Mrs. Smith lists the writing conventions on a chart. She incorporates a discussion of how to recognize misspelled words and capitalization and punctuation errors, how to apply the rules of grammar and spelling to their writing, and how to use a dictionary.
DISCUSS THE STRATEGY	
<p>Explain the new strategy, noting how and when the strategy can be used with specific tasks.</p> <p>Encourage students to set a goal of learning the strategy and trying it when they write.</p>	With the whole class, Mrs. Smith introduces the CUPS strategy. She lists the mnemonic and what each letter stands for: capitalization, usage, punctuation, and spelling. She explains how the strategy can help students edit their papers. She presents a set of questions that students can ask themselves as they use the strategy. She discusses the importance of self-monitoring to make sure that students use the strategy correctly in their writing. Mrs. Smith encourages all students to learn the strategy to help them edit their writing.
MODEL AND EXPLAIN THE STRATEGY	
<p>Model and explain how to use the strategy. Think aloud while working.</p> <p>Present and explain examples and nonexamples to help students distinguish between the correct and incorrect ways to implement the strategy.</p>	Mrs. Smith uses the overhead projector to model how to edit a story using the CUPS strategy. First, she thinks aloud as she works through each step of the strategy. She encourages students to ask questions and help her as she models the strategy.

Instructional Step	Sample Vignette
LEARN AND REMEMBER THE STEPS	
<p>Have students work collaboratively to learn the steps of the strategy.</p>	<p>Mrs. Smith pairs students to review and recite the steps. Students create prompt (or cue) cards to remember each step and its corresponding question. With the whole class, Mrs. Smith reviews the steps. She purposefully skips a step to help students distinguish the right way to use the strategy when writing from the wrong way.</p>
ENGAGE IN COLLABORATIVE PRACTICE	
<p>Provide opportunities for students to try the new strategy.</p> <p>Scaffold learning, based on students' needs.</p> <p>Encourage students to think aloud and monitor their use of the strategy.</p>	<p>Mrs. Smith pairs students to work collaboratively. Each pair follows the steps of the CUPS strategy to edit their papers. Mrs. Smith monitors and provides support and feedback. She encourages students to ask questions to guide and check their progress. Mrs. Smith notices that most students need additional instruction on how to self-monitor their progress in using the strategy.</p> <p>She brings the group back together. Students brainstorm possible questions they can ask themselves to monitor their use of CUPS. Students pair up again and continue to use CUPS as they write. Mrs. Smith monitors and prompts students to follow the steps in the strategy.</p> <p>Over the next few days, students practice using the CUPS strategy. Mrs. Smith provides scaffolding. She works collaboratively with several students who need extra help.</p>
ENGAGE IN INDEPENDENT PRACTICE	
<p>Provide opportunities for students to use the new strategy on their own.</p> <p>Provide feedback and monitor students' writing progress as needed.</p>	<p>Mrs. Smith reviews the CUPS strategy with her students. She has her students independently use the CUPS strategy to edit their reports for social studies. She continues to monitor students' strategy use and provides appropriate feedback. With the whole class, Mrs. Smith discusses ways they can use the CUPS strategy in different types of writing, such as letter writing, summaries, and research reports.</p>

Adapted from Alley, 1998; Dorfman & Cappelli, 2009; Friend & Bursuck, 1999; Graham, Harris, & Troia, 2000; Harris et al., 2008; Harris, Schmidt, & Graham, 1997.

Collaborative Writing

Collaborative writing helps students learn how to write and spell with teacher support by doing the following:

- Emphasizing a purpose for writing
- Building and activating background knowledge of the topic
- Encouraging students to repeat words aloud as they are written
- Encouraging students to say words slowly to hear individual sounds as words are spelled
- Incorporating word study to show the connections between sounds, letters, and spelling patterns
- Including rereading of the text after writing to model revision strategies and enhance comprehension
- Providing a model for future writing

Shared Writing

Shared writing transforms students' spoken words into print.

Students narrate a story or message while the teacher records their words. Students do not do the handwriting themselves.

The teacher and students share what to write about and the rereading of the text.

The teacher identifies students' words by writing their names beside their contributions.

Shared writing can be displayed and reread by students throughout the year.

Shared writing activities provide a concrete demonstration of many print concepts and an awareness of words, their spellings, and the conventions of written language.

Interactive Writing

Interactive writing is a scaffolded form of shared writing in which students “share” the pen as the words are written.

The teacher and students share what to write about, the actual writing of the words, and the rereading of the text.

The teacher writes known words and helps students write unknown words by identifying the sounds they hear. The teacher scaffolds and writes less and less of the text as the year progresses. The goal is for students to write independently.

Interactive writing can be used as a whole-group lesson, with small groups, or with individual students.

Writing Aloud

Writing aloud is similar to thinking aloud.

The teacher vocalizes thoughts while writing and asks students to assist at various times.

The teacher leads the discussion, encouraging students to contribute, expand, and sequence ideas.

The purpose of writing aloud is to demonstrate how to write different text structures.

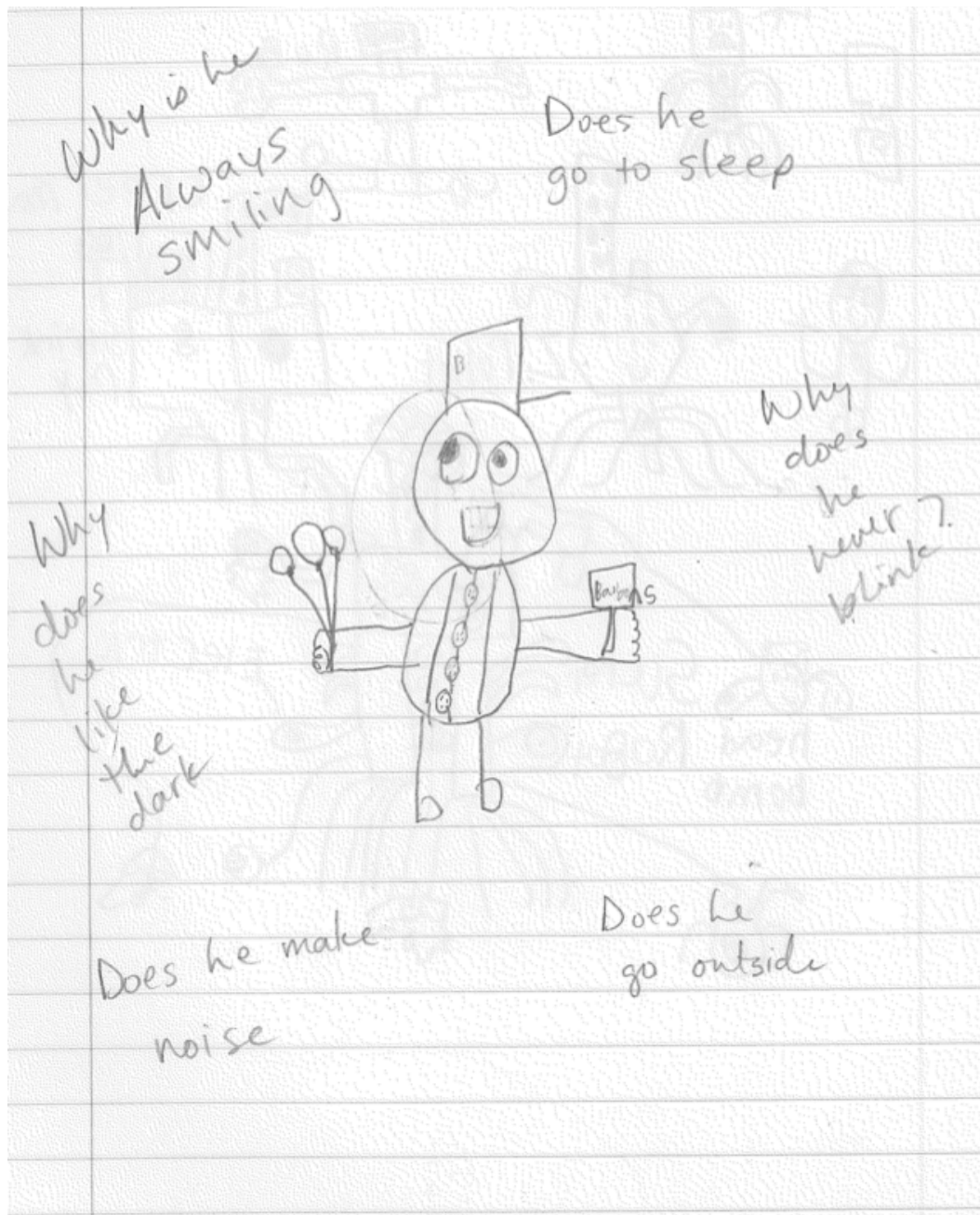
Writing aloud provides opportunities for students to learn how to select topics, organize ideas, and compose text.

Adapted from Button, Johnson, & Furgerson, 1996; Dorn, French, & Jones, 1998; Wiley, 1999.

Importance of “We Do” for Teaching Writing

Highly Scaffolded “We Do” Prewrite

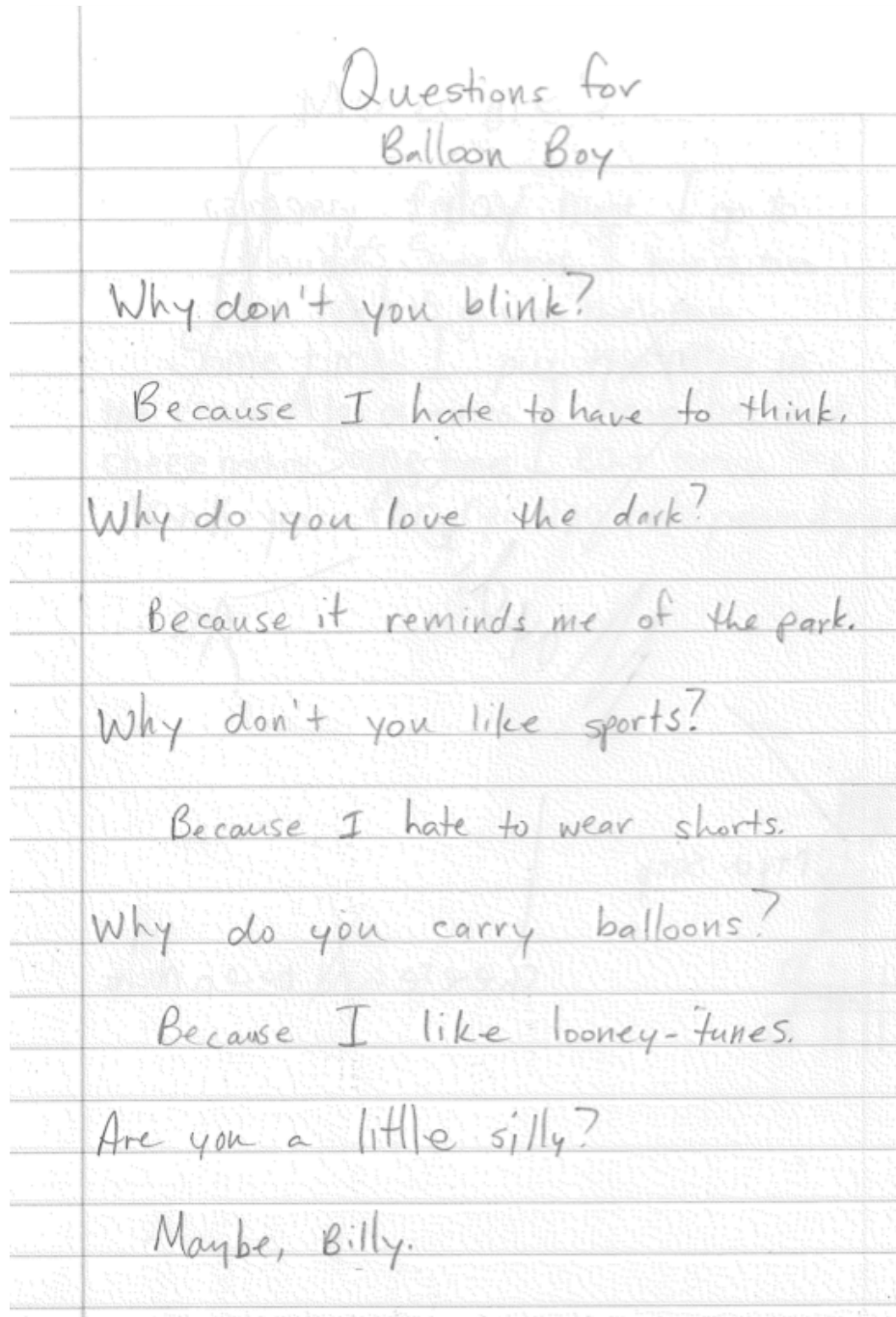
Zach, a second-grade student, spent almost six weeks trying to write something during his class's poetry unit, but an examination of his poetry portfolio revealed blank page after blank page. His teacher decided to do a very scaffolded “We do” prewrite with Zach. Below is what Zach created during this prewriting activity. Notice that Zach drew the picture in the middle, and the teacher wrote the questions Zach brainstormed to ask his character (Balloon Boy).



Zach's drawing of Balloon Boy and the teacher's writing of Zach's questions

Highly Scaffolded “We Do” Draft

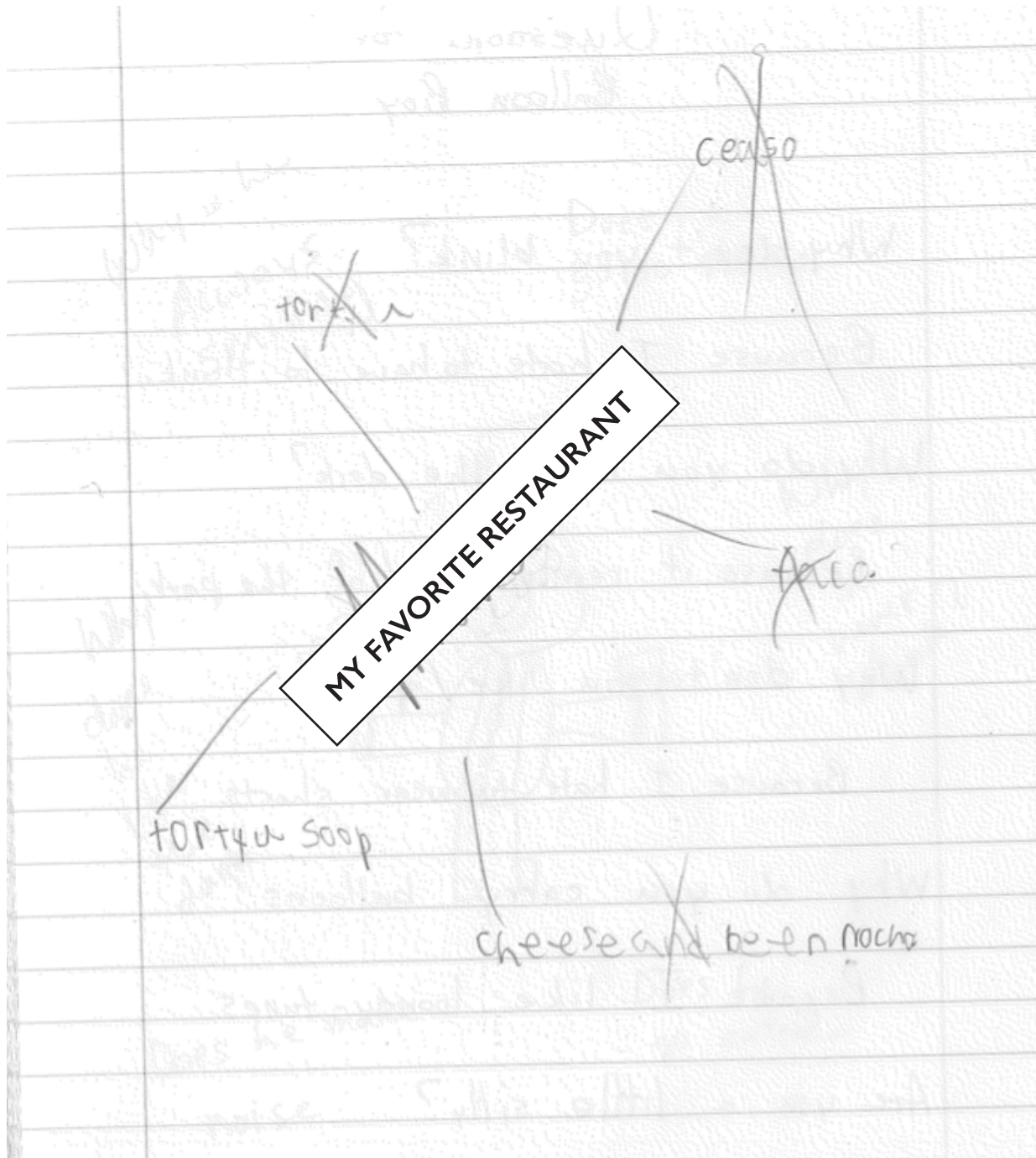
The teacher then suggested that they write a poem called “Questions for Balloon Boy.” Zach agreed that this would be a good title, and he started with the first question he wanted to ask Balloon Boy. When Zach came up with a question, the teacher wrote it. They would then work together to come up with the nonsense, rhyming response from Balloon Boy. The teacher decided to follow the *why-because* pattern because most of Zach’s questions started with *why*. They came up with the last question and response together.



Zach’s questions written by the teacher and Balloon Boy’s responses created by Zach and the teacher collaborating

Less Scaffolded “We Do” Prewrite

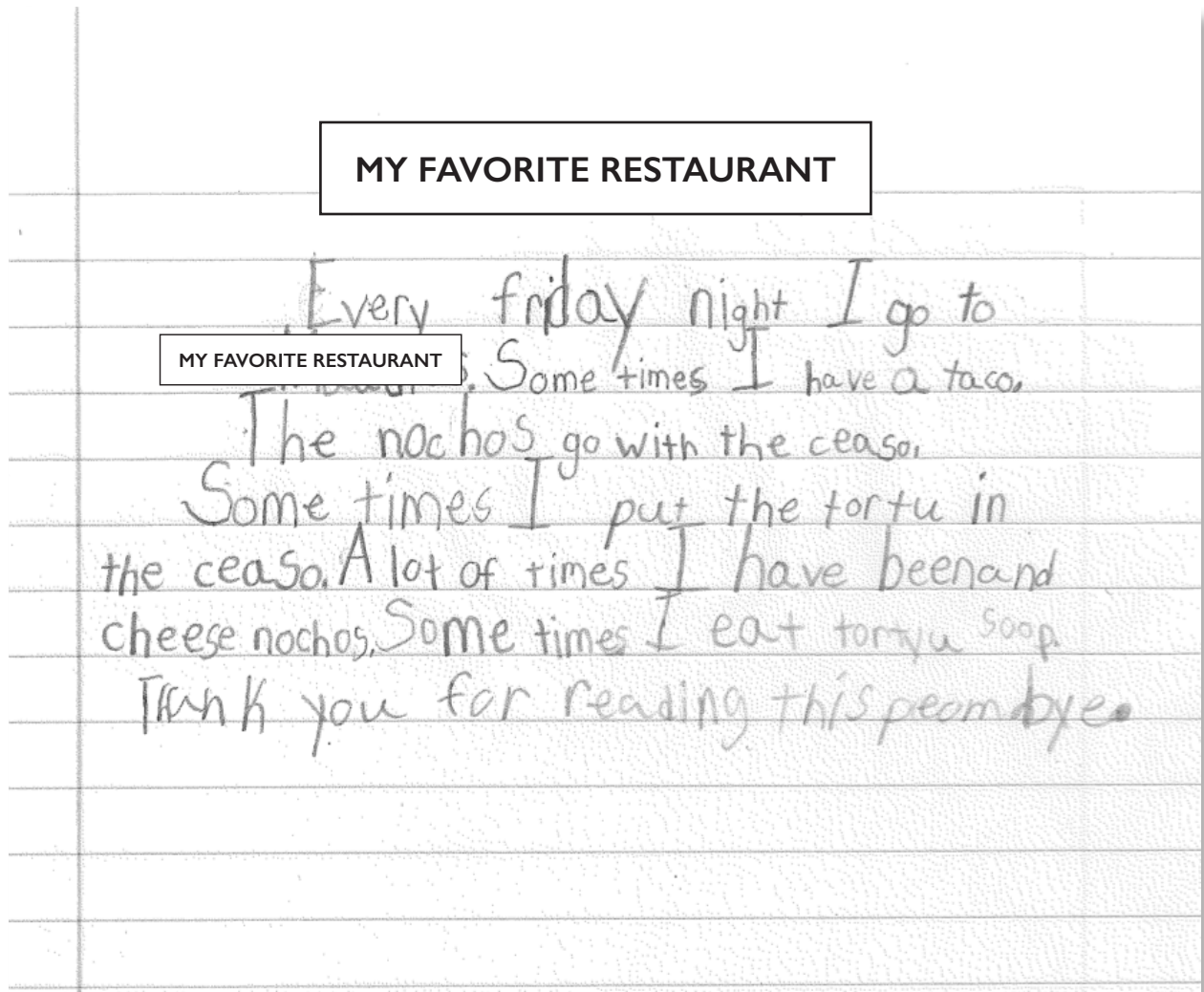
Zach asked whether he could write about his favorite restaurant that his family goes to every Friday night. The teacher said she thought that was a great idea and then asked him what he would write about in relation to the restaurant. Zach began to name off his favorite foods from the restaurant—queso, nachos, tortilla soup, etc. The teacher wrote the name of the restaurant on his paper, and Zach wrote all of his favorite foods around it.



The teacher's writing of Zach's idea and Zach's writing of brainstormed foods

“You Do” Draft

The teacher then asked Zach to use his brainstormed web to write a poem about his favorite restaurant. Zach asked whether the poem had to rhyme or sound a certain way, and the teacher said that it did not—he could write it any way he liked. Zach sat down and within 15 minutes created the following poem completely on his own.



Zach's ideas, Zach's writing, ZACH'S POEM

After six weeks of blank page after blank page, Zach produced two wonderful poems. The process illustrated here shows the power of the gradual-release model to support a student's writing.

Writing Lesson: Creating a Descriptive Text

Materials

- *The Important Book* by Margaret Wise Brown
- Sheet of chart paper with title “Important Things and People”
- Sheet of chart paper for webbing details
- Copies of “My Important Poem About _____” for you and each student (can be used in this lesson or later lessons)
- Sheet of chart paper with “My Important Poem About _____” for shared writing (if students aren’t ready to write with you on their own copy)

Purpose

Students will learn how to brainstorm ideas and web details. The goal is for students to compose and prioritize memorable details as they write. Students will write details about a topic and sequence ideas to build organizational skills.

Hook

Read a few of the poems from *The Important Book*. Discuss how the author took simple objects like a spoon or an apple and used details about them to create a descriptive piece of writing.

Brainstorming and Planning

After reading some or all of *The Important Book*, point out the pattern the author used and how she used specific details to describe each object.

Call attention to the interesting verbs, nouns, and adjectives the author uses to write memorable details (for example, verbs: *hold*, *spoons*, *grows*; adjectives: *little*, *flat*, *hollow*, *green*; nouns: *spoon*, *fields*, *grass*).

Work with the class to brainstorm a list of “Important Things and People.” Write all ideas on the list. Then, choose one of the things or persons from the list to create an important poem about.

Using your chart paper with the web, have students help you brainstorm all of the details you can come up with for the thing or person.

Modeling

Once you’ve completed the web, model for students how you decide the most important detail about the chosen thing or person. This important detail will be the one that goes at the beginning and end of your poem.

For example, if you choose to write about a person, talk about which detail describes that person best. Then, choose three or four other details you think are important to include in the poem.

Graphic Organizers

- Brainstorm chart
- Web for brainstorming details

Shared and Guided Writing

Tell students that they will help you use the chosen details from the web to create an important poem together. Give each student a copy of the “My Important Poem” frame from this handout. Put your own copy on the document camera.

Fill in the top blank with the thing or person you chose to write your poem about. Then, have students help you write the poem using the chosen details from your web. Start the poem with the most important detail you identified. Create the rest of the poem using the other details. As you write, ask students for their input and model how you put ideas together in interesting ways and with effective words. End the poem with the same detail that you started with.

Have students read the poem aloud with you to evaluate how it sounds and make sure it makes sense.

Independent Writing

Have students create a picture to go with the important poem you wrote together. You may want to post the poem and illustrations on a bulletin board for students to practice reading to build fluency.

You can use this frame across any content area—math, science, social studies, etc.—and have students write important poems about concepts, people, and things they are learning about. (See examples in this handout.)

Reflection

Guide self-reflection through key questions such as “What did you notice about today’s strategy?”

Ask additional questions, depending on students’ proficiency and the purpose of the lesson.

Optional Step: Write and Reflect Again

To model the revision step of the writing process, you may want to revisit your important poem with students the next day. You may want to model adjusting the words and sentences. You can also model the editing process, looking for spelling, capitalization, and punctuation mistakes. Revision and editing are steps to take before publishing any piece of writing.

Anchor Chart: *The Important Book*

The important thing about

is _____.

It _____.

It _____.

It _____.

But the important thing about

is _____.

Example Anchor Chart

The important thing about

a simple machine

is it makes everyday life easier.

It can be a gear.

It can be a lever.

It can be a wheel and axle.

But the important thing about

a simple machine

is it makes everyday life easier.

Sample Student Models

Pablo

The important thing about me is I am inventive. I can help you have more fun in your life. I will make true friends with you. I will answer your difficult questions. But the important thing about me is I am inventive.

Karaline

The important thing about the world is that we live in it. It has dark green trees. It has grey pipes that run underground. It has happy teachers that teach children to read and write. But the important thing about the world is that we live in it.

William

The important thing about Mom is that she cooks us dinner. She feeds our dogs. She pays her cable, electric, and food bills. She takes us on walks to the park. But the important thing about Mom is that she cooks us dinner.

My Important Poem About

The important thing about _____

is _____

But the important thing about _____

is _____

Adapted from Arkansas Department of Education, 2001; Brown, 1949; Dorfman & Cappelli, 2009; Kingore, 2000.

Lección de escritura: Creando un texto descriptivo

Materiales

- *Mi montón de monstruos* por Anita Pouroulis
- Hoja de papel grande para hacer lluvia de ideas para describir un monstruo
- Copia de un organizador gráfico para realizar lluvia de ideas para cada estudiante

Objetivo

Los estudiantes aprenderán cómo realizar una lluvia de ideas para describir algo. El objetivo es que los estudiantes creen y prioricen los detalles importantes y significativos cuando escriben. Los estudiantes escribirán detalles sobre un tema o algún concepto u objeto y secuenciarán estas ideas para desarrollar habilidades de organización.

Gancho

Lea el libro *Mi montón de monstruos* por Anita Pouroulis. Este libro cuenta la historia de una niña que vive en una casa llena de monstruos que hacen travesuras. Por ejemplo, el monstruo llamado Scrapadapadocus Tentacular le encanta comer los restos de la comida que se quedan en los platos y vive en el fregadero. Discuta con los estudiantes cómo el autor describe a los diferentes monstruos por las cosas que hacen y cómo hacen sentir al personaje principal. Tenga presente que este libro tiene palabras que pueden ser regionalismos y que tienen que ser explicados a los estudiantes si son desconocidos.

Lluvia de ideas/planeación

Después de leer el libro, hable con los estudiantes sobre las descripciones de cada monstruo. Explique cómo la autora selecciona palabras descriptivas para decir cómo es cada monstruo. Por ejemplo, utiliza sustantivos muy específicos como *portazo*, *desagüe*, *intenciones*, etc., y adjetivos interesantes como *descarado*, *mezquino*, *inmenso*, *escurridizo*, *hambriento*, etc.

Explique que van a crear un libro colaborativo similar al libro que se leyó donde cada uno de ellos va a crear y describir un monstruo. Pero antes de eso van a crear un monstruo todos juntos como demostración. Realice una lluvia de ideas sobre los diferentes monstruos que pueden existir similares a los que están en el libro. Por ejemplo, el monstruo de las alergias y el monstruo de la vergüenza. Escriba todos los monstruos en una red para lluvias de ideas. Después escoja uno para describir.

Ahora, realice otra lluvia de ideas para que los estudiantes le digan todos los detalles de ese monstruo. ¿Qué hace? ¿Dónde se esconde? ¿Cómo asusta a las personas? ¿Cómo se divierte? ¿Cómo se llama? Por ejemplo: el monstruo de las alergias te hace estornudar, hace que los ojos te lloren, te pica la nariz, y a veces hace que te salgan ronchitas en la piel. Es necio, molesto, inconsiderado e inoportuno.

Demostración

Después de realizar esa última lluvia de ideas, demuestre a los estudiantes cómo decidir el detalle más importante del monstruo que se escogió. El detalle más importante es el que describe la característica más importante del monstruo.

Por ejemplo, para el monstruo de las alergias, discuta qué es lo que describe a ese monstruo de la mejor manera: el monstruo de las alergias es inconsiderado e inoportuno porque ataca cuando estás afuera y te hace sentir muy incómodo. Después, escoja tres o cuatro detalles que sean importantes para describir al monstruo de las alergias.

Organizador gráfico

Red para lluvia de ideas

Escritura compartida y guiada

Trabajando junto con los estudiantes, escriba un párrafo describiendo al monstruo elegido. Explique cómo escribió la idea principal y los detalles. Por ejemplo:

Alergin, el monstruo de las alergias

Alergin, el monstruo de las alergias, es inconsiderado e inoportuno porque hace que tu cuerpo se sienta mal cuando estás afuera. Cuando Alergin ataca puede ser que tus ojos lloren o que tu nariz te pique. También puede hacer que estornudes mucho. Además puede causarte ronchas en la piel. Alergin vive en el aire y siempre está listo para atacar.

Escritura independiente

Después los estudiantes pueden para describir a su propio monstruo independientemente o en parejas. Primero deben completar una lluvia de ideas sobre un monstruo y luego escoger los detalles para escribir en orden de importancia. Pida a los estudiantes que hagan un dibujo para acompañar a su monstruo. Puede hacer un libro colaborativo con las descripciones de los monstruos de todos los estudiantes.

A los estudiantes de grados menos avanzados se les puede dificultar más escoger la idea principal para describir al monstruo. Ayude tanto como sea necesario.

Reflexión

Guíe una auto-reflexión utilizando preguntas como: ¿Qué fue lo que notaste con esta estrategia?

Haga preguntas adicionales dependiendo del nivel de los estudiantes.

Paso adicional: Escribir y reflexionar de nuevo

Para demostrar el paso de revisión del proceso de escritura, usted puede volver a leer estos párrafos el siguiente día para hacer ajustes. Usted puede demostrar cómo hacer cambios a las oraciones y cómo editar el texto corrigiendo ortografía, uso de mayúsculas y puntuación. Revisar y editar son pasos que se necesitan realizar antes de publicar cualquier escrito.

Adapted from Arkansas Department of Education, 2001; Brown, 1949; Dorfman & Cappelli, 2009; Kingore, 2000.

Different Forms of and Purposes for Writing

Purpose	Forms or Genres
Writing to describe Detailed writing about a person, place, process, or experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Character sketches• Brochures• Descriptions of people, places, etc.
Writing to convey feelings or express inner thoughts Illustrations often as a first step	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Journals, including personal journals, response journals, dialogue journals, and buddy journals• Personal narratives• Letters• Poems
Writing to narrate <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Includes an introduction, a sequence of events, and a conclusion• May use dialogue	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Narratives• Sequels• Newscasts• Skits• Obituaries• Biographies
Writing to explain, inform, or provide factual information Can involve research skills, and use of webs, concept maps, illustrations, and Venn diagrams	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Notes• Messages• Reports• Letters• Essays• Lists• Interviews• Character descriptions
Writing to persuade Attempts to form or change a reader's opinion	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Letters• Essays• Book reviews• Advertisements and product descriptions• Travel guides

Examples of Techniques Within the Four Purposes of Writing

Purpose	Technique	How Students Can Use the Technique	Grade Range
Describe	Sensory details	Use the five senses, as applicable. Consider the following questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What did I see? How did it look? • What sounds did I hear? • What did I touch? How did it feel? • What could I smell? • What did I taste? 	K–3
Narrate	Story grammar	Consider the following questions when developing a story: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who are the main characters? • When does the story take place? • Where does the story take place? • What do the main characters want to do? • What happens? • How does the story end? • How does the main character feel? 	1–3
		In older grades, expand the strategy in the following ways: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell the story from the point of view of a character other than the main character. • Add an interesting or surprising twist to the story. 	4–6
Inform	Report writing	Complete a KWL chart, which shows the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What I Know • What I Want to know • What I Learned In the KWL chart, gather appropriate information through the following processes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brainstorm. (What do I know about the topic?) • Extend brainstorming. (What do I want to know about the topic? What other information would be helpful to learn about the topic?) • Gather additional information and add to the chart. (What have I learned? Did I list anything during brainstorming that was inaccurate and needs to be crossed off the chart?) Review the KWL chart and circle the most important ideas to include in the report. Develop an outline, showing which ideas will be included in the report. Continue planning while writing, gathering new information and adding to the outline as needed. Implement each aspect of the plan.	1–6

Purpose	Technique	How Students Can Use the Technique	Grade Range
Persuade or analyze	STOP	Before writing, STOP to do the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suspend judgment. • Take sides. • Organize ideas. • Plan to adjust while writing. 	4–6
	DARE	DARE to check the writing to be sure I have done the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed a thesis • Added details to support the thesis • Rejected arguments on the other side • Ended with a strong conclusion 	
	TREE	As I write, I will do the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell what I believe. (State a topic sentence.) • Provide three or more Reasons. (Why do I believe this?) • End it. (Wrap it up right.) • Examine. (Do I have all my parts?) 	2–3
		In older grades, expand the strategy by replacing the Examine step with Explain reasons. (Say more about each reason.)	4–6

Adapted from Bromley, 1998; Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008.

Diferentes formas y propósitos para escribir

Propósito	Formas o géneros
Escribir para describir Un texto detallado sobre una persona, un lugar, un proceso o una experiencia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descripciones de personajes • Folletos • Descripciones de personas, lugares, etc.
Escribir para transmitir sentimientos o expresar pensamientos Generalmente e utilizan ilustraciones como primer paso	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarios: diarios personales, diarios de diálogo, diarios con amigos, etc. • Narrativas personales • Cartas • Poemas
Escribir para narrar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Incluye una introducción, una secuencia de eventos, y una conclusión • Se puede utilizar diálogo 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Narrativas • Reporte de noticias • Obras de teatro • Secuelas o continuaciones • Obituarios • Biografías
Escribir para explicar, informar, o proporcionar información y hechos Puede incluir habilidades de investigación, y uso de diagramas, mapas conceptuales, ilustraciones y diagramas de Venn.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Notas • Mensajes • Reportes • Cartas • Ensayos • Listas • Entrevistas • Descripciones de personajes
Escribir para persuadir Intentos para formar o cambiar la opinión del lector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cartas • Ensayos • Reseña de libros • Publicidad y descripciones de productos • Guías turísticas o guías de viaje

Ejemplos de estrategias para utilizarse en cuatro propósitos para escribir

Propósito	Estrategias	Cómo pueden los estudiantes usar la estrategia	Grados
Describir	Detalles sensoriales	Utiliza los cinco sentidos. Considera las siguientes preguntas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ¿Qué fue lo que vi? ¿Cómo se veía? • ¿Qué sonidos escuché? • ¿Qué fue lo que toqué? ¿Cómo se sentía? • ¿Qué fue lo que podía oler? • ¿Qué fue lo que probé? 	K–3
Narrar	Estructura de la historia	Considera las siguientes preguntas al escribir una historia: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quiénes son los personajes principales? • ¿Cuándo ocurre la historia? • ¿Dónde ocurre la historia? • ¿Qué es lo que quieren hacer los personajes principales? • ¿Qué pasa? • ¿Cómo termina la historia? • ¿Cómo se sienten los personajes principales? 	1–3
		En grados más avanzados, se puede extender la estrategia de la siguiente manera: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cuenta la historia desde el punto de vista de otro personaje diferente al personaje principal • Añade algo inesperado o algún cambio interesante a la historia 	4–6
Informar	Escribir reportes	Completa un diagrama SQA: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lo que Sé • Lo que Quiero saber • Lo que Aprendí Recolecta información siguiendo estos pasos para completar el diagrama SQA: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lluvia de ideas – ¿Qué es lo que sé sobre el tema? • Lluvia de ideas extendida - ¿Qué es lo que quiero saber sobre el tema? ¿Qué otra información sería útil para aprender sobre el tema? • Recolecta información y añádela al diagrama - ¿Qué he aprendido? ¿Apunté algo durante la lluvia de ideas que no estaba correcto y que se necesita cambiar en el diagrama? Revisa el diagrama SQA y circula las ideas más importantes para incluir en el reporte. Realiza un esquema del reporte que muestre las ideas más importantes que van a ser incluidas en éste. Continúa planeando mientras escribes, recolectando nueva información y añadiéndola al esquema como sea necesario. Implementa cada paso del plan.	1–6

Propósito	Estrategias	Cómo pueden los estudiantes usar la estrategia	Grados
Persuadir o analizar	STOP	Antes de escribir, detente un momento para planear tu escrito utilizando los siguientes pasos de la estrategia llamada en inglés “ STOP ”: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suspende juicio – deja de juzgar • Toma una posición • Organiza las ideas • Planea y ajusta al escribir 	4–6
	DARE	Al terminar un escrito, atrevete a utilizar la estrategia llamada en inglés “ DARE ” para revisar el texto y asegurarte que has hecho lo siguiente: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desarrollar una tesis • Añadir ideas que apoyan la tesis • Rechazar argumentos contrarios • Escribir una conclusión sólida 	
	TREE	Al escribir, utiliza la estrategia llamada en inglés “ TREE ” para organizar un texto siguiendo estos pasos: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tesis presentada en una oración temática • Razones presentadas para apoyar mi idea • Ensayo terminado con una conclusión sólida • Ensayo examinado para ver si tengo todas las partes necesarias 	2–3
		En grados más avanzados, los pasos pueden ser los siguientes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tesis presentada en una oración temática • Razones presentadas para apoyar mi idea • Ensayo terminado con una conclusión sólida • Explico mis razones dando más información 	4–6

Adapted from Bromley, 1998; Graham et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2008.

Writing Lesson:

Using Behaviors and Dialogue to Develop a Character

Materials

- *Chicken Sunday* by Patricia Polacco
- Copy of Character Think Sheet for each student (page 4 of this handout)
- Students' individual writer's notebooks
- Large Character Think Sheet graphic organizer on chart paper

Objective

Characters are important to most narrative texts. Often, however, we do not think critically about our characters or why we should include characters with specific traits or attributes. This lesson helps students think more deeply about characters, including real-life people. This lesson teaches how to provide character details by describing how a character acts and what he or she says.

Hook

Show students the large Character Think Sheet on chart paper.

“Let’s talk about characters. How do authors help us learn about their characters?”

Discuss how authors portray characters through descriptions of their behaviors, thoughts, words, relationships, emotions, etc.

“We read *Chicken Sunday* as an introduction to our unit on culture and how it affects who we are. Now, let’s read a few pages to focus on Mr. Kodinski and what we learn about him from his behaviors and words.”

Modeling With a Text

Before starting the lesson, use sticky notes to mark places in *Chicken Sunday* where you want to talk about Mr. Kodinski’s behaviors or words. Here are some suggestions:

- Page where Mr. Kodinski yells at the children: “You there,” he yelled. “Why do you kids do things like this?” and “All I want to do is live my life in peace. I’m calling your grandmother.” (exasperated by children’s negative behavior)
- Page where the children give him the eggs: “Spaseeba,” he said softly. That means “thank you” in Russian. “Pysansky eggs!” he said as he looked closely. “I haven’t seen these since I left my homeland.” (came from another country, misses some of its traditions, and is grateful to the children for bringing him the eggs)
- Page where the children have tea with him: “I tell you this,” he said thoughtfully. “These eggs are as beautiful as my hats.” and “It is almost Easter,” he went on to say. “I’m sure

that people would love these eggs. Set up a table and sell them right there in my shop!" (modest and generous)

- Page where Mr. Kodinski gives the children the hat: ...he came out from the back room holding a beautiful hatbox...gift-wrapped! "Keep your money, children," he said softly. "I have seen Miss Eula admire this. It is for her, isn't it?" (generous and perceptive)

Read each page with a sticky note and ask guiding questions for students to help you fill out the Character Think Sheet for Mr. Kodinski. For example, after you read the first page with a sticky note, you might ask the following.

"How did Mr. Kodinski feel about the children hitting his door with eggs? Do you think this is the first time this kind of thing has happened? How do you know?"

Have students discuss in partners and then share with the whole group.

"What do Mr. Kodinski's words tell you about him?"

Have students discuss in partners and then share with the whole group. As students share, fill in the graphic organizer. (See the example on page 5 of this handout.)

Continue this same process until the entire graphic organizer is filled in. Use the completed graphic organizer to discuss Mr. Kodinski's general character, based on what the author tells us about him.

Modeling

Model filling in the graphic organizer for yourself as a character in a story.

"Mr. Kodinski is a real person who made the children in the story learn something about life. That's why Ms. Polacco included him in her book. Now, I want to plan my own story with a character with some specific attributes. I will plan a story about myself!"

Use the same graphic organizer but fill it out in reverse. First, fill in the Character Attribute in each square. Then, describe something you have done or thought that demonstrates that attribute. The following is an example of how this part of the lesson might sound.

"One attribute about myself is that I am honest. I try to tell the truth, no matter what. I will write that next to 'Character Attribute' in this first box. Here is a behavior that demonstrates this attribute. Once, when I was your age, a store clerk gave me too much change. He should have given me \$1 but instead gave me \$6. I gave \$5 back to him and told him his mistake. I will write that in the box where it says 'Action/Words.'"

Continue for one, two, or all three of the other boxes. You can stick with the one attribute, or if you want to use the think sheet to write a more complex story or to write more than one story, write about a different attribute in each box. You can even have students share attributes that they have noticed about you.

Anchor Charts

- Character Think Sheet
- Descriptive words list
- Character attributes list

Shared and Guided Writing

Have students work in partners or small groups to fill out a Character Think Sheet for themselves. Students can help one another come up with attributes and stories that demonstrate those attributes to put in the graphic organizer. Let students share their planning sheets as they finish.

In the whole group, have students help you use your Character Think Sheet to write a short narrative. Use one of the attribute boxes or multiple boxes to write your story. Ask for and take students' input as you make these decisions. Use their suggestions and ideas as you create your first draft.

When you finish, read your story and say something similar to the following.

“Do my character attributes that I wanted to demonstrate really come out in this story? As a reader, do you get a sense of who I really am from my writing? I will need to come back to this piece later and consider revision strategies we have discussed, like sentence expansion or combining.”

Independent Writing

Students draft a new piece in their notebooks, trying out the strategy of developing character attributes through behaviors and dialogue.

Reflection

“How did today's strategy of developing a character work for you? What did you notice about your character or story?”

Character Think Sheet

Action/Words

Character Attribute

Action/Words

Character Attribute

Character

Action/Words

Character Attribute

Action/Words

Character Attribute

Action/Words

Mr. Kodinski yells at the children, "Why do you kids do things like this?" and "All I want to do is live my life in peace. I'm calling your grandmother."

Character Attribute

Mr. Kodinski is exasperated by children continually bothering him.

Action/Words

Mr. Kodinski thanks the children in Russian for bringing the eggs. He says he hasn't seen them since he left his homeland.

Character Attribute

Mr. Kodinski is from another country and misses some of its traditions. He is grateful to the children.

Character
Mr. Kodinski

Action/Words

Mr. Kodinski compares the children's eggs to his hats by saying they are equally beautiful. He lets the children sell the eggs in his shop to make money.

Character Attribute

Mr. Kodinski is humble and generous.

Action/Words

Mr. Kodinski tells the children to keep their money. He gives them the hat for free. He says he's seen Miss Eula admiring it and asks them if it's for her.

Character Attribute

Mr. Kodinski is generous. He's also perceptive because he knew why the children wanted money.

Lección de escritura: Utilizando acciones y pensamientos para describir y crear un personaje

Materiales

- *El camino de Amelia* por Linda Jacobs Altman
- Una copia del organizador gráfico “Pensando en un personaje” para cada estudiante
- Libreta para la escritura de cada estudiante
- Hoja de papel tamaño póster con el organizador gráfico “Pensando en un personaje”

Objetivo

Los personajes son muy importantes en los textos narrativos. Muchas veces, sin embargo, no pensamos críticamente sobre nuestros personajes cuando escribimos historias o no incluimos personajes con características y atributos especiales e interesantes. Esta lección ayudará a los estudiantes a pensar más a fondo en los personajes, incluyendo personas de la vida real, y les enseñará cómo describir y crear a un personaje a través de sus acciones y pensamientos.

Gancho

Muestre a los estudiantes el organizador gráfico “Pensando en un personaje” en la hoja tamaño póster.

“Vamos a hablar sobre personajes. ¿Qué hacen los autores para mostrarnos cómo son sus personajes?”

Discuta con los estudiantes cómo los autores presentan y describen a sus personajes a través de sus acciones, pensamientos, lo que dicen, sus relaciones con otros personajes, emociones, etc.

“Leímos el libro de *El camino de Amelia* anteriormente. Vamos a volver a leer algunas páginas para enfocarnos en el personaje de Amelia y lo que podemos aprender de ella basados en sus acciones y pensamientos.”

Demostrando el proceso utilizando un libro

Antes de empezar la lección, marque en el libro las partes donde se pueden discutir las acciones y pensamientos de Amelia. Aquí hay algunas sugerencias:

- Primera página cuando el narrador describe cómo Amelia odiaba los caminos y lloraba cada vez que su papá sacaba un mapa. (Triste por tener que viajar)
- Página donde Amelia pregunta “--¿Es ésta la misma cabaña donde vivimos el años pasado?” (esperanzada a tener un sitio permanente)
- Página donde Amelia dibuja una hermosa casa blanca con un árbol en el patio. (soñadora porque desea tener una casa donde vivir)

- Página donde se describe cómo Amelia iba todos los días al lugar donde estaba el árbol y se imaginaba que había llegado a casa. (esperanzada e ilusionada)
- Página donde Amelia entierra su caja de recuerdos junto al árbol. (optimista e ilusionada de tener un lugar a donde regresar)

Lea cada página marcada y haga preguntas a los estudiantes para completar el organizador gráfico “Pensando en un personaje.” Por ejemplo, después de leer la primera página marcada, puede preguntar lo siguiente:

“¿Qué sentimientos tenía Amelia cuando viajaba por los caminos?”

Pida a los estudiantes que discutan en parejas y compartan con el grupo después.

“¿Qué te dicen de Amelia esos sentimientos?”

Pida a los estudiantes que discutan en parejas y compartan con el grupo después. Complete el organizador gráfico en la hoja tamaño póster con las respuestas de los estudiantes. (Vea un ejemplo más adelante.)

Siga el mismo proceso hasta que el organizador gráfico sea completado. Después utilícelo para discutir al personaje de Amelia basándose en lo que el autor nos dice de ella.

Demostración

Demuestre cómo completar el organizador gráfico para usted como si usted fuera un personaje en una historia.

“Amelia es una niña que encontró una manera de echar raíces aunque tuviera que irse lejos de su lugar favorito. Ahora, voy a planear mi propia historia con un personaje que tenga características especiales. ¡Voy a planear una historia sobre mí misma!”

Utilice el mismo organizador gráfico pero ahora completándolo al revés. Primero, escriba la característica en cada cuadro. Después, describa algo que usted haya hecho o pensado para demostrar esa característica. He aquí un ejemplo de esto:

“Una característica mía es que soy honesta. Siempre trato de decir la verdad pase lo que pase. Voy a escribir eso como característica en el primer cuadro. Ahora voy a pensar en una acción mía que demuestre esa característica. Un día, cuando tenía su edad, el cajero de una tienda me dio cambio de más cuando le pagué. Me debió haber dado \$1 pero me dio \$6. Le regresé \$5 y le dije que se había equivocado. Voy a escribir eso en las acciones y pensamientos en el primer cuadro.”

Continúe completando uno, dos, o tres cuadros más en el organizador gráfico.

Posters

- Organizador gráfico “Pensando en un personaje”
- Lista de palabras descriptivas
- Lista de características y atributos de personajes

Escritura guiada y compartida

Pida a los estudiantes que trabajen en parejas o grupos pequeños para completar el organizador gráfico “Pensando en el personaje” sobre ellos mismos. Los estudiantes se pueden ayudar entre sí a pensar en historias y acciones que demuestren esas características. Al finalizar, los estudiantes pueden compartir sus organizadores gráficos.

Pida a los estudiantes que le ayuden a escribir un texto corto utilizando su organizador gráfico “Pensando en el personaje” que completó anteriormente sobre usted. Puede utilizar la información de uno o varios cuadros. Los estudiantes deben ayudarlo a decidir que escribir en su primer borrador así que tome en cuenta sus sugerencias.

Cuando termine, lea la historia y diga algo similar a esto:

“¿Se notan mis características que quería demostrar en esta historia? Como lectores, ¿entienden el tipo de persona que soy yo al leer esta historia? Tendré que regresar luego a esta historia y pensar en qué revisiones voy a hacer.”

Escritura independiente

Los estudiantes escriben una historia en su libreta después de utilizar la estrategia para desarrollar personajes a través de sus acciones y pensamientos.

Reflexión

“¿Cómo les funcionó esta estrategia? ¿Qué notaron sobre sus personajes o su historia al seguir esta estrategia?”

Pensando en un personaje

Acción/pensamiento

Característica

Personaje

Acción/pensamiento

Característica

Acción/pensamiento

Característica

Pensando en un personaje: Ejemplo

<p>Acción/pensamiento</p> <p>Amelia lloraba cada vez que su padre sacaba un mapa.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Característica</p> <p>Descorazonada y triste por tener que viajar.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>Acción/pensamiento</p> <p>Amelia pregunta si esa es la misma cabaña donde vivieron el año pasado. A ella le importa que llegaran al mismo lugar.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Característica</p> <p>Esperanzada a tener un lugar donde vivir permanente.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; width: fit-content; margin: 0 auto;"> <p>Personaje</p> <p>Amelia</p> </div>	
<p>Acción/pensamiento</p> <p>Amelia dibuja una hermosa casa blanca con un árbol en el patio cuando la maestra les pidió que dibujaran lo que más desearan.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Característica</p> <p>Soñadora y convencida de lo que quiere.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>Acción/pensamiento</p> <p>Amelia va todos los días a ver el árbol donde le gustaría tener su casa.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>Característica</p> <p>Soñadora, ilusionada y optimista de haber encontrado ese lugar.</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>

Poetry Writing

Lesson 1: Haiku Riddles

Materials

- *If Not for the Cat* by Jack Prelutsky
- A notecard with the word *syllable* and a notecard with word *haiku*
- Chart paper with two or three haikus from the book written on it (make sure to have spaces between the lines in each haiku to write numbers)
- Markers
- Copies of the Haiku Riddle Poetry sheet for you and every student (page 5 of this handout)
- Copies of the Our Haiku Riddle sheet for every student (page 6 of this handout)

Objective

Students will write animal riddles using haiku poetry.

Hook and Modeling With a Text

Show your notecard with *syllable* on it.

“Let’s read the word on the card.”

Chunk the word, have students sound it out with you, and then read it.

“*Syllable*. We have talked about reading words with more than one syllable. Can you remember what a syllable is? Turn and talk with your partner about what a syllable is.”

Let students discuss for 15 to 20 seconds. Call on a student who you hear defining *syllable* (a chunk or part of a word with one vowel sound).

“Let’s quickly practice identifying syllables in words. I’ll say a word. Then, we’ll count the syllables together.”

Scaffolding Note: Have students who need more scaffolding put their hands under their chins to count how often their mouths open when saying a word slowly. The vowel sounds cause our mouths to open a bit wider, causing our chin to touch our hand each time.

“Say, *elephant*.” (Students repeat.) “Count the syllables—/ĕl/ /ə/ /fənt/, three.”

“Giraffe.” (Students repeat.) “/jə/ /rāf/—two.”

“Jellyfish.” (Students repeat.) “/jĕl/ /ē/ /fĭsh/—three.”

“What type of words are all of these? Whisper the answer to your partner.”

Pause for students to whisper the answer.

“What’s the answer?”

Give your signal for all students to answer chorally. (animals)

“Yes! Animals. We will use our knowledge of syllables to write some fun animal poetry. We will create a type of poetry called a *haiku*.”

Show your notecard with *haiku* on it and have students repeat it.

“A haiku is a poem with only three lines. It doesn’t have to rhyme, but it does have to have a certain number of syllables in each line. The first line must have five syllables. The second line has seven syllables, and the third has five. Here is an example.”

Show the following poem on chart paper. Read each line, writing a one over the first syllable, a two over the second syllable, etc. After you read a line, write the number of syllables next to it.

I have no hatchet
And yet I fell a forest.
My teeth are my tools.

“Here’s another example. Count the syllables in each line with me.”

Show the following poem on chart paper. As you read it with students, count the syllables with the students and write the numbers at the end of each line.

We are wrinkled hulks
With astonishing noses.
Our ears block the sun.

“Each of these poems is also an animal riddle. Can you figure out the animal that is speaking in the first one? I’ll give you a moment to discuss the answer with your partner.”

Point to the first haiku. Allow 15 to 20 seconds for students to discuss.

“Did you figure it out?”

Call on students to give their guesses. (Correct answer: beaver)

“Can you figure out the next one? Talk with your partner about it.”

Point to the second haiku. Allow 15 to 20 seconds for students to discuss. Call on students to give their guesses. (Correct answer: elephants)

Give students copies of the Haiku Riddle Poetry sheet (page 5 of this handout). Put your own copy of the handout on the document camera to refer to.

“This handout has another example haiku riddle. Count the syllables in each line with your partner. Then, try to figure out what animal is speaking. Write your answer in the blank.”

Give students one to two minutes to work.

“Did you figure out the animal that is speaking?”

Call on students to give their guesses. (Correct answer: mouse)

Brainstorming

“Now, help me plan and write our own haiku animal riddle. First, let’s brainstorm some animals we could write a poem about.”

Have students help you brainstorm a list of animals. This is a good lesson to do during a biology or ecosystem science unit when students are learning about different kinds of animals.

Anchor Chart

Haiku planning web

Modeling and Shared and Guided Writing

“Now, let’s pick an animal from our list.”

Have students help you pick one of the animals and write it in the “Animal” square in the middle of the web on the Haiku Riddle Poetry sheet.

Then, work with students to come up with the animal’s attributes that you could use in your poem. The following is an example.

Starfish

Attribute 1: Lives in the ocean

Attribute 2: Has five arms

Attribute 3: Looks like a star

Attribute 4: Is colorful

Next, use a write-aloud to model how to turn these attributes into a haiku. The following is an example starfish haiku riddle you could use.

My home is the sea.
Could I live in the night sky?
Five colorful arms!

Independent Writing

“Work with your partner to plan a haiku riddle with a different animal. First, plan some different attributes you could use in your haiku. Then, work together to write a haiku from the animal’s perspective. Be sure not to include the animal’s name in the poem so we can all try to guess your animal.”

Reflection

In small groups, use guiding questions such as the following to reflect with students.

“How did today’s strategy of writing haiku riddles work for you? What was most difficult to do?”

Optional Steps: Write and Reflect Again

Have students revise their haiku riddle using a type of figurative language previously taught (e.g., onomatopoeia, simile).

“What did you notice about trying to add figurative language? Was it difficult? If so, what made it difficult? If not, why do you think it was easy for you?”

Source: Prelutsky, J. (2004). *If not for the cat*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

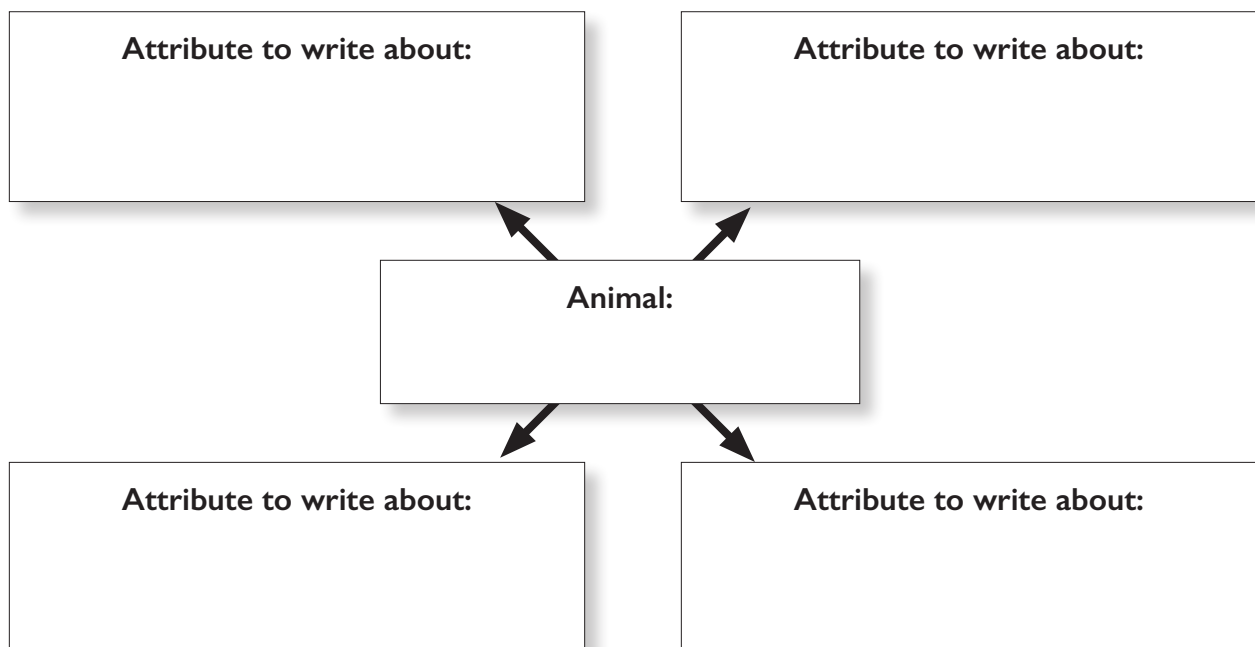
Haiku Riddle Poetry

Example haiku poem:

If not for the cat,
And the scarcity of cheese,
I could be content.

What type of animal is speaking in this poem? _____

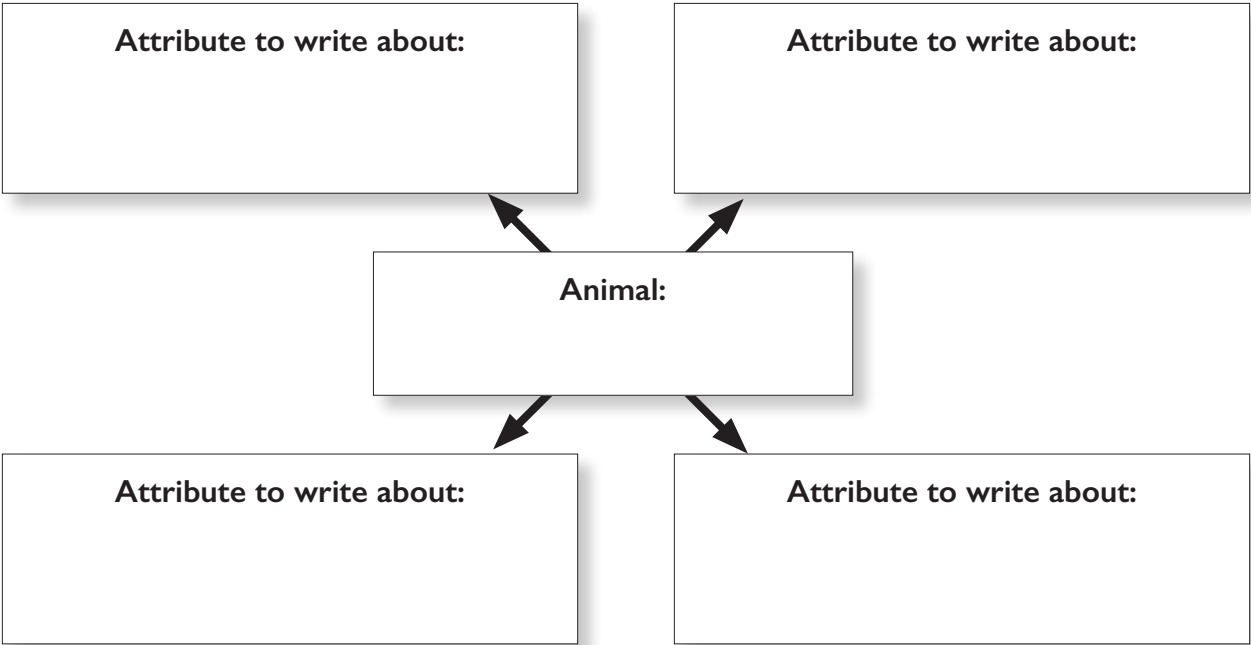
Let's plan a haiku riddle:



Our class's haiku riddle:

Our Haiku Riddle

Plan a haiku riddle:



Our haiku riddle:

Lesson 2: Adding Figurative Language to Our Haiku

Materials

- *If Not for the Cat* by Jack Prelutsky
- Anchor chart describing similes and giving a few examples
- Chart paper with two or three haikus from the book written on it
- Blank chart paper
- Markers
- Teacher- and student-created haikus from Lesson 1

Objective

Students will revise one of their animal riddles to include a simile.

Brainstorming

“We have been discussing different forms of figurative language. Let’s brainstorm some different elements of figurative language.”

Have students help you brainstorm a list of figurative language elements. These elements might include onomatopoeia, simile, metaphor, hyperbole, or personification. (Not all of these elements will be mastered in elementary school.)

Modeling

“Let’s see whether we can add one of these types of figurative language to one of Jack Prelutsky’s haikus. We’ll try adding simile. Do you remember what a simile is?”

Refer to your anchor chart on similes. Have students turn and talk with a partner about the definition of a simile. Call on one or two students to define *simile* (a comparison between two unlike things using the word *like* or *as*).

“Here is one of Prelutsky’s haikus that we examined.”

Show the following on chart paper and read it.

I have no hatchet
And yet I fell a forest.
My teeth are my tools.

“Let me think about where I could add a simile. In the last line, it talks about the animal’s teeth. Maybe I can compare them to something. How about this: ‘Teeth like...’ What could I say in three syllables?”

Have students help you brainstorm three-syllable words or phrases. Here are some possibilities: *sharp razors*, *giant knives*, *small axes*, *mini blades*.

Rewrite the poem using one of the ideas, such as in the following.

I have no hatchet
And yet I fell a forest.
Teeth like mini blades.

Anchor Chart

Simile anchor chart

Shared and Guided Writing

“Now, let’s try it again with Prelutsky’s other haiku.”

Show the following on chart paper and read it to students.

We are wrinkled hulks
With astonishing noses.
Our ears block the sun.

“Which two body parts are described in this poem?”

Give your signal for all students to answer chorally. (noses and ears)

“Working with your partner, pick one of these body parts. See whether you can come up with a simile like this:

Noses like _____

Ears as big as _____”

Give students a few minutes to work on their similes. As they give you ideas, write them on chart paper. The following are a few ideas:

- Noses like humongous snakes
- Noses like garden hoses
- Noses like fire hoses
- Ears as big as sails
- Ears like blowing flags

Help students revise their ideas to have the correct number of syllables (seven in the second row and five in the third row). Use a few of the students’ ideas to create revised versions of the haiku.

Modeling and Shared and Guided Writing

“Now I will try it with the haiku riddle I wrote.”

My home is the sea.
Could I live in the night sky?
Five colorful arms!

“Hmm, like the other haikus, mine describes one of the animal’s body parts—its arms. Maybe I could use a simile in the last line.”

Conduct a write-aloud to create a few simile ideas. Examples might include the following:

- Arms like bright rainbows.
- Arms like colored twigs.
- Arms like candy sticks.

“Rewrite your haiku with one of your similes.”

Independent Writing

“Work with your partner to revise your haiku riddle by adding a simile. I’ll walk around to help you if you get stuck.”

Reflection

In small groups, use guiding questions to reflect with students.

“How did today’s strategy of adding a simile to your haiku work for you? What was most difficult to do?”

Optional Steps: Write and Reflect Again

When ready, have students revise their haiku riddle using a metaphor.

“What did you notice about trying to add a metaphor instead of a simile? Was it more difficult? If so, what made it difficult? If not, why do you think it was easy for you?”

Source: Prelutsky, J. (2004). *If not for the cat*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Escribiendo poesía

Lección: Acertijos haiku

Materiales

- Tarjetas con las palabras *sílabas* y *haiku* en cada una
- Hoja de papel tamaño póster con dos o tres ejemplos de haikus (asegúrese de dejar espacio suficiente entre cada verso para escribir números)
- Marcadores
- Copias de “Acertijos haiku” para usted y para cada estudiante
- Copias de “Nuestros acertijos haiku” para cada estudiante

Objetivo

Los estudiantes escribirán acertijos de animales utilizando la poesía haiku.

Gancho y demostración con un texto

Muestre su tarjeta con la palabra sílaba.

“Vamos a leer la palabra en la tarjeta.”

Separe la palabra en partes en partes si es necesario y luego lean la palabra todos juntos.

“Sílaba. Podemos leer palabras con más de una sílaba. ¿Puedes recordar qué es una sílaba? Voltea y discute con tu pareja lo qué es una sílaba.”

Deje que los estudiantes discutan durante 15 o 20 segundos. Pida a un estudiante que comparta la definición de sílaba: una parte de una palabra que tiene una vocal.

“Practiquemos rápidamente cómo separar una palabra en sílabas. Voy a decir una palabra y separaremos la palabra en sílabas todos juntos. Al final, contaremos las sílabas que tiene cada palabra.”

“Diga, *elefante*. (Estudiantes: “*Elefante*.”) Separamos en sílabas: *e-le-fan-te*: cuatro sílabas.”

“*Jirafa*. (Estudiantes: “*Jirafa*.”) Separamos en sílabas: *ji-ra-fa*: tres sílabas.”

“*Medusa*. (Estudiantes: “*Medusa*.”) Separamos en sílabas: *me-du-sa*: tres sílabas.”

“¿Qué nombran todas estas palabras? Susurra la respuesta a tu pareja.”

Haga una pausa para que los estudiantes susurren la respuesta. Luego diga:

“¿Cuál es la respuesta? Todos juntos.” (“Animales.”)

“¡Sí! Animales. Vamos a usar nuestro conocimiento de las sílabas para escribir un poema sobre animales. Vamos a hacer un nuevo tipo de poesía llamada *haiku*.”

Muestre su tarjeta con la palabra haiku y haga que los estudiantes la repitan.

“Un *haiku* es un poema con sólo tres versos. No tiene que rimar, pero tiene que tener un cierto número de sílabas en cada verso. El primer verso debe tener 5 sílabas. El segundo verso tiene que tener 7 sílabas y el tercero tiene que tener 5 sílabas otra vez. Aquí hay un ejemplo:”

**Temprano al sol
Kikiriki yo oigo
Otro responde**

Muestre el poema en una hoja de papel tamaño póster. Lea cada verso, escribiendo 1 sobre la primera sílaba, 2 sobre la segunda sílaba, etc. Después de leer cada verso, escriba el número total de sílabas al lado.

“Aquí hay otro ejemplo. Cuenten las sílabas en cada verso conmigo.”

**Con su gran cuerno
pasta en la sabana
cae la tarde**

Mientras lo lee con los estudiantes, cuente las sílabas con ellos y escriba el número de sílabas al final de cada verso. Note como la palabra cae es un hiato simple y se divide en dos sílabas.

“Cada uno de estos poemas es también un acertijo sobre un animal. ¿Puedes averiguar el animal del cuál están hablando en el primero? Les daré un momento para discutir la respuesta con su pareja.”

Señale el primer haiku. Dé 15–20 segundos para que los estudiantes discutan.

“¿Lo adivinaron?”

Pida a los estudiantes que compartan sus respuestas. (Respuesta correcta: gallo)

“¿Puedes adivinar el siguiente? Habla con tu pareja para pensar en la respuesta.”

Señale el segundo haiku. Dé 15–20 segundos para que los estudiantes discutan. Pida a los estudiantes que compartan sus respuestas. (Respuesta correcta: rinoceronte)

Dé a los estudiantes copias del organizador gráfico “Acertijos haiku” (presentado más adelante). Ponga su copia en la cámara de documentos para hacer referencia.

“Aquí hay otro acertijo en forma de haiku como ejemplo. Cuenten las sílabas en cada verso con su pareja. Después traten de averiguar de qué animal están hablando. Escriban su respuesta en el espacio en blanco.”

Dé a los estudiantes 1–2 minutos para trabajar.

“¿Adivinaron de qué animal están hablando?”

Pida a los estudiantes que le digan sus respuestas. (Respuesta correcta: perro)

Lluvia de ideas

“Ahora, veamos si pueden ayudarme a planear y escribir nuestro propio acertijo haiku para un animal. Primero, hagamos una lluvia de ideas sobre algunos animales sobre los que podríamos escribir un poema.”

Pida a los estudiantes que le ayuden a hacer una lluvia de ideas sobre animales. Esta es una buena lección que se puede hacer durante la materia de biología o una unidad de ciencias que trate de diferentes ecosistemas y animales.

Póster

Organizador gráfico para planear acertijos haiku

Demostración y escritura guiada y compartida

“Ahora, vamos a escoger un animal de nuestra lista.”

Pida a los estudiantes que le ayuden a escoger uno de los animales y escríbalo en el círculo “Animal” en medio del organizador gráfico para planear acertijos haiku.

Luego, trabaje con los estudiantes para nombrar los atributos o características del animal que podría usar en su poema. He aquí un ejemplo:

Estrella de mar

Atributo 1: Vive en el océano

Atributo 2: Tiene cinco brazos

Atributo 3: Parece una estrella

Atributo 4: Colorida

A continuación, muestre cómo convertir estos atributos en un haiku al pensar en voz alta al escribir. He aquí un ejemplo de acertijo haiku sobre las estrellas mar que podría usar:

Vivo en el mar

También en la noche fría

Con cinco brazos

Escritura independiente

“Trabajen con su pareja para planear un acertijo haiku sobre otro animal. Primero, piensen en algunos atributos sobre ese animal que podrían usar en su haiku. Luego, trabajen juntos para escribir un haiku desde la perspectiva del animal. Asegúrense de no incluir el nombre del animal en el poema para que todos podamos tratar de adivinar qué animal es.”

Reflexión

En grupos pequeños, reflexione con los estudiantes utilizando preguntas similares a éstas:

“¿Cómo funcionó la estrategia de hoy para escribir acertijos haiku? ¿Qué fue lo más difícil de hacer?”

Pasos opcionales: Escriba y reflexione de nuevo

Los estudiantes revisan su acertijo haiku usando un tipo de lenguaje figurado previamente enseñado (por ej., onomatopeya, símil).

“¿Qué notaste al tratar de utilizar lenguaje figurado? ¿Fue difícil? Si es así, ¿qué lo hizo difícil? Si no, ¿por qué crees que fue fácil para ti?”

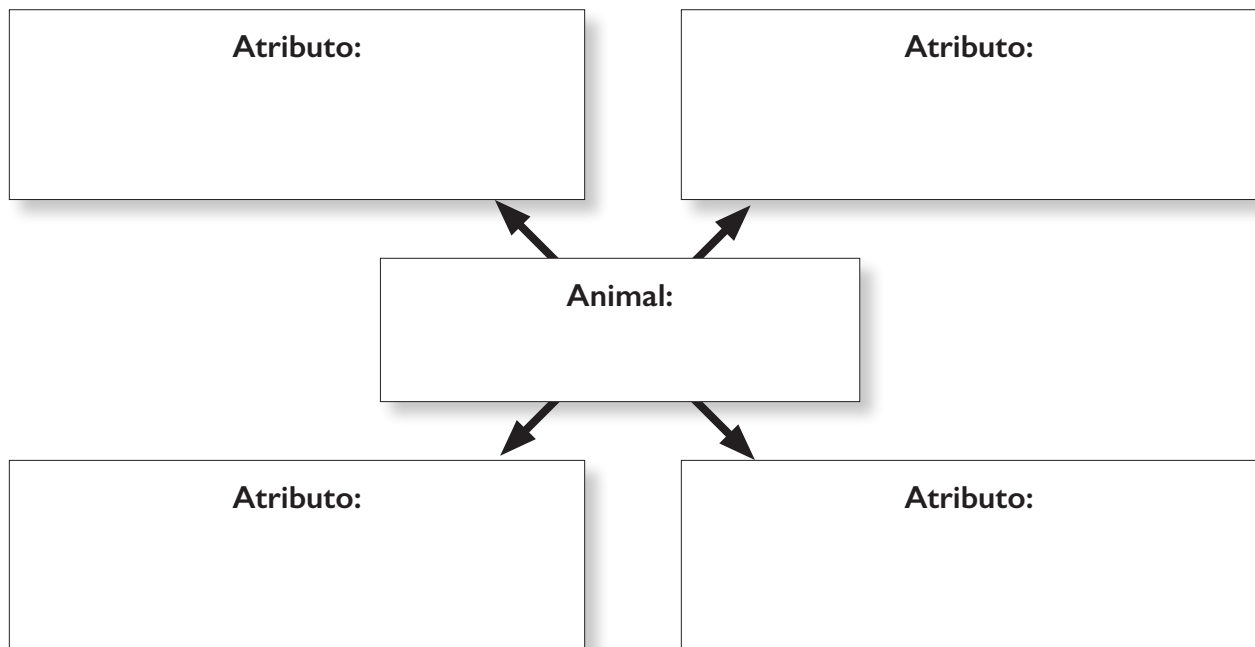
Acertijos haiku

Ejemplo:

Mueve su cola
Saluda con cariño
Duerme a tus pies

¿De qué animal habla este poema? _____

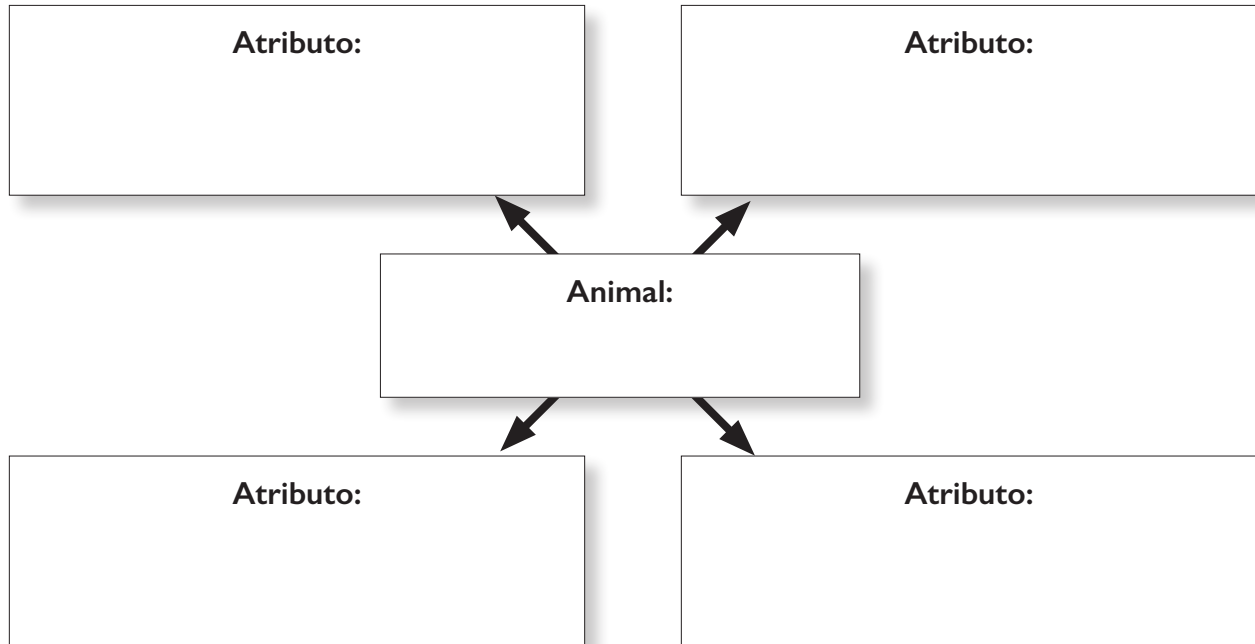
Planeando un poema haiku:



Nuestro acertijo haiku:

Nuestro acertijos haiku

Planeando un poema haiku:



Nuestro acertijo haiku:

Expository Writing

Lesson 1: Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement

Materials

- *Amos & Boris* by William Steig
- *Owen & Mzee: The True Story of a Remarkable Friendship* by Isabella Hatkoff, Craig Hatkoff, and Paula Kahumbu
- “Creature Comforts” by Rebecca Skloot (page 11 of this handout)
- Notecard with *thesis* on it
- Copies of Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement sheet for each student (page 4 of this handout)

Objective

Collect details and information from different kinds of text and use those details and information to create a thesis statement.

Hook, Brainstorming, and Modeling

“We have talked about relationships and friendships in different areas, including in stories, science, social studies, and math. In our discussions, we have read several books and texts, including *Amos & Boris*, *Owen & Mzee*, and an interesting newspaper article about a guide horse named Panda and her owner.

“Now I’d like us to use some of the details and information from these texts to put together our ideas about friendships to write what is called a thesis statement. Let’s talk about what that means.”

Show students the *thesis* notecard. Tell them that a thesis is a sentence or paragraph that tells your idea or perspective about something.

“For example, if I wanted to write about family, I would identify something I think is important to teach someone about family. What are some things that are important about family?”

Have students help you brainstorm important things about family. The list could include the following:

- Take care of each other
- Help each other in different ways
- Celebrate with each other
- Have fun doing activities together
- Share responsibilities

Then, model how to pick one of these ideas and turn it into a thesis statement.

“I like the idea of a family celebrating with each other, so I’ll write a thesis about that: ‘When I think about family, good times come to mind. My family loves to celebrate together, and these celebrations are some of my best memories.’”

“Notice that my thesis is not just one sentence. A thesis can be one sentence, but it can also be two or three sentences.

“Now that I have written this thesis, I can use it to plan an essay with details and specific examples of family celebrations and how these have created good memories.

“Let’s try doing this for the idea of friendship using what we’ve learned from our readings.”

Graphic Organizer

Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement sheet

Modeling

“Instead of rereading each text, I will pull sections we can use to form a thesis statement. As I read the text, we need to identify ideas or information that is important to teaching us about friendship. We will use the Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement sheet to write our notes.”

Reread sections of *Amos & Boris* that discuss friendship. For example, you could read the following.

They became the closest possible friends. They told each other about their lives, their ambitions. They shared their deepest secrets with each other. The whale was very curious about life on land and was sorry that he could never experience it. Amos was fascinated by the whale’s accounts of what went on deep under the sea.

As you read this section, stop and note important details related to friendship. For example, you might stop after the first three sentences and say the following.

“Here is something about friendship. When you share a friendship, you share things, not just concrete things like toys, but also more abstract things like secrets. That is nice. I will write that on my sheet.”

Write, “Friendships make you share things like secrets or ideas” in the *Amos & Boris* box. Continue reading, stopping occasionally to discuss ideas. After this first model, have students discuss the ideas in partners and with the whole group to help you come up with notes to write.

After you finish reading a few pages from *Amos & Boris*, do the same thing with *Owen & Mzee* and “Creature Comforts.”

Shared and Guided Writing

After you have filled out the top three boxes on the Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement sheet, have students work with you to use these notes to come up with a thesis statement.

Tell students that they will use these notes to come up with an idea about friendship that they think is important to teach others. Have students talk in partners or small groups about their notes and what they teach us about friendship.

Have students share possible ideas for thesis statements and write them on a whiteboard or chart paper. The following are possible thesis statements:

- No matter where you come from or who you are, having a good friend is important.
- Friendships can build bridges between animals or people who normally would not even like each other.
- Always be open to making a new friend, no matter what that friend looks like, because you never know what that friendship could mean to you.

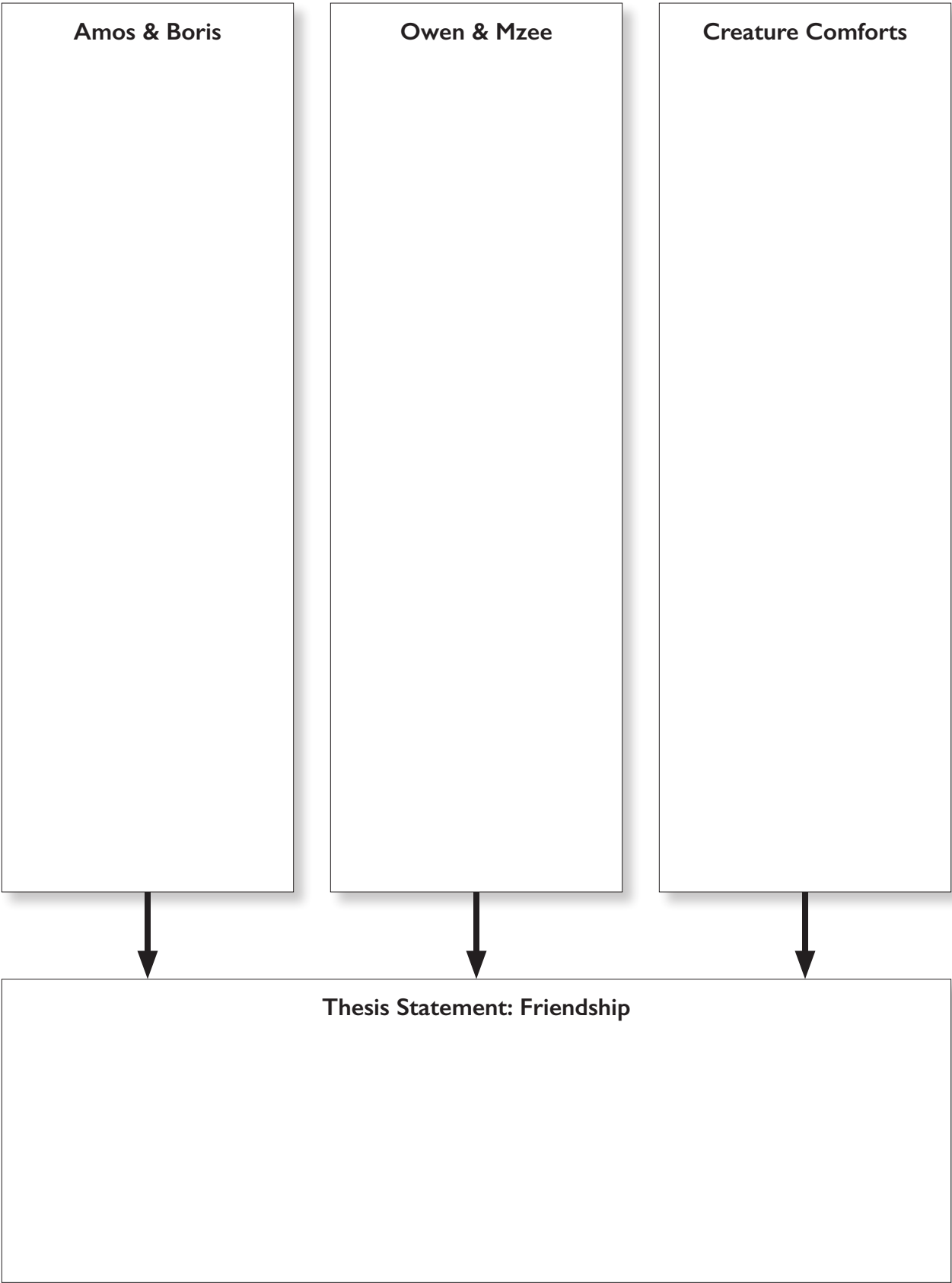
After you and students have brainstormed several possible thesis statements, work as a class to pick your favorite one. You will use this statement in the next lesson to plan an expository essay.

Reflection

When students finish, ask reflection questions such as the following.

“What did you notice about taking notes? How did these details and this information help us write a thesis statement? What was difficult about creating a thesis statement?”

Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement



Lesson 2: Outlining an Expository Essay

Materials

- *Amos & Boris* by William Steig
- *Owen & Mzee: The True Story of a Remarkable Friendship* by Isabella Hatkoff, Craig Hatkoff, and Paula Kahumbu
- “Creature Comforts” by Rebecca Skloot (page 11 of this handout)
- Students’ completed copies of the Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement sheet
- Anchor chart with possible expository text structures
- Copies of Expository Essay Outline sheet for each student (page 8 of this handout)

Objective

In this lesson, students use the notes taken and thesis statement created in Lesson 1 to plan an expository essay using an outline.

Modeling

Reread the thesis statement that you and students created in the previous lesson.

“We used our notes to write this thesis statement. Let’s write that statement and our topic at the top of the Expository Essay Outline sheet.”

Write the topic (friendship) and thesis statement at the top of the outline. The thesis will also go in your introduction, so write it there, too.

Next, think about how to organize your essay. The following are some example text structures with possible main ideas:

- Thesis, example, example, closing: Use the friendships in *Amos & Boris*, *Owen & Mzee*, and/or “Creature Comforts” as examples to support your thesis.
- Thesis, problem, solution, closing: Your problem could be that sometimes we feel isolated, and your solution could be that we need to open ourselves up to new, and maybe unusual, friendships. This solution has support in the texts.
- Thesis, cause, effect, closing: The cause could be that everyone has needs. Each text provides evidence of this fact. The effect could be that to meet these needs, we form strong bonds, even with those who seem like unusual choices.

Pick the text structure that works best, given your notes and the thesis. Page 9 of this handout provides an example of how a completed outline might look using the text structure described in the first bullet above. Page 10 provides an example that follows the text structure in the third bullet.

Modeling

Look at your anchor chart with possible text structures and tell students you have picked one to organize your essay on friendship. Model how you can use this text structure and your notes to write two main ideas (see the example outlines).

Have students write these main ideas on their own outlines.

Anchor Chart

Expository text structures

Graphic Organizer

Expository essay outline

Shared and Guided Writing

Now that you have your two main ideas, ask students to help you fill out the details from the texts that support each main idea. Remind students to use their notes from the Using Details to Create a Thesis Statement sheet.

Have students talk in partners or in small groups first, and then have students share with the whole group what in their notes fits with each main idea. Write these details in the third column of the outline.

It is fine if students provide evidence that is not in the texts. Include ideas from their own lives, too. In fact, encourage such connections.

Modeling and Independent Writing

Use the completed outline to model how to write complete sentences and paragraphs to create an essay.

Have students work on their own or in partners to use their completed outlines to draft their own essays.

Reflection

Guide self-reflection through key questions such as the following:

“Do you like how we organized this essay? Is there a different way that you would organize it? How would you provide different evidence within that organization?”

Ask additional questions, depending on the proficiency of your students and the purpose of the lesson.

Write and Reflect Again

Have writers revise their writing.

“If I were to revise my writing, what is one thing I would absolutely change, take out, or add?”

Expository Essay Outline

Topic: _____

Thesis Statement: _____

Paragraph	Main Idea	Details
1	Introduction	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
2		<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
3		<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
4	Conclusion	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>

Expository Essay Outline: Examples as Main Ideas

Topic: Friendship

Thesis Statement: No matter where you come from or who you are, having a good friend is important.

Paragraph	Main Idea	Details
1	Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No matter where you come from or who you are, having a good friend is important. Examples in stories, in nature, and in our society today
2	Example: Owen & Mzee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Owen needed a friend when he was left all alone. Mzee likes having a new friend, even though he seemed happy. Each one provides companionship, protection, and someone to curl up next to.
3	Example: "Creature Comforts"	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Panda helps Ann with basic, day-to-day living. Ann needs Panda's help and will have Panda as a friend for a long time. Ann and Panda take care of one another.
4	Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Friends depend on each other. Friends are necessary to life.

Expository Essay Outline: Cause and Effect as Main Ideas

Topic: Friendship

Thesis Statement: No matter where you come from or who you are, having a good friend is important.

Paragraph	Main Idea	Details
1	Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No matter where you come from or who you are, having a good friend is important. Everyone has needs. Friendships help us meet these needs.
2	Cause: Everyone has needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Owen needed someone to take care of him and provide security. Amos needed someone to take him home, and Boris needed someone to help him get back in the water. Ann needed someone to help her "see."
3	Effect: Look for friends who can help us meet these needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Owen found Mzee to be his surrogate mother. Boris found Amos floating in water, and Amos found Boris on the beach. Ann found Panda to help guide her through life.
4	Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Friends provide for our basic needs. They help us to survive, to feel secure, and to feel happy.

Adapted from Hochman, 2009.

Creature Comforts

By Rebecca Skloot
New York Times
December 31, 2008

On Halloween night in a suburb of Albany, a group of children dressed as vampires and witches ran past a middle-aged woman in plain clothes. She gripped a leather harness—like the kind used for Seeing Eye dogs—which was attached to a small, fuzzy, black-and-white horse barely tall enough to reach the woman’s hip. “Cool costume,” one of the kids said, nodding toward her.

But she wasn’t dressed up. The woman, Ann Edie, was simply blind and out for an evening walk with Panda, her guide miniature horse.

There are no sidewalks in Edie’s neighborhood, so Panda led her along the street’s edge, maneuvering around drainage ditches, mailboxes, and bags of raked leaves. At one point, Panda paused, waited for a car to pass, and then veered into the road to avoid a group of children running toward them, swinging glow sticks. She led Edie onto a lawn so she wouldn’t hit her head on the side mirror of a parked van and then to a traffic pole at a busy intersection, where she stopped and tapped her hoof. “Find the button,” Edie said. Panda raised her head inches from the pole so Edie could run her hand along Panda’s nose to find and press the “walk” signal button.

Edie isn’t the only blind person who uses a guide horse instead of a dog—there’s actually a Guide Horse Foundation that’s been around nearly a decade. The obvious question is: Why? In fact, Edie says, there are many reasons: Miniature horses are mild-mannered, trainable, and less threatening than large dogs. They’re naturally cautious and have exceptional vision, with eyes set far apart for nearly 360-degree range. Plus, they’re herd animals, so they instinctively synchronize their movements with others. But the biggest reason is age: Miniature horses can live and work for more than 30 years. In that time, a blind person typically goes through five to seven guide dogs. That can be draining both emotionally and economically, because each one can cost up to \$60,000 to breed, train, and place in a home.

“Panda is almost 8 years old,” her trainer, Alexandra Kurland, told me. “If Panda were a dog, Ann would be thinking about retiring her soon and starting over, but their relationship is just getting started. They’re still improving their communication and learning to read each other’s bodies. It’s the difference between dating for a few years and being married so long you can finish each other’s sentences.”

Edie has nothing against service dogs—she has had several. One worked beautifully. Two didn’t—they dragged her across lawns, chasing cats and squirrels, and even pulled her into the street, chasing dogs in passing cars. Edie doesn’t worry about those sorts of things with Panda because miniature horses are less aggressive. Still, she says, “I would never say to a blind person, ‘Run out and get yourself a guide horse,’ because there are definite limitations.” They eat far more often than dogs and go to the bathroom about every two or three hours. (Yes, Panda is house-trained.) Plus, they can’t curl up in small places, which makes going to the movies or riding in airplanes a challenge. (When miniature horses fly, they stand in first class or bulkhead because they don’t fit in standard coach.)

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Escribiendo texto expositivos

Lección 1: Utilizando detalles para crear una posición argumentativa

Materiales

- *Un día diferente para el señor Amos* por Philip C. Stead
- *Owen & Mzee: la verdadera historia de una amistad increíble* por Isabella Hatkoff, Craig Hatkoff, y Paula Kahumbu
- *Cosita linda* por Anthony Browne
- Tarjetas con la frase *posición argumentativa*
- Copias del organizador gráfico “Utilizando detalles para crear una posición argumentativa” para cada estudiante (presentado más adelante)

Objetivo

Encontrar razones e información en diferentes tipos de texto y utilizar estas razones e información para crear una posición argumentativa.

Gancho, lluvias de ideas y demostración

“Hemos hablado de las relaciones y amistades en diferentes materias, incluyendo historias, matemáticas, ciencias naturales y ciencias sociales. En nuestras discusiones, hemos leído varios libros y textos, incluyendo ‘Cosita linda’, ‘Un día diferente para el señor Amos’ y la historia de Owen y Mzee.

“Ahora, me gustaría que utilizáramos la información de estos textos para organizar nuestras ideas sobre la amistad y crear lo que se llama una ‘posición argumentativa’ o ‘postura argumentativa’ o simplemente ‘posición’. Vamos a ver qué significa eso.”

Muestre a los estudiantes la tarjeta con la frase *posición argumentativa*. Explique que una posición argumentativa en un escrito es una oración o un párrafo que presenta tu idea o perspectiva del tema sobre el que vas a escribir.

“Por ejemplo, si yo quisiera escribir sobre la familia, yo escogería una idea sobre la familia que yo creo es importante discutir y enseñar a otros. ¿Qué cosas sobre la familia son importantes?”

Haga que los estudiantes le digan cosas importantes sobre la familia en una lluvia de ideas. La lista puede incluir:

- Cuidarse unos a otros
- Ayudarse mutuamente
- Celebrar con los otros miembros de la familia
- Divertirse juntos
- Compartir responsabilidades

Después, demuestre cómo escoger una de estas ideas para convertirla en una posición argumentativa.

“Me gusta la idea de la familia celebrando juntos así que voy a escribir una posición argumentativa sobre eso: ‘Cuando pienso en la familia, siempre recuerdo momento muy divertidos. A mi familia le encanta celebrar ocasiones especiales juntos, y estas celebraciones son unos de mis mejores recuerdos.’

“Observen como la posición argumentativa no es solo una oración. Una posición argumentativa puede ser una oración, pero también puede ser dos o tres oraciones.

“Ahora puedo utilizar mi posición argumentativa para planear mi ensayo con ejemplos y detalles específicos que den más información sobre mi posición argumentativa y que den ejemplos de mis celebraciones familiares y cómo éstas han creado bonitos recuerdos.

“Vamos a tratar de hacer esto para el tema de amistad utilizando lo que hemos aprendido con nuestras lecturas sobre el tema.”

Organizador gráfico

Utilizando detalles para crear una posición argumentativa

Demostración

“En lugar de leer cada texto, voy a seleccionar ciertas partes que nos puedan ayudar a crear una posición argumentativa. Necesitamos identificar ideas o información que sea importante para enseñar a otros sobre el concepto de la amistad conforme vayamos leyendo. Utilizaremos el organizador gráfico ‘Utilizando detalles para crear una posición argumentativa’ para escribir nuestras notas.”

Vuelva a leer las primeras hojas del libro *Un día diferente para el señor Amos* en donde se muestran las cosas que el Señor Amos hacía para sus amigos. Por ejemplo, lea:

Jugaba ajedrez con el elefante (que pensaba y pensaba antes de hacer un movimiento), jugaba a las carreras con la tortuga (que nunca perdía), se sentaba en silencio con el pingüino (que era muy tímido), le prestaba un pañuelo al rinoceronte (que siempre tenía catarro), y al anochecer le leía cuentos al búho (que le tenía miedo a la oscuridad).

Al terminar de leer esta sección, deténgase para señalar cómo todas estas acciones demuestran amistad. Por ejemplo:

“Todas estas actividades demuestran amistad y cariño. El señor Amos hace todas estas cosas porque quiere a sus amigos aunque a veces no tengan sentido. Deja a la tortuga ganar y le lee cuentos al búho en la noche. Muchas veces la amistad es hacer cosas que no tienen sentido. Eso está muy bien. Lo voy a escribir en mis anotaciones.”

Escriba, “La amistad te hace hacer cosas que a veces no tienen mucho sentido” en el cuadro de *Un día diferente para el señor Amos*. Después de eso, lea la parte final donde los animales del zoológico van a casa del Señor Amos a cuidarlo y a tratarlo cómo él siempre los ha tratado. Los

animales le regresan las muestras de amistad ahora que él está enfermo. Al terminar de leer, pida a los estudiantes que discutan estas ideas en parejas y que le ayuden a escribir las notas que van en el cuadro para este libro en el organizador gráfico.

Realice el mismo procedimiento con el libro de *Owen y Mzee* y el libro *Cosita linda*.

Escritura compartida y guiada

Después de escribir las notas en los cuadros en el organizador gráfico, pida a los estudiantes que trabajen con usted para crear una posición argumentativa.

Explique a los estudiantes que van a utilizar las notas que tomaron para presentar una idea sobre la amistad que ellos crean es importante para enseñar a otros. Haga que los estudiantes discutan sus notas sobre la amistad en parejas o pequeños grupos.

Pida a los estudiantes que compartan con todo el grupo posibles posiciones argumentativas y escríbalas en el pizarrón o en una hoja tamaño póster. He aquí unos ejemplos:

- No importa quién eres o de dónde vengas, siempre es importante tener un buen amigo.
- Las amistades pueden unir a animales o personas que normalmente no se relacionarían.
- Es importante estar abierto a hacer nuevas amistades en cualquier momento sin importar la apariencia de esa persona porque nunca sabes lo que esa amistad puede significar para ti en un futuro.

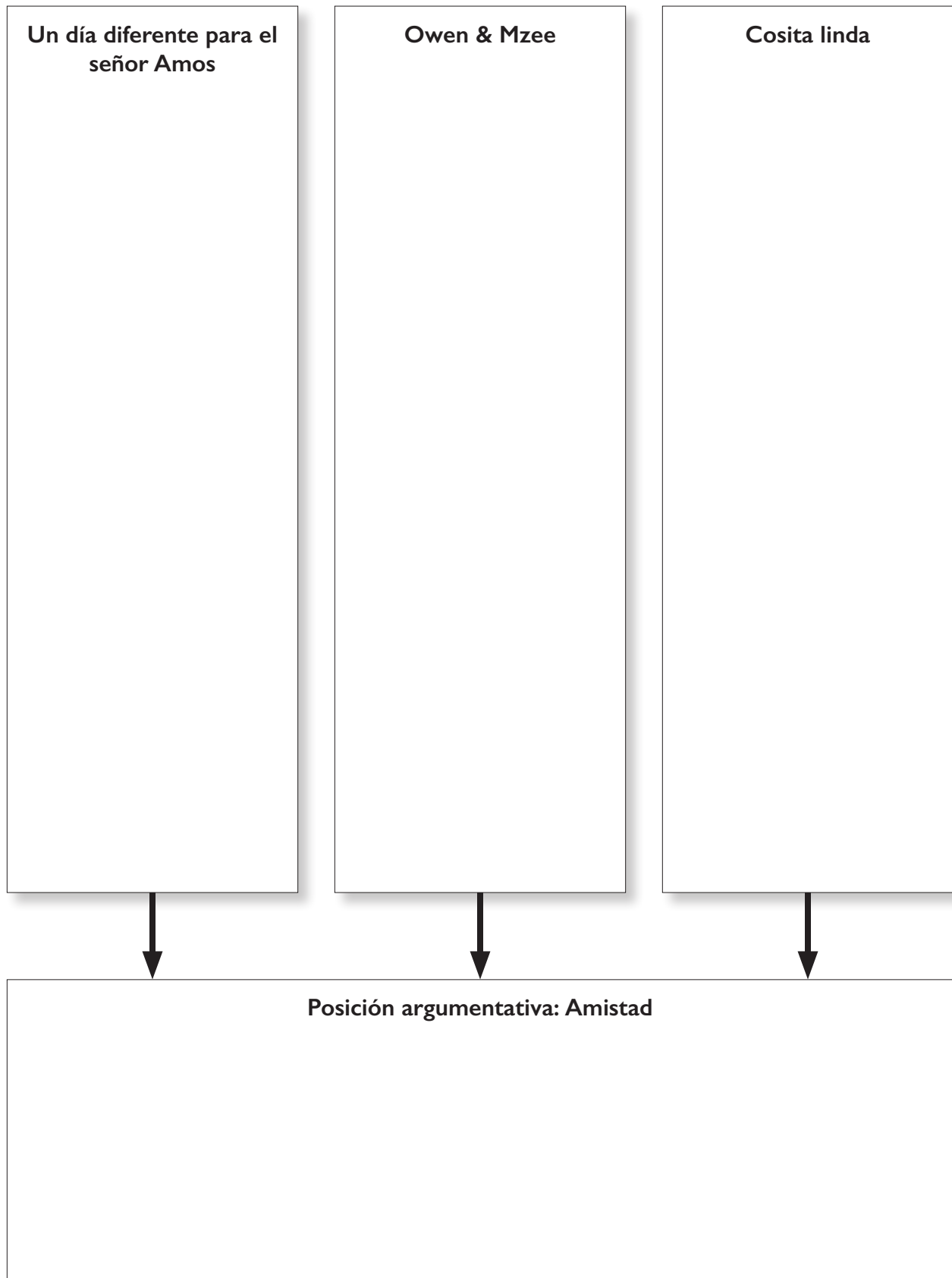
Después de que usted y los estudiantes hayan mencionado varias posibles posiciones argumentativas, seleccionen una favorita todos juntos. Se utilizará esta posición argumentativa en la siguiente lección para planear un ensayo expositivo.

Reflexión

Para terminar la lección, haga este tipo de preguntas a la clase:

“¿Qué fue lo que aprendiste al tomar notas? ¿Cómo ayudan estos detalles y la información en las notas a escribir una posición argumentativa? ¿Qué fue lo más difícil para crear una posición argumentativa?”

Utilizando detalles para crear una posición argumentativa



Lección 2: Escribiendo un esbozo o esquema de un ensayo expositivo

Materiales

- *Un día diferente para el señor Amos* por Philip C. Stead
- *Owen & Mzee: la verdadera historia de una amistad increíble* por Isabella Hatkoff, Craig Hatkoff, y Paula Kahumbu
- *Cosita linda* por Anthony Browne
- La copia completada del organizador gráfico “Utilizando detalles para crear una posición argumentativa”
- Póster con diferentes estructuras de texto expositivo
- Copias del organizador gráfico “Esquema para un ensayo expositivo” para cada estudiante (presentado más adelante)

Objetivo

Los estudiantes utilizarán las notas que se tomaron anteriormente y la posición argumentativa creada en la Lección 1 para planear un ensayo expositivo utilizando un esbozo o esquema.

Lluvia de ideas y planeación

Vuelva a leer la posición argumentativa que se creó en la lección anterior.

“Utilizamos nuestras notas para escribir esta posición argumentativa. Ahora vamos a escribirla y nuestro tema en la parte superior del organizador gráfico ‘Esquema para un ensayo expositivo’.”

Escriba el tema y la posición argumentativa en el organizador gráfico. La posición argumentativa irá en la introducción, así que escríbala ahí también.

En seguida, piense cómo organizar el ensayo. Aquí se presentan ejemplos de diferentes tipos de estructuras de texto con posibles ideas principales:

- Posición argumentativa, ejemplo, ejemplo, ejemplo, cierre: Utilice ejemplos de los textos leídos como ejemplos para apoyar la posición argumentativa.
- Posición argumentativa, problema, solución, cierre: El problema puede ser que algunas veces nos sentimos aislados y solos, y la solución puede ser que necesitamos abrirnos a nuevas, y quizás diferentes, amistades. Esta solución tiene ejemplos de apoyo de los textos leídos.
- Posición argumentativa, causa, efecto, cierre: La causa puede ser que todas las personas tienen necesidades. Cada texto proporciona evidencia de esto. El efecto puede ser que para satisfacer estas necesidades, los seres humanos formamos fuertes lazos de amistad, aún con aquellas personas que parecen ser muy diferentes a nosotros.

Escoja la estructura de texto que funcione mejor en su caso y de acuerdo a sus notas y posición argumentativa. La siguiente página presenta un ejemplo de esquema que sigue la estructura de texto explicada en el número 1 (posición, ejemplo, ejemplo, ejemplo, cierre). Más adelante se presenta un ejemplo de un esquema completado para un ensayo que muestra la estructura de texto explicada en el número 3 (posición, causa, efecto, cierre).

Demostración

Explique que usted ha escogido una estructura de texto de las presentadas en el póster para organizar su ensayo sobre la amistad. Demuestre cómo se puede utilizar esta estructura de texto y sus notas para escribir las ideas (vea los ejemplos de esquemas). Los estudiantes pueden escribir lo mismo en su copia del organizador gráfico.

Póster

Estructuras para textos expositivos

Organizador gráfico

Esquema para un ensayo expositivo

Escritura compartida y guiada

Pida a los estudiantes que le ayuden a completar el organizador con detalles e ideas de los textos que apoyen cada idea principal. Recuérdeles que ellos deben usar sus notas del organizador gráfico “Utilizando detalles para crear una posición argumentativa”.

Pida a los estudiantes que primero discutan en parejas o en grupos pequeños, y después ellos comparten con todo el grupo la información de sus notas que encaja con cada idea principal. Escriba estos detalles en la tercera columna del esquema como notas y no en oraciones completas.

Se permite que los estudiantes proporcionen evidencia para cada idea que no se encuentra en los textos leídos. También incluya ideas de sus vidas ya que es conveniente el fomentar este tipo de conexiones.

Demostración y escritura independiente

Utilice el esquema completado para demostrar cómo escribir oraciones completas y párrafos para escribir un ensayo.

Pida a los estudiantes que trabajen independientemente o en parejas para usar sus esquemas completos para escribir un borrador de su ensayo.

Reflexión

Guíe la reflexión de los estudiantes haciendo preguntas como las siguientes:

“¿Les gustó cómo organizamos este ensayo? ¿De qué otra manera lo pudimos haber organizado? ¿De qué otra manera se pudo haber proporcionado evidencia dentro de esta misma organización?”

Haga preguntas adicionales dependiendo del nivel de sus estudiantes y el propósito de la lección.

Escribir y reflexionar de nuevo

Haga que los estudiantes revisen y modifiquen su ensayo.

“Si yo fuera a revisar y modificar mi ensayo, ¿cuál sería el elemento que yo absolutamente cambiaría, quitaría o añadiría?”

Esquema para un ensayo expositivo

Tema: _____

Posición argumentativa: _____

Párrafo	Idea principal	Detalles/información específica
1	Introducción	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
2		<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
3		<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
4		<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
5	Conclusión	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>

Esquema para un ensayo expositivo: Ejemplos como ideas principales

Tema: Amistad

Posición argumentativa: No importa de dónde vienes o quién eres, tener un buen amigo es importante.

Párrafo	Idea principal	Detalles/Información específica
1	Introducción	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No importa de dónde vienes o quién eres, tener un buen amigo es importante. Ejemplos en las historias, en la naturaleza, en la sociedad
2	Ejemplo: "Owen & Mzee"	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Owen necesitaba un amigo cuando estaba solo. A Mzee le gusta tener un amigo nuevo, aunque pareciera que estuviera feliz. Se acompañan y se protegen el uno al otro y tienen alguien con quien acurrucarse.
3	Ejemplo: "Un día diferente para el señor Amos"	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> El señor Amos complace a sus amigos en el zoológico. El señor Amos deja ganar a la tortuga en las carreras, le lee libros al búho, y juega al ajedrez con el elefante. Cuando el señor Amos se enferma, sus amigos lo cuidan.
4	Ejemplo: "Cosita linda"	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Los amigos hacen muchas cosas juntos. Los amigos se echan la culpa para salvarse mutuamente.
5	Conclusión	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Los amigos depende de cada uno. Los amigos son necesarios para la vida.

Esquema para un ensayo expositivo: Causa/efecto como ideas principales

Tema: Amistad

Posición argumentativa: No importa de dónde vienes o quién eres, tener un buen amigo es importante.

Párrafo	Idea principal	Detalles/información específica
1	Introducción	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No importa de dónde vienes o quién eres, tener un buen amigo es importante. Todas las personas tienen necesidades. Las amistades nos ayudan a satisfacer esas necesidades.
2	Causa: Todas las personas tienen necesidades	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Owen necesitaba alguien que lo cuidara y lo protegiera. Los animales del zoológico necesitaba a alguien que los complaciera y jugara con ellos. El Sr. Amos necesitaba alguien que lo cuidara cuando se enfermó. Gorila está solo y pide un amigo.
3	Efecto: Busca a amigos que puedan satisfacer esas necesidades	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Owen adoptó a Mzee como su mamá. El señor Amos complació a sus amigos haciendo lo que a ellos les gustaba. Los animales cuidaron al Sr. Amos cuando se enfermó. Gorila encontró una amiga en la gatita y hacían todos juntos.
4	Conclusión	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Los amigos satisfacen nuestras necesidades básicas. Nos ayudan a sobrevivir, a sentirnos seguros, y a estar contentos.

Adapted from Hochman, 2009.

Persuasive Writing

Lesson 1: Writing a Position Statement

Materials

- Writing Position Statements chart in one content area—for example, history, science, or math (see page 3 of this handout)
- Writing Position Statements chart on chart paper to refer to throughout the year

Objective

Before writing persuasive essays using various text structures, students need to learn how to take a side and write effective position statements. This lesson focuses on writing position statements across content areas related to various topics.

Brainstorming and Planning

As you go through each content area's curriculum, brainstorm topics with two or more sides. For example, in Texas history, you could have students take sides related to topics such as the following:

- Should U.S. citizens have moved to Texas when it was part of Spain? How about when it was part of Mexico?
- Should Texas have become a republic?
- Should Texas have become part of the United States?
- Who was a better leader, Stephen F. Austin or Sam Houston?
- Who was a worse leader, Santa Anna or La Salle?
- Which was the best Native American tribe living in Texas?

Then, work with students as a class to write position statements for each side of the argument.

Modeling

"We have brainstormed several topics related to Texas history that we could examine from one side or the other. Let's pick one of those topics and practice writing position statements for each side."

Display your class's Writing Position Statements chart paper.

"We've been talking about the colonists who moved to Texas when it was a part of Spain. It might be fun to write a position statement saying they should move to Texas. Then, we could create a position statement supporting the opposite side, saying they should NOT move to Texas.

"I think I'll start with the first. How could I write in a convincing way that people should move to Texas? Turn to your partner and discuss a good way to say this."

Give students 30 seconds to discuss their ideas. Have a few students share their ideas with the group. Take their ideas and turn them into a position statement using a write-aloud.

“Texas was a new frontier back then, so maybe I could start with something like, ‘If you are looking for adventure and a new start on life, look no further. We have the perfect place for you—Texas!’ Maybe I should add one more sentence. People moved here to get land and have more freedom, so maybe I could say, ‘Come for the land. Stay for the freedom.’”

Write the position statement in the first position in the chart. Have students write the position statement on their copies of the Writing Position Statements chart.

Graphic Organizer

Writing Position Statements chart

Shared and Guided Writing

“Let’s try writing a position statement that supports the other side—not moving to Texas. What are some reasons why people might not have wanted to move to Texas? Talk with your partner about ideas we’ve learned about in our reading.”

Give students one minute to discuss their ideas. Then, have them create a brainstormed list of reasons why people might not have wanted to move to Texas. Pick a few of these ideas from the list and have students help you put them together to create a position statement.

Independent Writing

As you practice writing position statements together throughout the year, eventually have students work in partners or on their own to create position statements.

Reflection

Guide self-reflection through key questions such as the following.

“What did this activity show you about taking a position? How do you think the activity will help you in writing effective persuasive essays?”

Optional Steps: Write and Reflect Again

When students are ready, have them choose a position statement and write a persuasive essay with supporting evidence and details. Be sure to model and provide guided practice with this process before having students practice it independently.

Writing Position Statements

Texas History		
Topic	Position Statements	
Moving to Texas	1.	2.
Texas's independence	1.	2.
Texas becoming a state	1.	2.

Science		
Topic	Position Statements	
Recycling	1.	2.
Civilization versus ecosystems	1.	2.
Endangered species	1.	2.

Math		
Topic	Position Statements	
Why math is important	1.	2.
Addition versus multiplication	1.	2.
Fractions versus decimals	1.	2.

Lesson 2: Examining Persuasive Text Structure

Materials

- Copies of “Recycling and Conservation: Why Recycle?” (page 7 of this handout)
- Anchor chart with the text structures you have discussed with students. (If you have not yet discussed the question-answer structure, add it to the chart during this lesson.)
- Chart paper with the text’s opening paragraph
- Question-Answer Text Structure sheet (page 8 of this handout)
- Chart paper to write your own portion of the opening paragraph
- Highlighters
- Writer’s notebooks

Objective

One way to improve writing is to examine the text structures that expert expository and persuasive writers use. In this lesson, we look at one type of text structure that can be used to organize an essay: question-answer.

Modeling With a Text

“I have a persuasive essay related to what we’ve been discussing in science—the environment.”

Display a copy of “Recycling and Conservation: Why Recycle?” on the document camera. Read the entire essay aloud.

Then, tell students you will read aloud the opening paragraph again. This time, students should listen for the writer’s position. What is the writer trying to persuade us to do? (Teach lessons about position statements and persuasive writing prior to this lesson.)

Reread the first paragraph.

“What is this writer’s position? We can figure it out from this first paragraph.”

Have students discuss the writer’s position in partners. Then, discuss as a whole group.

“This writer is very clever. He used a specific text structure that we can use in our own writing to present a position.”

Display all but the first two sentences of the first paragraph on chart paper, as shown below.

Recycling can be time-consuming and dirty work. For example, recyclable objects have to be sorted from trash. Then, the objects have to be cleaned. Afterwards, the objects are turned into materials that can be used by people and companies. Why should people bother to recycle even though it takes a lot of work?

Reread the first four sentences of this excerpt and then highlight them.

“What is the writer doing in these four sentences?”

Have students discuss in partners. Ask a few students to share their thinking.

“This is an interesting way to start this persuasive essay. These four sentences make it seem like he will argue against recycling. He lists reasons why some people think recycling is not a good idea—it’s time-consuming and dirty work. But then, he asks a question that makes us realize he actually will do the opposite. He will tell us why we should recycle even though it has the downsides he described.”

In the following, underline the words *should* and *even though* when you say them.

“The words *should* and *even though* signal a change in what will come next. He asks a question that he will answer in the rest of the essay. This is called a question-answer text structure, and it’s used often in persuasive and expository writing.”

Add question-answer to your text structure anchor chart if it’s not already on it.

Modeling

“We can use question-answer to structure our own persuasive essays. For example, we have been discussing why it’s important to learn multiplication even though we already know how to add numbers. We could write a position statement following the same pattern as the writer of the recycling essay.”

Display a question-answer graphic organizer (such as the one on page 8 of this handout) and fill it out with your reasons against learning multiplication, your question, and the answers.

Anchor Chart

- Text structure anchor chart
- Question-answer graphic organizer

Shared and Guided Writing

“I can use my question-answer graphic organizer to write an opening paragraph just like in the recycling persuasive essay. Here is my first draft.”

Write the following on chart paper.

Multiplication can be difficult to learn. If you understand how to use addition to put numbers together, you may not want to learn a new way to put them together. At first, multiplication may take a long time to master. Why should students learn how to multiply even though it might seem more difficult to do than addition?

Highlight the sentences with your reasons against learning multiplication. Then, highlight your question.

“Do you see the signal words that let you know I actually will support learning multiplication? Turn and talk with your partner about the signal words you see.”

Give students 15 to 20 seconds to discuss. Have two students come up and underline the signal words *should* and *even though*.

Independent Writing

After students work with you in the whole group on your planning and drafting, have each student or pair of students come up with one answer to the question. As they work, conduct roving conferences with individual students about their answers.

Come back together in the whole group and have students help you brainstorm a list of answers for why they should learn multiplication. Then, have students work individually or in pairs to pick their favorite answers and write them on their question-answer graphic organizers.

Reflection

Guide self-reflection through key questions such as the following.

“What did this activity tell you about text structure? How do you think the question-answer text structure works for writing a persuasive essay?”

Optional Steps: Write and Reflect Again

Model planning the body of the paper by imitating the structure of “Recycling and Conservation: Why Recycle?” Have students help you use this plan to write more of your draft. Then, have students practice using the same structure to plan and draft their own writing.

Follow the same procedure to work on creating a closing for the paper.

Recycling and Conservation Why Recycle?

Recycling is a **process**¹ where something is reused rather than thrown away. Common items that are recycled include aluminum and steel cans, glass, and newspapers. Recycling can be time-consuming and dirty work. For example, recyclable objects have to be sorted from trash. Then the objects have to be cleaned. Afterwards, the objects are turned into materials that can be used by people and companies. Why should people bother to recycle even though it takes a lot of work?

Recycling helps protect the earth. Recycling means less garbage in landfills. These are places where garbage is taken and buried. Recycling also helps **conserve**² the earth's resources. For example, factories use less energy by recycling steel cans than by making new ones. Recycling paper saves trees from being cut down. Trees are used to make paper.

Every time you are about to drop a plastic bottle in the garbage, stop and think. Is it worth harming the earth? Your actions now can help preserve the environment for generations to come. All you have to do is throw that bottle into a recycling bin.

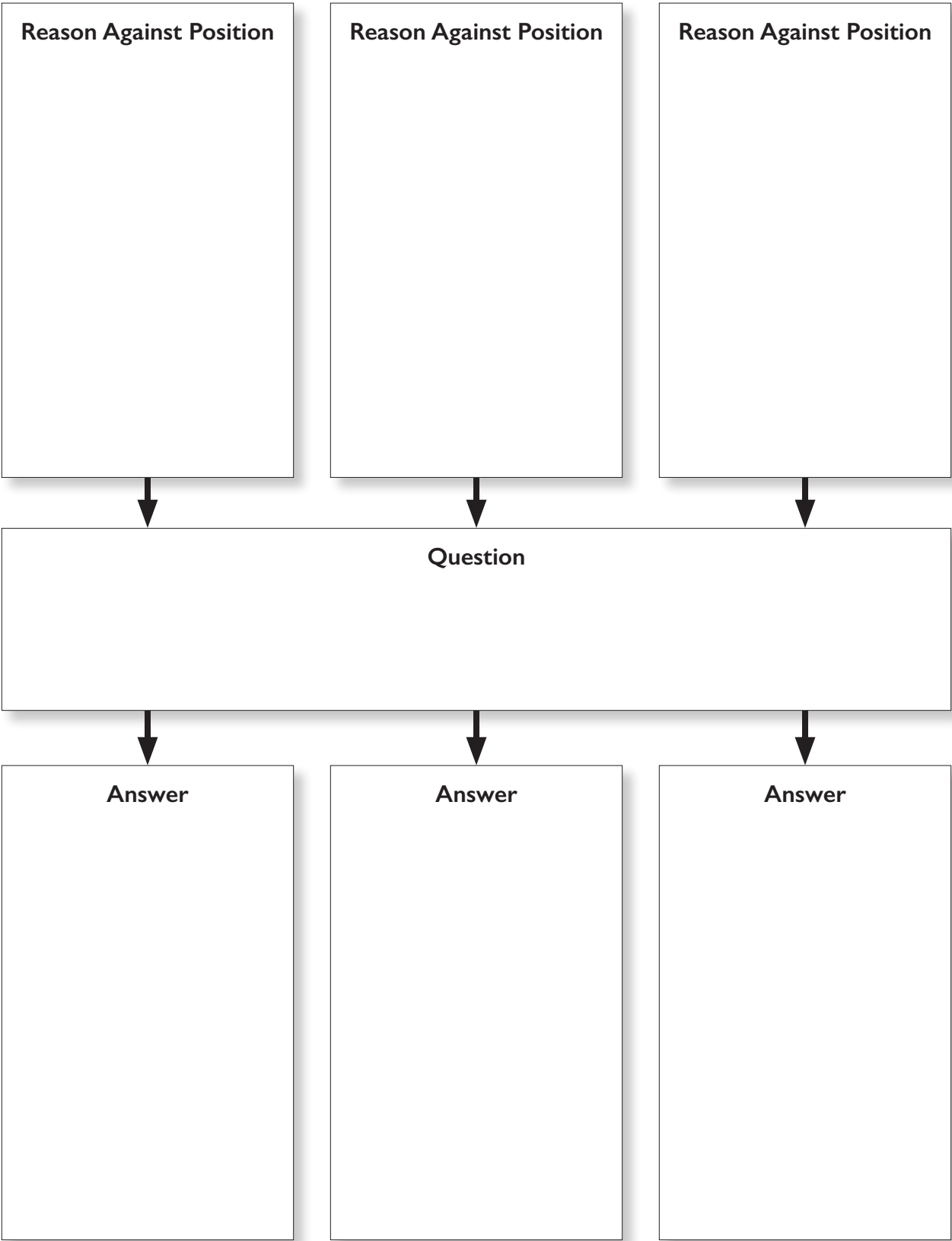
Get in the **habit**.³ Be proud of recycling. Encourage others to recycle. You can make a difference!

¹ **process:** a series of actions that produce a result

² **conserve:** to save from loss

³ **habit:** something done regularly without thinking about it

Question-Answer Text Structure Graphic Organizer



Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2007.

Escribiendo textos persuasivos

Lección 1: Escribiendo una posición argumentativa

Materiales

- Póster “Escribiendo posiciones argumentativas” en una materia como historia, ciencias, matemáticas
- Organizador gráfico “Escribiendo posiciones argumentativas” en hoja tamaño póster para referencia durante todo el año

Objetivo

Los estudiantes necesitan aprender a tomar una posición a favor o en contra de algún argumento y escribir posiciones argumentativas efectivas antes de escribir ensayos persuasivos usando diferentes estructuras de texto. Esta lección se centra en escribir posiciones argumentativas en diferentes materias relacionadas con varios temas.

Lluvia de ideas

A medida que usted y los estudiantes avanzan en el currículo de cada materia, haga una lluvia de ideas sobre temas que puedan tener posiciones a favor y en contra. Por ejemplo, en la historia de Texas, usted podría hacer que los estudiantes tomaran posiciones relacionadas con temas como los siguientes:

- ¿Debieron los ciudadanos estadounidenses haberse mudado a Texas cuando era parte de España? ¿Qué tal cuando era parte de México?
- ¿Debió Texas haberse convertido en una república?
- ¿Debió Texas haberse convertido en parte de los Estados Unidos?
- ¿Quién era un mejor líder Stephen F. Austin o Sam Houston?
- ¿Quién era un peor líder Santa Anna o La Salle?
- ¿Cuál fue la mejor tribu nativa americana que vivió en Texas?

Después, trabaje con los estudiantes para escribir posiciones argumentativas a favor y en contra de cada argumento.

Demostración

“Hemos hecho una lluvia de ideas sobre varios temas relacionados con la historia de Texas que podríamos examinar al analizar argumentos a favor y en contra. Vamos a elegir uno de estos argumentos y practicar cómo formular posiciones argumentativas.”

Muestre el organizador gráfico “Escribiendo posiciones argumentativas” escrito en la hoja de papel tamaño póster.

“Hemos estado hablando de los colonos que se trasladaron a Texas cuando era parte de España. Puede ser divertido escribir una posición argumentativa a favor de mudarse a Texas. Después, podríamos crear una posición argumentativa en contra diciendo que NO deben mudarse a Texas.”

“Creo que voy a empezar con la primera. ¿Cómo podría escribir que la gente debería trasladarse a Texas de una manera convincente? Volteen con su pareja y discutan una buena manera de decir esto.”

Dé a los estudiantes 30 segundos para discutir sus ideas. Pida a algunos estudiantes que compartan sus ideas con el grupo. Utilice estas ideas para formular una posición argumentativa pensando en voz alta.

“Texas era una nueva frontera en ese entonces, así que tal vez podría comenzar con algo así: ‘Si usted es una persona que busca aventura y un nuevo comienzo en la vida, entonces no busque más. Tenemos el lugar perfecto para usted - ¡Texas!’ Tal vez debería añadir una frase. La gente se trasladó aquí para conseguir tierra y tener más libertad así que tal vez podría decir: ‘Venga por la tierra. Quédese por la libertad’.”

Al decir estas palabras, escriba la posición argumentativa al lado del # 1 debajo de “Posiciones argumentativas” en el organizador gráfico escrito en la hoja tamaño poster. Pida a los estudiantes que escriban la posición argumentativa en sus copias del organizador gráfico.

Organizador gráfico

Escribiendo posiciones argumentativas

Escritura compartida y guiada

“Ahora, vamos a intentar escribir una posición argumentativa que esté en contra del traslado a Texas. ¿Cuáles son algunas de las razones por las que la gente no querría o no debería mudarse a Texas? Hablen con su pareja sobre las ideas que hemos aprendido en nuestras lecturas.”

Dé a los estudiantes un minuto para discutir sus ideas. Luego, pídeles que hagan una lista de ideas por las que la gente no debería mudarse a Texas. Escoja algunas de estas ideas de la lista y, junto con los estudiantes, formule una posición argumentativa.

Escritura independiente

Los estudiantes trabajarán en parejas o individualmente para crear posiciones argumentativas a favor o en contra de diferentes argumentos a medida que practiquen cómo formular posiciones argumentativas durante todo el año escolar.

Reflexión

Guíe la auto-reflexión al hacer preguntas como las siguientes:

“¿Qué aprendiste con esta actividad sobre cómo formular una posición argumentativa?
¿Cómo crees que la actividad te ayudará a escribir ensayos persuasivos efectivos?”

Pasos opcionales: Escriba y reflexione de nuevo

Cuando los estudiantes estén listos, pídales que escojan una posición argumentativa y escriban un ensayo persuasivo con evidencia y detalles. Asegúrese de demostrar los pasos necesarios y proporcionar suficiente práctica guiada en este proceso antes de que los estudiantes lo hagan independientemente.

Escribiendo posiciones argumentativas

Historia de Texas		
Tema	Posiciones argumentativas	
Traslado a Texas	1.	2.
Independencia de Texas	1.	2.
Texas se convierte en un estado	1.	2.

Ciencias		
Tema	Posiciones argumentativas	
Reciclar	1.	2.
Civilización vs. ecosistemas	1.	2.
Especies en peligro de extinción	1.	2.

Matemáticas		
Tema	Posiciones argumentativas	
Matemáticas son importantes	1.	2.
Suma vs. multiplicación	1.	2.
Fracciones vs. decimales	1.	2.

Lección 2: Analizando la estructura de un texto persuasivo

Materiales

- Copias de “Reciclaje y conservación: ¿Por qué reciclar?” de ReadWorks.org (página 16 en este folleto)
- Póster con las estructuras de texto que ha discutido con los estudiantes (Si aún no ha discutido la estructura de pregunta-respuesta, agréguela al póster durante esta lección.)
- Hoja de papel tamaño póster con el párrafo inicial del texto
- Hoja de papel tamaño póster para escribir su propio párrafo inicial
- Marcadores
- Libretas para la escritura

Objetivo

Una manera de mejorar nuestros escritos es examinar las estructuras de texto que utilizan los escritores expertos cuando escriben textos persuasivos. En esta lección, estudiaremos un tipo de estructura de texto que puede usarse para organizar un ensayo persuasivo: estructura pregunta-respuesta.

Demostrar utilizando un texto

“Tengo un ensayo persuasivo relacionado con lo que hemos estado discutiendo en la clase de ciencias: el medio ambiente.”

Ponga una copia de “Reciclaje y conservación: ¿Por qué reciclar?” en la cámara de documentos. Lea todo el ensayo en voz alta.

Luego, dígle a los estudiantes que leerá en voz alta el párrafo inicial de nuevo. Esta vez, los estudiantes deben escuchar la posición argumentativa del escritor. ¿De qué nos quiere convencer? (Lecciones sobre posiciones argumentativas y textos persuasivos deben enseñarse antes de esta lección.)

Vuelva a leer el primer párrafo.

“¿Cuál es la posición argumentativa de este escritor? Podemos identificarla desde este primer párrafo.”

Haga que los estudiantes discutan la posición argumentativa del escritor en parejas. Después, discuta las respuestas con el grupo entero.

“Este escritor es muy listo. Utilizó una estructura de texto específica que podemos usar en nuestros textos para presentar una posición argumentativa.”

Muestre el primer párrafo del texto en hoja de papel tamaño póster.

El reciclaje puede llevar mucho tiempo y ser sucio. Por ejemplo, los objetos reciclables tienen que ser separados de la basura. Luego, los objetos tienen que ser limpiados. Posteriormente, los objetos se convierten en materiales que pueden ser utilizados por personas y empresas. ¿Por qué la gente debe molestarse en reciclar aunque requiera tanto trabajo?

Relea las primeras cuatro oraciones y luego las resalta como se muestra arriba.

“¿Qué está haciendo el escritor en estas primeras cuatro oraciones?”

Pida a los estudiantes que discutan en parejas. Pida a algunos estudiantes que compartan sus ideas.

“Esta es una manera interesante de comenzar este ensayo persuasivo. Estas primeras cuatro frases hacen parecer que él va a argumentar en contra del reciclaje. Él está enumerando las razones por las cuáles algunas personas piensan que el reciclaje NO es una buena idea - es un trabajo laborioso y sucio. Pero entonces, en la última oración, hace una pregunta que nos hace darnos cuenta de que en realidad va a hacer lo contrario. Nos va a decir por qué debemos reciclar a pesar de los inconvenientes que describió.”

Cuando usted diga *debe* y *aunque*, subrayé esas palabras.

“Las palabras *debe* y *aunque* señalan un cambio en lo que vendrá después. El escritor hace una pregunta que él va a contestar en el ensayo. Esto se llama una estructura de pregunta-respuesta, y se utiliza a menudo en los textos persuasivos.”

Agregue pregunta-respuesta a su póster de estructuras de texto si no está ya incluida.

Demostración

“Podemos usar la estructura pregunta-respuesta para planear y escribir nuestros propios ensayos persuasivos. Por ejemplo, hemos estado discutiendo por qué es importante aprender la multiplicación a pesar de que ya sabemos cómo sumar números. Podríamos escribir una posición argumentativa siguiendo el mismo patrón que el escritor del ensayo sobre reciclaje utilizó.”

Muestre el organizador gráfico “Estructura pregunta-respuesta” (presentado más adelante) y complételo escribiendo sus razones en contra de aprender a multiplicar al igual que su pregunta y las respuestas para el ensayo. Para imitar el proceso que siguió el escritor de la pieza sobre el reciclaje, primero tenemos que encontrar las razones en contra y luego la pregunta y las respuestas o razones a favor.

Pósters

- Póster con las diferentes estructuras de texto
- Organizador gráfico “Estructura pregunta-respuesta”

Escritura compartida/guiada

“Puedo usar mi organizador gráfico para la estructura pregunta-respuesta para escribir un párrafo inicial como en el ensayo persuasivo de reciclaje. Aquí está mi primer borrador.”

Escriba lo siguiente en hoja de papel tamaño póster.

La multiplicación puede ser difícil de aprender. Si ya sabes cómo usar la suma para añadir números, es posible que no quieras aprender una nueva forma de sumar números. Al principio, la multiplicación puede tomar mucho tiempo para dominar. ¿Por qué los estudiantes deben aprender a multiplicar aunque parezca más difícil de hacer que la suma?

Resalte las oraciones con razones en contra de aprender a multiplicar (las primeras tres oraciones). Luego, resalte la pregunta.

“¿Ven las palabras que señalan que realmente voy a apoyar el aprender a multiplicar? Volteen con su pareja y hablen sobre las palabras que señalan esto.”

Dé a los estudiantes 15–20 segundos para discutir. Haga que dos estudiantes se acerquen al párrafo y subrayen las palabras *deben* y *aunque*.

Escritura independiente

Después de trabajar junto con los estudiantes en su planificación y redacción del párrafo inicial, pida a cada estudiante o par de estudiantes que formulen una respuesta a la pregunta del párrafo inicial. Mientras trabajan, asegúrese de hacer conferencias ambulantes con los estudiantes.

Después, trabajando junto con los estudiantes, haga una lista de respuestas para saber por qué deben aprender a multiplicar. Luego, deje que los estudiantes vuelvan a trabajar individualmente o en parejas para escoger sus respuestas favoritas y escribirlas en sus organizadores gráficos de preguntas y respuestas.

Reflexión

Guíe la auto-reflexión al hacer preguntas como las siguientes:

“¿Qué aprendieron sobre las estructuras de textos con esta actividad? ¿Cómo funciona la estructura pregunta-respuesta para escribir un ensayo persuasivo?”

Pasos opcionales: Escribir y reflexionar de nuevo

Demuestre cómo planear y redactar el cuerpo del ensayo, imitando la estructura de “Reciclaje y conservación: ¿Por qué reciclar?” Pida a los estudiantes que le ayuden a utilizar esta planeación para escribir más de su ensayo. Luego, haga que los estudiantes practiquen el mismo proceso para planear y redactar su propia escritura.

Siga el mismo procedimiento para trabajar en la creación de un cierre para el ensayo.

Reciclaje y conservación: ¿Por qué reciclar?

El reciclaje puede llevar mucho tiempo y ser sucio. Por ejemplo, los objetos reciclables tienen que ser separados de la basura. Luego, los objetos tienen que ser limpiados. Posteriormente, los objetos se convierten en materiales que pueden ser utilizados por personas y empresas. ¿Por qué la gente debe molestarse en reciclar aunque requiere tanto trabajo?

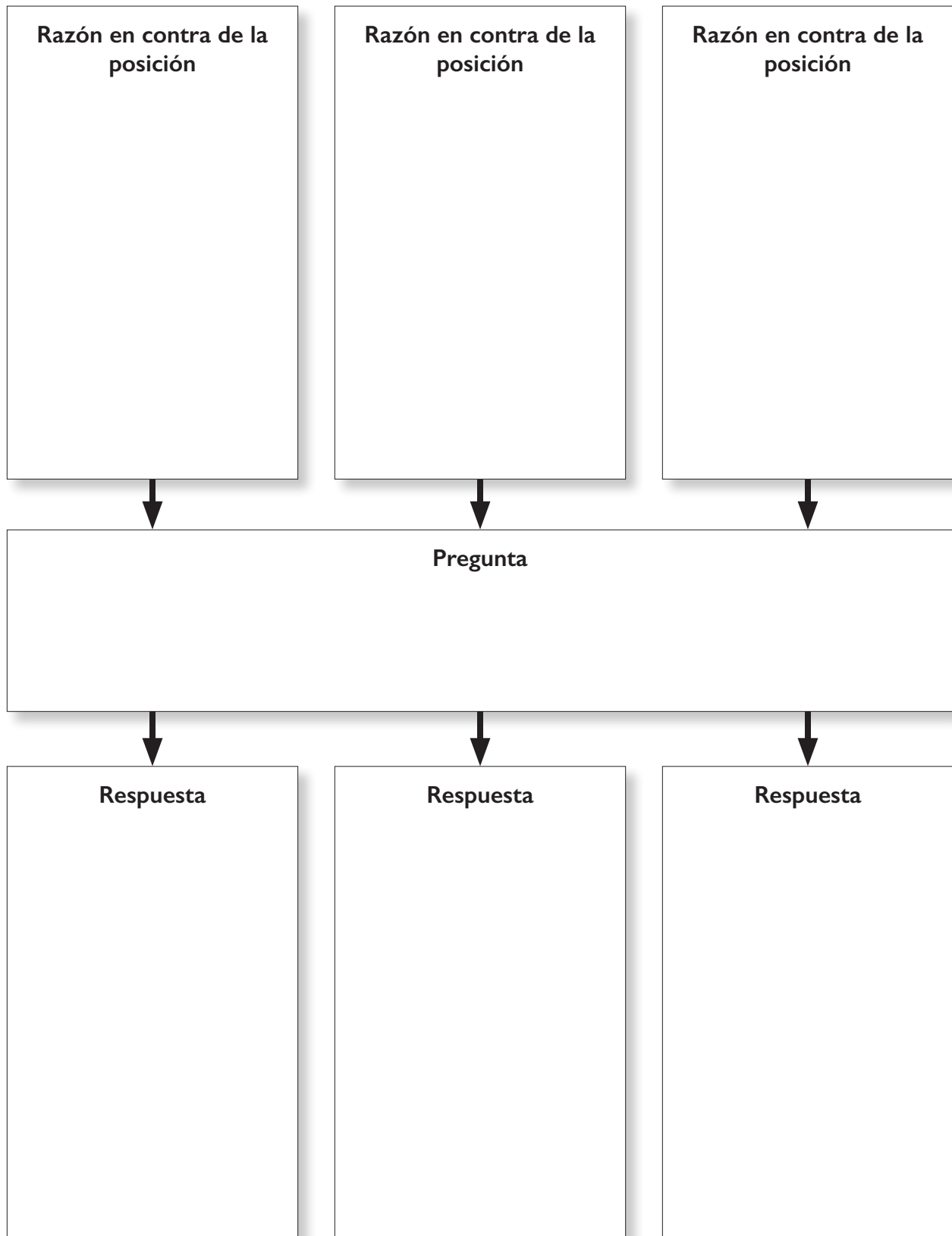
El reciclaje ayuda a proteger la Tierra. Reciclar significa menos basura en vertederos o basureros. Estos son lugares donde se entierra la basura que llega de muchas partes de la ciudad. El reciclaje también ayuda a conservar los recursos de la Tierra. Por ejemplo, las fábricas usan menos energía reciclando latas de acero que haciendo nuevas. El reciclaje de papel evita el cortar los árboles ya que los árboles se utilizan para hacer papel.

Cada vez que usted está a punto de tirar una botella de plástico a la basura, deténgase y piense. ¿Vale la pena dañar la Tierra? Sus acciones ahora pueden ayudar a preservar el ambiente para las generaciones venideras. Todo lo que tienes que hacer es tirar esa botella en un contenedor para reciclaje.

Desarrolle el hábito. Sea orgulloso de reciclar. Anime a otros a reciclar. ¡Tú puedes hacer cambiar al mundo!

Adapted and translated from ReadWorks, 2012.

Estructura pregunta-respuesta



Adapted from Florida Center for Reading Research, 2007.

Think Sheets

Writing organizers, or “think sheets,” provide scaffolding for students’ writing.

Writing organizers can help students initially when writing first drafts.

Students watch teachers model the organizers and then use them as they write with a partner, in small groups, or independently.

Graphic organizers help scaffold students’ efforts, especially students with reading and writing difficulties and English language learners.

Think sheets often correspond to different stages of the writing process, such as prewriting and drafting.

Planning Think Sheet

Possible Topics

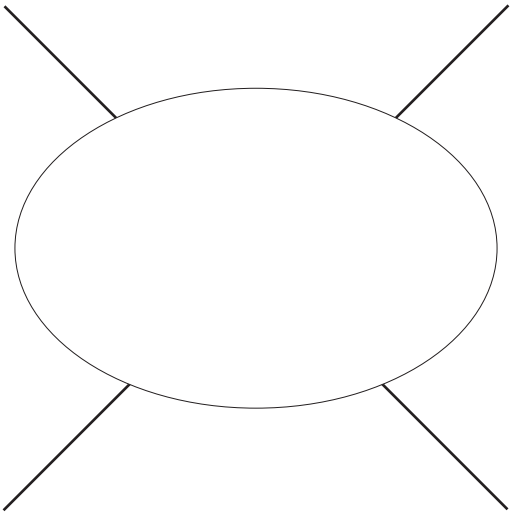
_____	_____
_____	_____

Circle your choice.

What do I know about the topic? Brainstorm ideas.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Drafting Think Sheet



- 1. _____

- 2. _____

- 3. _____

- 4. _____

Narrative Think Sheet

Title: _____

BEGINNING (What is the setting? Who are the characters?)

MIDDLE (Action: What is the problem?)

ENDING (How was the problem solved?)

Important Information Think Sheet

WHO

WHAT

WHEN

WHERE

WHY

HOW

Sequence Think Sheet

Topic

Sentence Describing Topic

First,

Next,

Then,

Finally,

Story Innovation Think Sheet

Using short poems and pattern books can be an excellent way to scaffold writing, especially for those who struggle to think of topics.

Story innovations can be an effective way to motivate students to write and help students to see themselves as writers.

Procedures

Select a favorite pattern book and model rewriting with the whole class.

Select the part of the text that you will change. For example, you might change the characters, the setting, what the characters do, or a combination.

Example

Story

The cat likes to lie on the rug.

The cat likes to drink milk.

The cat likes to sit in the sun.

The cat likes to jump on me.

Innovation

The dog likes to lie on the bed.

The dog likes to drink water.

The dog likes to sit in the car.

The dog likes to jump on my baby brother.

Adapted from Englert, 1990.

Diferentes tipos de organizadores gráficos para escribir

Los organizadores gráficos para escribir ofrecen apoyo estratégico a los estudiantes para escribir y desarrollar sus ideas.

Los organizadores gráficos para escribir ayudan a los estudiantes a escribir sus primeros borradores.

Los estudiantes observan a la maestra(o) utilizar los organizadores gráficos y después ellos utilizan el mismo organizador que demostró la maestra(o) al escribir con un compañero, en grupos pequeños o independientemente.

Los organizadores gráficos ofrecen apoyo estratégico y específico a los estudiantes con problemas de lectura y escritura y a los estudiantes que aprenden inglés como segunda lengua.

Los organizadores gráficos para escribir, generalmente corresponden a las diferentes etapas del proceso de escritura tales como Planeando la Escritura y Escribiendo un Borrador.

Para pensar y planear

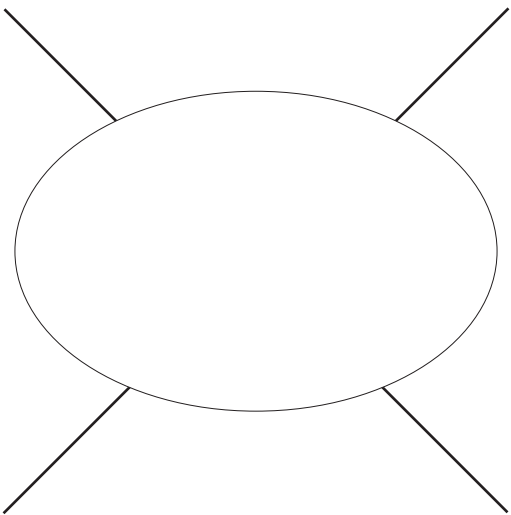
Posibles temas

Encierra en un círculo tu elección.

Pregúntate: “¿Qué sé sobre el tema?” Escribe tus ideas.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Elaboración de ideas



- 1. _____

- 2. _____

- 3. _____

- 4. _____

Planeando un texto narrativo

Título: _____

PRINCIPIO (¿Cuál es el escenario? ¿Quiénes son los personajes?)

INTERMEDIO (La acción: ¿Cuál es el problema?)

FINAL (¿Cómo se resolvió el problema?)

Organizador de ideas

QUIÉN

QUÉ

CUÁNDO

DÓNDE

POR QUÉ

CÓMO

Organizador de ideas

El tema

Una oración que describe el tema

Primero,

Luego,

Después

Al final,

Innovando una historia

Poemas cortos o libros con estructuras repetidas pueden ser una gran ayuda para facilitar el proceso de escritura para los estudiantes a los que se les dificulta pensar en temas para escribir.

Este proceso puede ser muy efectivo para motivar los estudiantes a escribir y ayudarles a verse como escritores exitosos.

Procedimiento

Seleccione un libro con estructura repetida y muéstrole a los estudiantes como reescribir o modificar la historia.

Seleccione la parte del libro que va a ser modificada. Por ejemplo, se pueden cambiar los personajes, el escenario, o lo que los personajes hacen o una combinación de estos elementos.

Ejemplo

Historia

A mi gato le gusta acostarse en la alfombra.

A mi gato le gusta beber leche.

A mi gato le gusta sentarse al sol.

A mi gato le gusta brincar sobre mí.

Innovación

A mi perro le gusta acostarse en mi cama.

A mi perro le gusta beber agua.

A mi perro le gusta sentarse adentro del carro.

A mi perro le gusta brincar sobre mi hermanito.

Adapted from Englert, 1990.

Systematic Instruction: Writing Checklist

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

Category	Instructional Methods and Strategies (Check All Observed)		Observed Time(s)	Comments
Grouping Formats	<input type="checkbox"/> Whole group <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher-led small groups <input type="checkbox"/> Independent work	<input type="checkbox"/> Mixed-ability small groups (e.g., workstations) <input type="checkbox"/> Partners		
Explicit Instruction Components	<input type="checkbox"/> Identifies objective <input type="checkbox"/> Activates background knowledge <input type="checkbox"/> Models (e.g., thinks aloud) <input type="checkbox"/> Uses consistent language <input type="checkbox"/> Scaffolds when needed <input type="checkbox"/> Uses examples and nonexamples (as appropriate)	<input type="checkbox"/> Paces instruction appropriately <input type="checkbox"/> Provides guided practice <input type="checkbox"/> Checks for understanding <input type="checkbox"/> Provides multiple response opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides extended practice opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Provides immediate feedback (corrective when needed)		
Writing Activities and Lessons	<input type="checkbox"/> Writing-to-learn activity <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching or practicing of handwriting <input type="checkbox"/> Participating in sentence activities <input type="checkbox"/> Read-aloud of model text focused on writing <input type="checkbox"/> Modeling of writing element or strategy <input type="checkbox"/> Guided or collaborative practice with writing element or strategy	<input type="checkbox"/> Teaching or practicing of prewriting or planning <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching or practicing of drafting <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching or practicing of revising <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching or practicing of editing <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching or practicing of writing for specific a purpose or audience <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching or practicing of writing in a specific genre <input type="checkbox"/> Peer or teacher conferencing		
Materials Used	<input type="checkbox"/> Handwriting scaffold <input type="checkbox"/> Think-aloud or write-aloud <input type="checkbox"/> Graphic organizer or think sheet <input type="checkbox"/> Revising checklist <input type="checkbox"/> Editing checklist <input type="checkbox"/> Model text	<input type="checkbox"/> Anchor chart <input type="checkbox"/> Writer's notebook <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborative book <input type="checkbox"/> Technology tool <input type="checkbox"/> Other material:		

Instrucción sistemática de escritura: Lista de control

Docente: _____ Observador: _____ Materia: _____ Fecha: _____

Categoría	Estrategias y métodos de instrucción (marque todos los observados)		Cantidad de tiempo observado	Comentarios
Formatos de grupo	<input type="checkbox"/> Grupo entero <input type="checkbox"/> Grupos pequeños guiados por la maestra <input type="checkbox"/> Trabajo independiente	<input type="checkbox"/> Grupos pequeños de habilidades mixtas (por ej., centros) <input type="checkbox"/> Trabajo en parejas		
Elementos de instrucción explícita	<input type="checkbox"/> Se identifica el objetivo <input type="checkbox"/> Se activa el conocimiento previo y de fondo <input type="checkbox"/> Se demuestra a través de modelos (Por ej., pensando en voz alta) <input type="checkbox"/> Se utiliza un lenguaje consistente <input type="checkbox"/> Se apoya específicamente a los estudiantes cuando se necesita <input type="checkbox"/> Se utiliza ejemplos y no-ejemplos apropiadamente	<input type="checkbox"/> El ritmo de la lección es apropiado <input type="checkbox"/> Proporciona práctica guiada. <input type="checkbox"/> Se monitorea el entendimiento <input type="checkbox"/> Se proporcionan múltiples oportunidades para responder <input type="checkbox"/> Se proporcionan oportunidades para practicar más a fondo. <input type="checkbox"/> Se proporciona retroalimentación inmediata y se corrige cuando es necesario.		
Actividades/ lecciones de escritura	<input type="checkbox"/> Actividad de escribir para leer. <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñanza y práctica de la caligrafía <input type="checkbox"/> Se lee un libro para niños que se enfoca al desarrollo de la escritura <input type="checkbox"/> Se demuestra la estrategia o el elemento de escritura <input type="checkbox"/> Práctica guiada y colaborativa de la estrategia o elemento de escritura	<input type="checkbox"/> Enseñanza/práctica de la planeación para la lectura <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñanza y práctica para escribir un borrador <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñanza y práctica para revisar textos <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñanza y práctica para editar <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñanza y práctica para escribir textos para audiencias específicas <input type="checkbox"/> Enseñanza y práctica de un género específico <input type="checkbox"/> Conferencias con compañeros o maestra		
Materiales utilizados	<input type="checkbox"/> Apoyo a la caligrafía <input type="checkbox"/> Actividades de pensar en voz alta <input type="checkbox"/> Organizadores gráficos y hojas para planear <input type="checkbox"/> Lista de control para revisar <input type="checkbox"/> Lista de control para editar <input type="checkbox"/> Textos para demostrar	<input type="checkbox"/> Posters con información <input type="checkbox"/> Libreta del escritor <input type="checkbox"/> Libro para colaborar <input type="checkbox"/> Herramienta de tecnología <input type="checkbox"/> Otro material		

Writing Instruction Considerations for English Language Learners

Language development significantly affects the writing of English language learners (ELLs). By providing linguistically accommodated instruction that matches students' current level of English proficiency, ELLs can develop English writing skills as they develop oral English skills. Help ELLs in this process in the following ways.

Consider ELLs' English language development to tailor writing instruction.

Some ELLs might have been exposed to instruction mostly focused on developing oral communication skills and not academic writing. Also, consider writing skills in their native language. Many of these skills can be transferred to English writing skills. For example, if students can write a complete paragraph with correct punctuation in their native language, they might be able to use this knowledge to write a paragraph in English with the right scaffolding and linguistic accommodations.

Create a safe environment and sense of community where ELLs can take risks when writing.

ELLs should feel safe when trying their new language in writing and should feel that their writing risks are supported. When pairing students to write, edit, or give feedback, ELLs at the early stages of English development can benefit from shared writing experiences in which they can work with other ELLs with similar skills and write in English or their native language. More advanced ELLs can work with native English speakers to discuss appropriate vocabulary and linguistic structures to use in their writing.

Provide explicit instruction on how to write different genres and numerous model texts, especially when dealing with content area texts.

ELLs need to see how scientists, mathematicians, historians, journalists, and literary authors write. When using examples of these texts, explicitly point out the different characteristics of each genre. ELLs need substantial scaffolding and explicit instruction when developing their language and writing skills at the same time as they learn content knowledge.

Focus on the unique conventions of writing and spelling in English.

Make visible the thinking tools that experienced writers use when writing in English. Use anchor charts to illustrate English print conventions and, when possible, compare and contrast native language and English conventions. Fill your classroom with charts, posters, books, and labels that ELLs can use as a reference.

Ensure that ELLs have authentic and meaningful opportunities to engage in writing activities.

Language support is essential and can be provided by peers, mentors, or technology.

Adapted from Au, 2000; Brisk & Harrington, 2000; Carrillo, 1994; de Oliveira & Lan, 2014; Farnan, Flood, & Lapp, 1994; Foulger & Jimenez-Silva, 2007; Hudelson, 1994; Hurley & Tinajero, 2001; Kame'enui & Carnine, 1998; Lee et al., 2009; Olson & Land, 2007; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; Pérez, 1998; Samway, 2006; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998.

Assessing the Growth of Student Writers

Read a collection of a student's work and consider the following.

1. What does the writing reveal about the student's knowledge of the English language in the following areas?
 - Relationships among phonology, orthography, and morphology
 - Vocabulary and parts of speech
 - Phrases, clauses, and their relationships in sentences
 - How to use language effectively for various audiences and purposes
2. What risks does this student take as a writer?
 - Does the student take risks with spelling and vocabulary, or is the student's writing limited to basic words that inhibit specific and precise word choice?
 - Does the student add or take away parts to fit the needs of the text, or does the paper determine the length of the writing?
3. What patterns emerge as you read through the writer's work?
 - Is there repetition of topics and purposes?
 - Does the student apply a formula over and over again?
 - Is there a recurring theme?
4. What changes occurred over time? When arranged chronologically, are there changes in the following?
 - Sentence structure
 - Quality of text
 - Length of text
 - Organization
 - Spelling
 - Idea development
5. Does the student have a clear strength as a writer (e.g., knowledge of conventions, unique understanding of audience, use of the writing process)?
6. Based on your observations, what is this writer ready to learn next?
 - What instruction might benefit the writer today?
 - What experiences or situations might be fruitful for future growth?

Use response guides, checklists, rubrics, and anecdotal notes to assess student writing.

See Handouts 10 and 11 for revision and editing checklist examples. See pages 3 to 14 of this handout for examples of response guides and rubrics.

Conference with students regularly.

- Meet with a few students each day.
- Keep conferences short (e.g., two to three minutes).
- Establish a comfortable environment for sharing.
- Make eye contact with the writer.
- Have the student read his or her writing aloud.
- Be a good listener and show genuine interest in each student's writing.
- Ask questions to clarify and extend the writing.
- Provide plenty of support and encouragement.
- Emphasize strategies and skills the student is ready to use.

Response Guide

Title: _____

Author or Speaker: _____

Praise and Encouragement

Questions

Suggestions for Improvement

Signed

Partner Response Sheet

Author: _____

Partner: _____

1. What do you like most about this writing?

2. What suggestions do you have for the author?

Writing Rubric

Name: _____ Date: _____

Assignment: _____

Excellent☐☐☐☐**Good**☐☐☐☐**Satisfactory**☐☐☐☐**Unsatisfactory**☐☐☐☐**Comments:**

Rubric: Writing's Organization

Rating	Beginning, Middle, End	Details	Order
I'm there.	I have a clear beginning, middle, and ending.	I've put details in the right places.	I've put ideas in order effectively.
I'm working on it.	I've made a good attempt at a beginning, middle, and ending.	I've put some details in the right places.	I've put ideas in an order that makes sense.
I'm just figuring it out.	My writing doesn't have a clear beginning, middle, or ending.	My details are confusing.	I haven't ordered my ideas in a way that makes sense.

Rubric: Handwriting and Conventions

Rating	Handwriting	Spelling	Capital Letters	Punctuation
I'm there.	My handwriting is neat and legible.	I spelled all or almost all of my words correctly.	All or almost all of my capital letters are in the right places.	All or almost all of my punctuation is correct.
I'm working on it.	My handwriting is legible with just a few problems.	I spelled most of my words correctly.	I used capital letters correctly in most places.	I have correct punctuation in some places but not in others.
I'm just figuring it out.	My words are hard to read because of my handwriting.	My spelling makes it hard to read the words.	Most of my capital letters don't follow the rules.	I haven't used much correct punctuation at all.

General Writing Rubric

Name: _____ Date: _____

Criteria	Beginning 1	Developing 2	Accomplished 3	Exemplary 4	Score
Topic	Key words near beginning	Main idea or topic in first sentence	Good main idea or topic sentence	Interesting, well-stated main idea or topic sentence	
Words	Related words or ideas mentioned	Some key words or related ideas included as details with meaning	Key related words and ideas used as details with meaning	Key related words and ideas used correctly and defined for reader; interesting word choice	
Order	Ideas not ordered	Some order of main idea and details	Main idea and details somewhat sequential	Good flow of ideas from topic sentence to details	
Sentences	Sentence fragments	Mostly complete sentences	Complete sentences	Complete, varied sentences	
Punctuation	Some punctuation	Most sentences have punctuation	Correct punctuation	Correct, varied punctuation	
Capitalization	Not distinguished	Uses uppercase and lowercase	Begins sentences with uppercase	Correct case in all uses	
Spelling	Many spelling errors	Some spelling errors	Few spelling errors	Very few, if any, spelling errors	
Handwriting	Hard to read; not well formed	Mostly legible	Well-formed letters	Neat, easy to read, well formed	

Expository Writing Rubric

Based on Fourth Grade STAAR Rubric

Name: _____ Date: _____

Criteria	Beginning 1	Developing 2	Accomplished 3	Exemplary 4	Score
Thesis	Missing, unclear, or illogical thesis	Weak or unclear thesis	Clear thesis	Thoughtful and engaging thesis	
Organization	Failure to maintain focus on thesis Repetition or wordiness	Some irrelevant information Some repetition or wordiness	Coherent essay with minor lapses in focus Logical and controlled sentence flow and connections	Sustained focus that unifies entire essay Strong sentence-to-sentence connections that make train of thought easy to follow	
Ideas	Inappropriate, vague, or insufficient details or examples Weakly linked to prompt or not expository	Some details or examples inappropriate or only partially presented Little to no thoughtfulness—may be formulaic	Specific and appropriate details and examples Some thoughtfulness—original ideas	Specific and well-chosen details and examples Thoughtful and engaging—unique and interesting view	
Sentences	Simplistic or awkward	Awkward or only somewhat controlled	Varied and adequately controlled	Purposeful, varied, well controlled	
Punctuation	Many errors	Some errors	Few errors	Very few, if any, errors	
Capitalization	Many errors	Some errors	Few errors	Very few, if any, errors	
Spelling	Many errors	Some errors	Few errors	Very few, if any, errors	

Adapted from Bromley, 1998; Culham, 2006; Fletcher & Portalupi, 2001; Fry & Kress, 2006; Texas Education Agency, 2011; Tompkins, 1998.

Guía para responder

Título: _____

Autor/Hablante: _____

Elogios

Preguntas

Sugerencias para mejorar

Firma

Retroalimentación de compañero

Autór: _____

Compañero: _____

1. ¿Qué es lo que te gusta más de este texto?

2. ¿Qué sugerencias tienes para el autor?

Rúbrica para textos escritos

Nombre: _____ Fecha: _____

Tarea: _____

Excelente☐☐☐☐**Bueno**☐☐☐☐**Satisfactorio**☐☐☐☐**Insatisfactorio**☐☐☐☐**Comentarios:**

Rúbrica para la organización del texto

Clasificación	Principio, medio, final	Detalles	Orden
Lo logré.	Tengo un principio, medio, y final claro en mi texto.	Escribí detalles en los lugares correctos.	Escribí las ideas con un orden apropiado.
Estoy trabajando en eso.	Intenté escribir un principio, medio, y final claro en mi texto.	Escribí algunos detalles en los lugares correctos.	Escribí las ideas con cierto orden apropiado.
Estoy empezando a entender.	Mi texto todavía no tiene un principio, medio, y final claro.	Mis detalles están confusos.	No he ordenado mis ideas de una manera que tenga sentido.

Rúbrica para caligrafía y convenciones del lenguaje

Clasificación	Caligrafía	Ortografía	Mayúsculas	Puntuación
Lo logré.	Mi caligrafía está bien hecha y es fácil de leer.	Todas o casi todas las palabras tienen ortografía correcta.	Todas o casi todas las mayúsculas están en los lugares correctos.	Todos o casi todos los signos de puntuación están correctamente utilizados.
Estoy trabajando en eso.	Mi caligrafía es fácil de leer pero hay algunos problemas.	La mayoría de las palabras tienen ortografía correcta.	La mayoría de las mayúsculas están en los lugares correctos.	Algunos signos de puntuación están correctamente utilizados.
Estoy empezando a entender	Mis palabras no se pueden leer fácilmente porque mi caligrafía no es clara.	Muchas palabras tienen faltas de ortografía.	Las mayúsculas no están en los lugares correctos.	Los signos de puntuación no están correctamente utilizados.

Rúbrica para textos escritos

Nombre: _____ Fecha: _____

Criterios	Principiante 1	En desarrollo 2	Bien logrado 3	Ejemplar 4	Pun- tuación
Tema	Palabras clave cerca del principio del texto	Idea principal o tema en la primera oración	Buena idea principal en la oración de inicio	Idea principal interesante y bien expresada al inicio	
Palabras	Palabras o ideas relacionadas al tema son mencionadas	Algunas palabras o ideas relacionadas con el tema están incluidas como detalles con significado	Palabras o ideas relacionadas con el tema son incluidas como detalles con significado	Palabras o ideas relacionadas con el tema son usadas correctamente y definidas para el lector; interesante elección de palabras	
Orden	Ideas no están en orden	Existe cierto orden en las ideas y detalles incluidos	La idea principal y los detalles están secuenciados correctamente	Las ideas fluyen efectivamente de la oración de inicio a los detalles	
Oraciones	Oraciones fragmentadas	La mayoría son oraciones completas	Oraciones completas	Oraciones completas y variadas	
Puntuación	Algunos signos de puntuación	La mayoría de las oraciones tienen signos de puntuación	Signos de puntuación correctamente utilizados	Signos de puntuación correctamente utilizados y variados	
Uso de mayúsculas	No hay uso de mayúsculas solo minúsculas	Uso de mayúsculas y minúsculas	Las oraciones empiezan con mayúsculas	La mayúsculas se utilizan correctamente siempre	
Ortografía	Muchos errores de ortografía	Algunos errores de ortografía	Pocos errores de ortografía	Muy pocos errores de ortografía	
Caligrafía	Caligrafía no bien formada; no es legible	Legible en algunas partes	Las letras están bien formadas	Limpio, legible y letras bien formadas	

Rúbrica para textos expositivos

Basada en la rúbrica para cuarto grado de STAAR

Nombre: _____ Fecha: _____

Criterios	Principiante 1	En desarrollo 2	Bien logrado 3	Ejemplar 4	Pun- tuación
Tesis	No hay tesis o no es lógica y no está claramente expresada	Tesis es débil o no está claramente expresada.	Tesis está claramente expresada	Tesis está bien presentada, es lógica y captura la atención del lector	
Organización	No se mantiene el enfoque en la tesis del escrito Hay mucha repetición y uso de palabras sin propósito claro	Hay información relevante a la tesis del escrito Hay cierta repetición y uso de palabras sin propósito claro	Ensayo coherente con pocos problemas de enfoque en la tesis Las oraciones fluyen de manera lógica y utilizando enlaces correctos	Un enfoque claro se percibe por todo el ensayo El texto está correctamente organizado utilizando enlaces correctos	
Ideas	Detalles y ejemplos son vagos, inapropiados, o insuficientes Las ideas son débiles y no están relacionadas con el tema	Algunos detalles y ejemplos son inapropiados y no están bien desarrollados Las ideas no muestran pensamiento original	Detalles y ejemplos son apropiados y específicos Las ideas muestran cierta originalidad	Detalles y ejemplos son específicos y bien seleccionados Las ideas están bien pensadas y son únicas y presentan un interesante punto de vista	
Oraciones	Oraciones simples o no bien desarrolladas	Oraciones no bien desarrolladas	Oraciones variadas y desarrolladas adecuadamente	Oraciones variadas, con un objetivo claro y desarrolladas adecuadamente	
Puntuación	Muchos errores	Algunos errores	Pocos errores	Muy pocos errores	
Uso de Mayúsculas	Muchos errores	Algunos errores	Pocos errores	Muy pocos errores	
Ortografía	Muchos errores	Algunos errores	Pocos errores	Muy pocos errores	

Adapted from Bromley, 1998; Culham, 2006; Fletcher & Portalupi, 2001; Fry & Kress, 2006; Texas Education Agency, 2011; Tompkins, 1998.

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Children's Literature

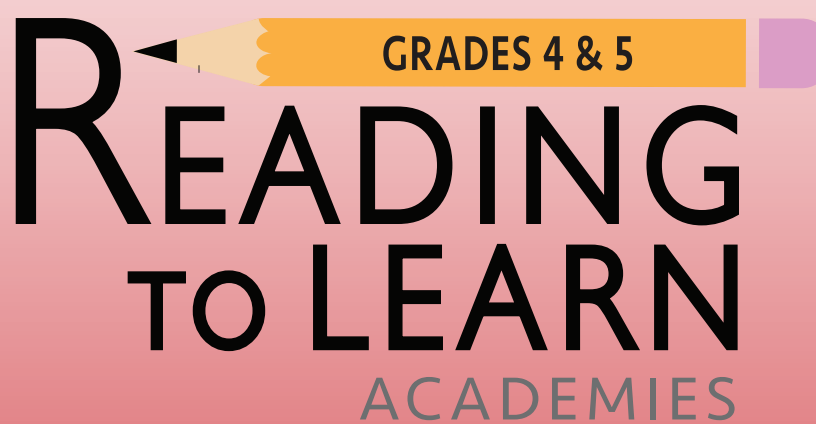
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Writing

Presenter Resources



GRADE 4

Writing TEKS and Research-Based Recommendations

Use your English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment chart to answer the questions.

Allocating Daily Time

About what percentage of the grade 4 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS address the components of effective writing instruction (e.g., writing process, handwriting, conventions, spelling)?

(a) 20 percent to 30 percent

(c) 40 percent to 50 percent

(b) 30 percent to 40 percent

(d) 50 percent to 60 percent

What does your answer tell you about the time you should spend on teaching and having students practice writing as compared to teaching and having students practice reading?

You should spend as much time teaching and having students practice writing as you do teaching and having students practice reading.

Teaching the Writing Process

Which steps of the writing process are students expected to learn about and practice in grade 4?

Planning, drafting, revising, editing, publishing

Writing for a Variety of Purposes

What types of writing are students expected to learn about and practice in grades 3–6?

Stories, poems, personal narratives, expository compositions, letters, literary responses, persuasive essays, research displays or explanations

Teaching Handwriting, Spelling, Sentence Construction, Typing, and Word Processing

In relation to handwriting, what should students be able to do by the end of fourth grade?

Write legibly by selecting cursive or manuscript printing as appropriate

How many spelling expectations are in fourth grade?

Four

What sentence types should students master by the end of fourth grade?

Simple and compound sentences

Creating a Community of Writers

How often do the TEKS mention writing for an audience or reader? Highlight all uses of the words *audience* and *reader* across grades 3–6. In relation to which areas are these words mentioned?

Eleven times: planning, revising, publishing, expository writing, letter writing, persuasive writing

Adapted from Graham et al., 2012.

Video: Peer Conferencing and Editing

Revising Feedback Observed	Editing Elements Mentioned
<p>Add sentences or words.</p> <p>Remove unneeded words or sentences.</p> <p>Move or change a sentence or word.</p> <p>Substitute or trade words or sentences.</p> <p>Organization and progression of ideas</p> <p>Do you have a central idea?</p> <p>Do you have paragraphs?</p> <p>Does your writing have structure?</p> <p>Did you go off topic?</p> <p>Development of ideas</p> <p>Did you back up your central idea or main ideas with details?</p> <p>Did you prove what you're trying to say?</p> <p>Did you give examples?</p> <p>It was a little confusing at first.</p> <p>So that was unclear to the reader. Make sure that as a writer, you're very clear.</p> <p>Make it a little longer. Add more details.</p>	<p>Capitalization</p> <p>Usage: Match nouns and verbs correctly.</p> <p>Punctuation</p> <p>Spelling</p> <p>You messed up on capitalization right here at the beginning of the sentence. You're supposed to capitalize it.</p> <p>You did match your nouns and verbs correctly.</p> <p>I'm checking your punctuation right now. So far, you've done most of them correctly.</p> <p>But, right here, on question marks... That is a question, so that one's good.</p> <p>On spelling, you messed up on "paradise."</p> <p>You need a period right here instead of the comma.</p>

Grade 4 Literacy Block

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Word study and recognition (30–45 minutes)			
Fluency (10–15 minutes)			

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners	
Vocabulary (10–15 minutes)			
Comprehension (25–30 minutes)			


Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Writing (20–30 minutes)			
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Teach and practice handwriting skills• Use writing-to-learn strategies in math, science, and social studies• Use texts to model specific writing elements• Participate in guided/shared writing activities• Model and have students practice steps in the writing process• Focus on prewriting, planning, and revising• Conduct writing conferences to provide students with immediate, corrective feedback• Participate in sentence activities, like model sentences and anagrams	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Participate in writing-to-learn activities• Work on developing a piece within the writing process• Peer revise or edit someone else’s work• Read writing aloud to a partner• Participate in sentence activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Work on handwriting fluency• Model strategies more explicitly• Provide more guided practice• Provide more immediate feedback• Directly address student motivation	Grouping format: Within the writing process, partner ELLs with fellow writers who will listen and be supportive, positive, and encouraging

Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy
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Writing

Activity Resources

 A yellow pencil with a black eraser and a pink eraser, positioned horizontally across the text.
READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4



Slide—Writing Across the Curriculum



Choose the top two activities that would enhance your content area instruction.

Write a one next to your first choice and a two next to your second choice.

Share your choices with your partner.



Slide—Teaching Revising



Review the handout.

Working with a partner, place a star next to the three instructional techniques that are most important to improving your students' revising abilities.

Discuss how you plan to implement these techniques in your literacy classroom.



Motivating and Engaging Students

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Document camera
- Clipboard with blank paper for recording participant responses to show on document camera
- Laser pointer
- Foam ball to toss during activity response

Materials to Provide Each Table

Guiding Questions document (two per table)



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Motivating and Engaging Students

Slide 1—Title Slide

(0:00–0:30)

Research supports the importance of considering student motivation and engagement when planning literacy instruction, especially for older readers and writers. Let's discuss these affective factors and instruction to support them.

References

Clinton, 2015; Froiland & Oros, 2014; Guthrie & Davis, 2003; Guthrie & Humenick, 2004; Kamil et al., 2008; Mucherah & Yoder, 2008; Retelsdorf, Koller, & Moller, 2011; Roberts, Torgesen, Boardman, & Scamacca, 2008; Unrau & Schlackman, 2006

Section Objectives



This section will enhance your knowledge of methods to develop students'

- autonomy,
- internalized motivation,
- beliefs and mindsets,
- competence, and
- self-regulation.



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:30–1:30)

Take a moment to review the objectives on the slide. These objectives should guide your learning for this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.

In your folder, find Handout 1: The Reading Rope from the Overview section.

Pause for participants to find the handout. Display your copy on the document camera.

We have learned how multiple strands form the basis of skilled reading and writing, which enables students to learn new information across content areas. We support students' ability to learn by increasing motivation through strong teacher-student relationships, autonomy, a sense of competence, and self-regulation.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

The Importance of Motivation

“Unless learners are seriously interested in learning, unless they want to learn and put some effort into doing so, there is almost no likelihood that significant learning will take place.”

— Graves, 2004, p. 447



Slide 3—The Importance of Motivation

(1:30–2:00)

As Graves states, no matter how knowledgeable the teacher, how explicit the strategy instruction, or how much time is spent practicing skills, if a student does not want to learn, real learning likely will not happen. In this section, we will focus on developing and supporting this “want to learn” in students.

Reference

Graves, 2004, p. 447

Examining Our Reading Motivation



How would you describe your emotional response to reading?

Does your response differ depending on the type of reading?



Slide 4—Examining Our Reading Motivation

(2:00–4:00)

Let's begin by examining our reading motivation.

Activity

Turn to a partner and discuss your responses to these two questions.

Provide one minute for participants to discuss the two questions.

Note to Presenter

For the following two paragraphs, use your own likes and dislikes. The script below is provided only as an example.

Some of us may be intrinsically motivated to read and to read often, especially when it comes to specific genres that we love. For example, I enjoy reading research. I read it every chance I have.

We may not be as intrinsically motivated to read other genres. For example, I do not enjoy reading poetry. I read it when I need to, but it is not something I do in my free time.

Some people do not enjoy reading at all. Such a lack of intrinsic motivation for reading may have multiple sources, such as previous struggles with reading, a lack of interest, or preference for other activities.

Your motivation for reading can influence students' motivation to read. This influence occurs through the relationships you create with students, the language you use when talking about reading, the types of reading activities you use, and the texts you have students read.

References

Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan, Stiller, & Lynch, 1994; Stipek & Seal, 2001

Examining Our Writing Motivation



How would you describe your emotional response to writing?

Does your response differ depending on the type of writing?



Slide 5—Examining Our Writing Motivation

(4:00–5:00)

Now we will reflect on our writing motivation.

Activity

Talk with your partner about these two questions.

Provide one minute for participants to discuss the two questions.

Some of us may find writing enjoyable and consider it a wonderful way to spend our free time, but many people do not look forward to writing—even writing e-mails or letters. Our own affective response to writing may influence our instruction, language, and expectations related to writing.

In fact, research shows that one roadblock to effective writing instruction is teachers' hesitancy to write and share their writing with students. Whether you enjoy writing or not, effective writing instruction requires you to be—or to become—a motivated writer.

Research over the past 40 years demonstrates the influence of different variables on student motivation. Throughout this session, we will connect the research to specific instructional practices and strategies to support readers' and writers' motivation. As we discuss these techniques, think about how you can incorporate them into your literacy classroom. The end goal is to help students create positive reading and writing identities.

References

Deci & Ryan, 2002; Froiland & Oros, 2014; Graham et al., 2012; Kaplan & Flum, 2009; McCaslin, 2009; Reed, Schallert, Beth, & Woodruff, 2004; Ryan et al., 1994; Stipek & Seal, 2001

Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic Motivation

Engaging in a task for the sake of the task

Extrinsic Motivation

Engaging in a task as a means to an end

These types of motivation are **not mutually exclusive**. For an activity, you can be high on both, low on both, high on one and low on the other, etc.



Slide 6—Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic Motivation

(5:00–7:30)

We have used the term *intrinsic motivation* a few times already. It refers to doing something simply for the sake of doing it. Often, these are things we do during our free time.

Pause after saying each of the following activities for participants to raise their hands.

Raise your hand if you are intrinsically motivated to do the following:

- Exercise at the gym
- Read a good novel
- Play a musical instrument
- Write in a daily journal

When you are **extrinsically** motivated to do an activity, you do it for reasons external to the activity itself. Maybe you will earn a reward for doing it, or maybe it is something that you feel is important to do.

Note to Presenter

For the following examples, use a pertinent activity of your own.

You can be both intrinsically **and** extrinsically motivated to engage in certain behaviors.

For example, I have high intrinsic motivation to play basketball. I love playing basketball. But I also have extrinsic motivations—basketball helps me stay in shape, helps me meet people, and allows me to play with a team. Playing basketball serves these purposes for me.

Each type of motivation for a task can range from high to low, and where you fall on this range may change from day to day, month to month, or year to year.

For example, when I play basketball, I find myself in a state of “flow,” where I am completely in the moment, and I love this feeling. My extrinsic motivation is not as high at this point. I do have fairly high extrinsic motivation for staying in shape, but my motivation related to meeting people and playing with a team is lower.

As you think about your motivation and your students’ motivation for different literacy activities, remember to consider both types of motivation.

References

Clinton, 2015; Csikszentmihalyi, 1985, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991; Froiland, Oros, Smith, & Hirschert, 2012; Hayenga & Corpus, 2010; Lepper, Corpus, & Iyengar, 2005; Pink, 2011; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Ryan & Deci, 2000

Intrinsic Motivation



Intrinsic motivation is **contextual**—it is affected by the environment in which one acts.

Discussion Questions

- What kind of context allows your intrinsic motivation to flourish?
- What kind of context diminishes your intrinsic motivation?



Slide 7—Intrinsic Motivation

(7:30–9:30)

We can create learning contexts that support intrinsic motivation and contexts that do not.

Contexts that support intrinsic motivation provide for greater autonomy and focus on mastery and learning over competition and performance.

Activity

Think about the two discussion questions on the slide.

Allow 30 seconds for participants to consider the two questions.

Talk at your tables about different types of contexts and how they influence your intrinsic motivation for certain activities.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss their responses to the questions.

Research shows that focusing on external rewards (such as grades), comparing students to one another, and limiting student choice in the classroom detract from intrinsic motivation.

References

Froiland et al., 2012; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Dweck, 2000, 2006; Froiland & Oros, 2014; Mouratidis & Michou, 2011; Pink, 2011; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Ryan & Deci, 2000

Intrinsic Motivation: Benefits

- Increased interest, excitement, and confidence
- Enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity
- Heightened vitality, self-esteem, and well-being



Slide 8—Intrinsic Motivation: Benefits

(9:30–10:00)

According to Ryan and Deci's research, the benefits of intrinsic motivation include increased interest, excitement, and confidence; enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity; and heightened vitality, self-esteem, and well-being.

Thus, intrinsic motivation has emotional, cognitive, and psychological benefits. It is no wonder that everyone, including our students, seeks out activities to experience these benefits. We just have to determine how to create these experiences in our literacy classrooms.

References

Becker, McElvany, & Kortenbruck, 2010; Froiland et al., 2012; Froiland & Oros, 2014; Lepper et al., 2005; Mouratidis & Michou, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 69

Extrinsic Motivation



- Also **contextual** and can be **internalized**
- Not inherently “bad” and often even necessary for day-to-day tasks, including in the literacy classroom

Tips for Internalizing Motivation

- Avoid extreme extrinsic motivators, such as rewards, threats, or shaming.
- Set up reading and writing tasks that make students feel in control of their learning.



Slide 9—Extrinsic Motivation

(10:00–12:30)

Now, we will talk about extrinsic motivation, which can be more or less “internalized.” This means students can feel a more internal or a more external locus of control for engaging in a task. The term “locus of control” describes the extent you feel in control of the events that influence your life. Students with an internal locus of control believe that they can influence events and their outcomes; students with an external locus of control believe that outside forces have a greater influence. The more internal a locus of control a student feels, the better.

Being extrinsically motivated for engaging in a task is not bad. We use such motivation to accomplish many tasks, but to make these experiences as positive and productive as possible, we need to feel autonomous. Thus, we need to “take in” this motivation and make it our own.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Think about a student who seemed unmotivated to accomplish a literacy activity in your class.

Now take a moment to think of all the methods you used to motivate that student to engage in the activity.

Which of those methods involved the most extrinsic motivation, meaning you tried to control the behavior through rewards, punishments, or making the student feel guilty?

Share your thoughts with your tablemates and compare your methods for motivating students.

Pause for participants to share their thoughts.

Rather than using extreme forms of extrinsic motivation like rewards, threats, or shaming, help students see the value of engaging in tasks. Students need to feel that they are in control of their learning.

References

Becker et al., 2010; Clinton, 2015; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Kamil et al., 2008; Lepper et al., 2005; Ryan & Connell, 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2000

Internalizing Extrinsic Motivation

Students internalize motivation when we

- build strong relationships with them,
- help them feel competent to accomplish tasks,
- provide them with choices,
- connect activities to students' interests (e.g., providing interesting texts to read), and
- allow them to set their own goals.



Slide 10—Internalizing Extrinsic Motivation

(12:30–13:30)

One way to help students internalize positive motivation for reading and writing activities is to build strong, positive relationships with students. Research demonstrates that students with more internalized motivation for academic activities feel connected to and cared for by teachers. Such relationships are created through authentic caring, the right balance of support and expectations, and the effective use of language.

In addition to strong teacher-student relationships, internal motivation derives from a sense of competence, a feeling of self-governance, and the ability to self-regulate, including setting one's own goals. All of these ideas will be discussed further throughout this session.

References

Guthrie & Humenick, 2004; Harris, Graham, Mason, & Friedlander, 2008; Hattie & Yates, 2014; Kamil et al., 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Roberts et al., 2008; Ryan et al., 1994

Supporting Student Autonomy

More than simply providing choices to students—
involves giving power and control to students

“Giving students opportunities to ‘self-rule’ and ‘self-determine’ can make learning more personally meaningful and intrinsically motivating.”

— Swan, 2004, p. 286



Slide 11—Supporting Student Autonomy

(13:30–14:00)

Supporting student autonomy means more than simply providing choices to students. It involves giving power and control to students.

Adjusting your classroom to provide such control may mean making some thoughtful changes in how you plan and carry out instruction.

References

Deci et al., 2001; Deci et al., 1991; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Kamil et al., 2008; Ng et al., 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Su & Reeve, 2011; Swan, 2004, p. 286; Van Ryzin et al., 2009

How Autonomous Do Your Students Feel?



- Who talks the most in the classroom?
- Who makes most of the decisions?
- Who evaluates and uses assessment data the most?
- Who provides the most feedback?

If the answer to each question is “the teacher,” student autonomy is most likely low.



Slide 12—How Autonomous Do Your Students Feel? (14:00–19:00)

To evaluate the amount of student autonomy in your classroom, answer the questions on the slide related to your classroom.

Pause for participants to read.

If the answer to each of these questions is “me” or “the teacher,” student autonomy may be low. Adjusting these questions can provide a starting place for incorporating greater student autonomy in the classroom.

- How can I provide more opportunities for student discussions?
- How can I allow for more student decision-making (not just on individual assignments)?
- How can I include students more in evaluating and using assessment data?
- How can I support students in giving feedback to each other and to me?

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Let's evaluate the level of student autonomy within some literacy practices.

Locate **Handout 1: Evaluating Student Autonomy**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

We will discuss the first example on page 1 together.

Read the first example. Model how to analyze the example, rate the amount of student autonomy, and make suggestions to support greater student autonomy.

Now, work with your tablemates to complete the next two examples on this page of the handout. You have two minutes.

Give participants two minutes to complete the handout with their tablemates. Afterward, discuss the examples with the whole group as time permits. Presenter Resource 1 provides some ideas related to each example.

References

Kamil et al., 2008; Ng et al., 1998; Reeve & Jang, 2006; Su & Reeve, 2011; Swan, 2004; Van Ryzin et al., 2009

Final Thought on Student Autonomy

“Teachers who listen more, who allow for independent work, who give fewer criticisms and more praise of quality performance, who show empathy and the ability to take the students’ perspective, and who have learned to recognize when their students’ interest is at its peak or is waning are doing what they can to help students feel self-determined.”

— Reed, Schallert, Beth, & Woodruff, 2004, p. 274



Slide 13—Final Thought on Student Autonomy (19:00–20:00)

Please read the quotation on the slide and highlight what these researchers tell us we can do to support student autonomy.

Give participants 30 seconds to work. Then ask participants to share what they highlighted. These ideas should include listening, allowing students to work independently, criticizing less, providing descriptive praise, caring, being open to the student’s point of view, and attending to student interest and engagement.

All of these ideas relate to topics we will discuss, including building strong relationships with students, using language effectively, and paying attention to who students are and what they hope to accomplish.

References

Kamil et al., 2008; Reed et al., 2004, p. 274; Reeve & Jang, 2006; Su & Reeve, 2011

Building Student Competence

- Support students' perceptions of themselves as competent and capable.
- Create situations that allow students to feel confident in themselves.
- Help students develop sustained competence and confidence over time by considering the following questions.

How do I ensure that students are as successful as possible as often as possible while maintaining high expectations and academic rigor?

How can I help students develop true competence rather than simplifying the material?



Slide 14—Building Student Competence

(20:00–21:00)

In addition to feeling autonomous, students need to feel they can accomplish a task. Research demonstrates the need for perceived competence and self-efficacy to sustain motivation. Feelings of competence derive from being successful consistently. Self-efficacy stems from being put in a situation in which one feels confident in one's ability to succeed.

Fostering such feelings in students is not an easy task, especially given students' various abilities, background knowledge, and skills. Providing effective reading and writing instruction and differentiating that instruction based on student need are the first steps toward meeting such a lofty goal.

When planning such instruction, think about the following questions:

- How do I ensure that students are as successful as possible as often as possible while maintaining high expectations and academic rigor?

- How can I help students develop true competence rather than simplifying the material?

The next slide gives specific answers to these questions.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Bandura, 1986, 1989; Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Froiland & Oros, 2014; Guthrie & Anderson, 1998; Kamil et al., 2008; Schunk & Swartz, 1993; Stipek & Seal, 2001

Specific Considerations

- Provide explicit instruction with modeling.
- Build skills and strategies through effective scaffolding.
- Help students master skills and strategies through multiple practice opportunities.
- Respond to students with immediate, corrective feedback.



Slide 15—Specific Considerations

(21:00–22:00)

Take a moment to read through these considerations. Do they look familiar?

Pause for participants to respond.

Yes! These are features of effective instruction discussed during the Supporting All Learners session. They have also come up again and again throughout all of the other academy sections. Differentiating among these features of effective instruction for each student within grouping formats and across instructional activities allows you to build student competence without having to simplify the curriculum.

One of these considerations has a strong research base related to motivation, so we will touch on it quickly again.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Kamil et al., 2008; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007; Vaughn Gross Center for Reading and Language Arts at The University of Texas at Austin, 2007; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004; Vygotsky, 1978

Using Modeling to Build Student Competence



Modeling can be provided by

the teacher, especially when learning a new skill or strategy;

students of equal or slightly greater competence; or

students who previously struggled with a skill or strategy.



Slide 16—Using Modeling to Build Student Competence

(22:00–24:30)

We have already discussed the importance of modeling thinking and strategy use, but it is also important to model other learning components. For example, research shows that students who struggle with or have negative emotions related to strategies or activities benefit from modeling by those who have struggled with similar strategies or emotions. This is called a coping model.

Here is an example of a teacher acting as such a coping model.

Read the following paragraph as if speaking to a class.

“As a writer, I have difficulty getting started. I think I need just the right story or just the right words before I can start writing. Such thinking often means I sit and stare at a blank page for a long time—maybe even hours. After many years of writing, I now know that if I plan first and get some initial ideas down by

Notes continue on the next page.

brainstorming or webbing, it is easier to write when I start a draft. I will show you one technique I use to help me. Maybe it can help you, too.”

Students benefit when we acknowledge that we also are vulnerable readers and writers.

Activity

Think about a reading or writing element that many of your students struggle to master.

Pause for participants to think.

How could you use this type of coping modeling to help students in this area? Turn and talk with your partner about this question. You have one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to share their ideas. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Have a few participants share their thinking. (You may want to use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants' responses.)

References

Kamil et al., 2008; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Schunk & Hanson, 1985, 1989; Schunk, Hanson, & Cox, 1987; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007

Lesson Incorporating Effective Modeling



Examine the lesson, which uses modeling to help students learn about motivation, self-efficacy, creativity, and writing.



Slide 17—Lesson Incorporating Effective Modeling (24:30–26:00)

Now we will look at a lesson that uses modeling related to motivation, self-efficacy, creativity, and writing. Locate **Handout 2: Modeling Self-Efficacy Using a Picture Book**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

In this lesson, the main character, Ramon, models how confidence affects motivation. His sister, Marisol, helps Ramon and us realize that, rather than focus on what other people think, we should focus on what we think and what is important to us.

Point out two or three strong aspects of the lesson. These could include the “I do,” “We do,” “You do” framework and integrating a motivation lesson into one on writing.

This lesson shows just one kind of modeling we can provide in our classrooms.

References

Schunk & Hanson, 1985, 1989; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007

What Should Be Modeled?

- Specific skills and strategies we want students to learn
- Ways that we use self-talk to help ourselves learn and stay motivated
- Effective self-regulation techniques, such as developing emotional awareness and setting goals



Slide 18—What Should Be Modeled?

(26:00–26:30)

We also can model self-regulation techniques such as using self-talk and goal setting. Students need to see such self-regulating methods and know they are a natural part of learning.

No one is intrinsically motivated to do every learning task. We all create our own forms of internalized motivation that interest us in a learning task, sustain our efforts, and eventually help us succeed.

References

Harris et al., 2008; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007

Creating Self-Regulated Learners

“Students who are self-regulated are active participants in their own learning. Rather than relying solely on teachers, parents, or other external agents to impart knowledge, they take an active role in their own learning.”

— Zito, Adkins, Gavins, Harris, & Graham, 2007, p. 78



Slide 19—Creating Self-Regulated Learners

(26:30–27:00)

Eventually, students need to generate their own internalized motivation and use their own techniques for managing this motivation. That is the only way they will be able to sustain the effort and hard work necessary to accomplish complicated learning tasks such as reading about electromagnetism or delivering a persuasive speech at a school assembly.

Even if a student has intrinsic motivation for doing such tasks, self-regulation is needed to ensure that each one is accomplished successfully and in a timely manner.

References

Sansone & Morgan, 1992; Zito, Adkins, Gavins, Harris, & Graham, 2007, p. 78; Zumbunn & Bruning, 2013

Creating Self-Regulated Learners (cont.)



“Self-regulation (or self-regulated learning) refers to self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are systematically designed to affect one’s learning of knowledge and skills.”

— Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007, pp. 7–8

- Self-regulation enhances learning, which builds competence that supports motivation and pushes students to achieve new goals.
- Emotional and cognitive self-regulation has been found to support students’ development of reading competence.



Slide 20—Creating Self-Regulated Learners (cont.) (27:00–29:00)

Take moment to read the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

One example of a self-regulation technique we use in reading is letting students chart their fluency progress on either a bar graph or a line graph. Such graphing allows students to set goals and monitor their progress toward meeting those goals. It also allows the student and teacher to examine the progress together and celebrate when the student meets the goals.

Activity

Think about self-regulation techniques that you use or teach students to use.

Pause for participants to think.

Go around the table and have each person share one self-regulation technique. You will have one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to share their techniques. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants' ideas.

References

Graham et al., 2012; Graham, Harris, & Troia, 2000; Graham, MacArther, & Fitzgerald, 2013; Harris et al., 2008; Sansone & Morgan, 1992; Schunk & Rice, 1991; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007; Smith, Borkowski, & Whitman, 2008; Zumbrunn & Bruning, 2013

Creating Self-Regulated Readers and Writers

- Teach and model self-regulation strategies during instruction of reading and writing skills and strategies.
- Differentiate instruction in self-regulation strategies based on students' needs.
- Help students monitor their progress toward meeting reading and writing goals.
- Provide feedback on progress in using self-regulation techniques.



Slide 21—Creating Self-Regulated Readers and Writers

(29:00–30:30)

Given the strong research base, we should teach and model self-regulation during reading and writing instruction. But we must first be aware of the self-regulation techniques we use during reading and writing activities. Thus, we have to be metacognitive, or able to think about our own thinking and feelings.

- How do you manage your motivation when it begins to wane during a task? Do you set a goal to reach before you stop?
- How do you monitor your progress while reading? Do you ask yourself questions as you read to check your understanding? Do you take notes? Do you highlight new vocabulary words?

Fortunately, these techniques do not require teaching or learning additional content. Instead, you teach and model self-reflection, awareness, and monitoring processes within your teaching.

Research demonstrates that teaching students self-regulation techniques in both reading and writing improves student motivation and learning.

References

Sansone & Morgan, 1992; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007; Zumbrunn & Bruning, 2013

Let's Practice! Modeling Self-Regulation



Setting goals

Monitoring progress toward meeting goals

Using self-talk to think or feel a certain way

Rewarding yourself as you meet goals



Slide 22—Let's Practice! Modeling Self-Regulation (30:30–35:00)

Locate Handout 3: Planning How to Model Self-Regulation in Writing.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

You will practice planning how to model self-regulation techniques within an expository writing lesson. I will model an example.

Model the following self-talk and goal-setting example or a different example.

Presenter Resource 2 provides an example for the first row of the chart using this think-aloud.

“Before I begin drafting a writing piece, I have to plan. Otherwise, I will never get any words down on paper. Let me start by brainstorming some ideas I could write an expository piece about. What do I know that I could teach other people? Hmm, I may need to go back to my writer’s notebook to look for ideas.

“Here is something. I have a four-year-old, so I could write a paper about what it is like living with a four-year-old. Here are some other ideas...”

The teacher then writes other ideas and says, “This has already taken quite a bit of time, and I know I still want to read for 10 minutes before class ends. I will set a goal of choosing an idea to write about and drafting a thesis statement related to the idea.”

This model shows both self-talk and goal setting. You could also model techniques like self-monitoring toward reaching a goal or rewarding yourself when you meet a goal.

Now, it is your turn. I will divide you into groups and assign each group a step in the writing process. You will first read the two paragraphs at the top of the handout. Then, you will plan the modeling of self-regulation techniques for your writing process step. Write your planning ideas in the appropriate spot in the table.

Divide participants into groups and assign each group one step in the writing process. Allow two minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants’ ideas.

References

Harris et al., 2008; Kamil et al., 2008; Zumbrunn & Bruning, 2013

One Element of Self-Regulation: Student Goals

- Help students set short-term and long-term goals that are clear, specific, and challenging but realistic.
- Allow students to assess and monitor their progress toward reaching goals.
- Help students celebrate when they achieve goals.



Slide 23—One Element of Self-Regulation: Student Goals

(35:00–36:00)

One self-regulation strategy with a strong research base is setting goals to develop and sustain motivation. When students set goals, ensure that they are clear, specific, and challenging but realistic. Also, help students set both short-term and long-term goals. For example, a student who has a long-term goal of writing a well-organized expository essay may need to start with the short-term goal of writing clear, explicit thesis statements.

Create a system for students to assess and monitor their progress toward their goals. Progress graphs or charts help students self-assess and keep track of their progress. Students can also write about their progress in journals or notebooks.

Help students celebrate when they reach their goals. Such celebrations enhance self-efficacy and push students to set new, more challenging goals.

References

Daniels et al., 2009; Locke & Latham, 1990; Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006; Mouratidis & Michou, 2011; Pintrich, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996

Learning Goals Versus Performance Goals



Learning Goals

- Focus on mastering a task, developing skills, or improving competence
- Relate to internalized forms of motivation

Performance Goals

- Focus on ability, how ability will be judged, recognition, and avoidance of negative consequences
- Relate to extrinsic forms of motivation



Slide 24—Learning Goals Versus Performance Goals (36:00–39:30)

Another consideration is whether a goal is a learning goal or a performance goal. We want students to focus more on learning goals because they help students develop their abilities and improve their skills across time. Such goals focus on self-development and support internalized motivation.

In contrast, when students set performance goals, they focus on the outward, rather than the internal, benefits. Examples of performance goals include making others proud, avoiding punishments, getting a good grade, or avoiding feeling guilty. Such goals can distract students and encourage them to focus too much on how others view them.

Let's examine a few student goals. Locate **Handout 4: Analyzing and Setting Literacy Goals**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Read each goal. Then, in the second column, circle the elements it contains. If you think the goal should be revised, rewrite it in the third column. I will model with the first one.

Model with the first goal. Presenter Resource 3 provides a possible analysis and rewritten goal.

Now, it is your turn. Working with a partner, examine the other goals. Pick one that you feel needs to be revised and rewrite it. You have one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to work. Presenter Resource 3 can be used to review possible responses.

Setting learning goals is a step toward students developing the mindset we want as learners, readers, and writers.

References

Daniels et al., 2009; Dweck, 2000, 2006; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Froiland, 2011; Martin, 2015; Pintrich, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Robins & Pals, 2002; Wolters, Fan, & Daugherty, 2013

Developing a Growth Mindset

“A growth mindset isn’t just about effort. Certainly effort is key for students’ achievement, but it’s not the only thing. Students need to try new strategies and seek input from others when they’re stuck. They need this repertoire of approaches—not just sheer effort—to learn and improve.”

— Dweck, 2015



Slide 25—Developing a Growth Mindset

(39:30–40:00)

Let’s choral read the quotation on the slide.

Choral read the quotation with participants.

References

Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, 2000, 2006, 2015; King, McInerney, & Watkins, 2012; Martin, 2015; Rattan, Good, & Dweck, 2012; Robins & Pals, 2002

Growth Versus Fixed Mindset



Growth Mindset	Fixed Mindset
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intelligence and ability can be developed over time. • Effort is powerful for any type of learning. • Challenges are a chance to develop yourself. • Setbacks just mean you need to work that much harder. • Another person's success is an opportunity to learn and grow. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intelligence and ability are fixed. You get what you are born with. • If you have to expend effort, you must not be intelligent or capable. • Challenges are a threat to who you are and how others see you. • If you face a setback, you failed. You aren't good enough. Give up. • If others succeed, they must be better than you. Give up.



Slide 26—Growth Versus Fixed Mindset

(40:00–41:30)

In her work, Dweck contrasts the growth mindset with what she calls the fixed mindset. Where a growth mindset focuses on learning and putting in effort to develop, a fixed mindset focuses on natural talent and being judged for having or not having such talent.

Activity

Take a moment to read the descriptions of a growth mindset versus a fixed mindset on the slide. Then, at your tables, discuss which type of mindset you experienced more as you were growing up. You have one minute.

Allow one minute for participants to share their experiences. Walk around and listen to the discussions.

Let's do a show of hands. How many of you have experienced a growth mindset?

Pause for participants to raise their hands.

How many of you have experienced a fixed mindset?

Pause for participants to raise their hands.

References

Aditomo, 2015; Blackwell et al., 2007; Dweck, 2000, 2006; King, McInerney, & Watkins, 2012; Martin, 2015; Rattan et al., 2012; Robins & Pals, 2002

Evaluating the Two Mindsets



- Which type of mindset would you rather promote and work with in your classroom?
- Which type of mindset do you currently promote?
- Which one do most of your students demonstrate?
- How can we change a student's mindset?



Slide 27—Evaluating the Two Mindsets

(41:30–43:00)

Activity

At your tables, take a moment to discuss the questions on the slide. You have one minute to discuss. You may want to choose one or two of these questions on which to focus.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss the questions. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Use the ball toss energizer to share participants' ideas.

Next, we will discuss ways to develop students' growth mindsets.

References

Dweck, 2000, 2006; Martin, 2015; Rattan et al., 2012; Robins & Pals, 2002

Developing a Growth Mindset

- Praise students for their effort and strategy use, not for their intelligence or ability.
- Challenge students with high standards and teach how to reach them.
- Provide a disciplined yet nurturing atmosphere.
- Genuinely care about and commit yourself to every student.
- Be honest about students' progress and provide them with tools to close the gaps.

“The great teachers believe in the growth of the intellect and talent, and they are fascinated with the process of learning.”

— Dweck, 2006, p. 194



Slide 28—Developing a Growth Mindset

(43:00–44:00)

In her research, Dweck discovered teachers who illustrated what a growth mindset can accomplish. These teachers praised students for hard work and persistence, not ability or intelligence. They focused on development over judgment. They pushed students to achieve standards that no one, including the students, thought possible, but they did so within an atmosphere of affection, concern, and caring.

These teachers did not mislead their students. They were honest about where each student was academically and they showed their students how to take charge of the learning process through hard work, determination, and learning strategies.

Great teachers **truly** believe that every child can learn, and they inspire the children in their classrooms to believe it, too.

Next, we will look at ideas with the specific objective of helping students develop a growth mindset.

References

Dweck, 2000, 2006; Mueller & Dweck, 1998; Rattan et al., 2012

Teach Students About the Brain

- The brain is like a muscle that changes, grows, and gets stronger when you learn.
- The more you challenge yourself, the more your brain cells grow and build connections to one another.

It is no longer about intelligent versus unintelligent. It is about **learned versus not learned yet!**



Slide 29—Teach Students About the Brain

(44:00–45:30)

In Dweck's studies, she taught students about brain research and what we know about how the brain's structure changes over time.

Modern research and technology has helped us learn that the brain is like a muscle that changes, grows, and gets stronger when you learn. We have also learned that the more you challenge yourself, the more your brain cells grow and build connections to one another. This is true for everyone's brain, so by working hard and focusing your effort on learning, you can make your brain stronger.

The researchers also emphasized to students that we do not laugh at babies when they cannot talk or walk. We know they just have not learned yet. The researchers even showed students pictures of babies' brains and how they change as the babies experience the world and learn how to do things.

This information had a profound effect on many of the research participants. One student asked, "You mean I don't have to be dumb?" The student who asked this

question was, according to Dweck, one of the most “hard-core turned-off” students in the group.

Dweck states that “when teachers are judging them, students will sabotage the teacher by not trying. But when students understand that school is for them—a way for them to grow their minds—they do not insist on sabotaging themselves.”

She goes on to caution us that “it’s common for students to turn off to school and adopt an air of indifference, but we make a mistake if we think any student stops caring.”

References

Dweck, 2000; Dweck, 2006, p. 194

Lesson to Promote a Growth Mindset



- Developing our abilities
- Putting in effort and working hard
- Facing and overcoming challenges
- Learning to read



Slide 30—Lesson to Promote a Growth Mindset (45:30–47:00)

In addition to teaching students about brain research, we can provide examples of people who have worked hard to learn and become successful. One such person is Patricia Polacco, a successful children's author and illustrator. In her book *Thank you, Mr. Falker*, she tells the story of her struggles with learning to read.

Locate **Handout 5: Promoting a Growth Mindset Using a Picture Book**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides a lesson you can use to promote a growth mindset in your classroom. Please tag it as a resource to use.

Providing real-life models like Patricia Polacco can help students see that with effort and a good coach, what we think is impossible can become possible.

References

Dweck, 2000, 2006; Polacco, 1998

Changing Our Mindsets

“Mindset change is not about picking up a few pointers here and there. It’s about seeing things in a new way. When people...change to a growth mindset, they change from a judge-and-be-judged framework to a learn-and-help-learn framework. Their commitment is to growth, and growth takes plenty of time, effort, and mutual support.”

— Dweck, 2006, p. 244



Slide 31—Changing Our Mindsets

(47:00–48:00)

Changing students’ mindsets is not quick and easy. It takes time and effort. You have to avoid phrases such as, “You are so smart!” and “You got a 100!” Instead, use responses such as, “I can tell you worked hard on this essay” or “You must have studied really hard to learn how to work these math problems. They are difficult.”

Also, mistakes, challenges, and setbacks have to be framed for students as what they truly are—learning opportunities and chances to stretch ourselves even further. After all, every time we face a challenge or work through a mistake, we get those synapses firing and brain cells growing.

For many of us, such changes will not come naturally and will take conscious effort to consistently implement. But careful use of language to communicate our beliefs about students and their learning can lead to huge payoffs in terms of student motivation and reading and writing achievement.

References

Dweck, 2000, 2006, p. 244; Hattie, 2012; King et al., 2012; Mueller & Dweck, 1998; Rattan et al., 2012

Words Shape the Classroom Experience

- Shape our identities
- Position us in relation to one another
- Position us in relation to what we are doing
- Influence our reality, our beliefs, and our understanding of what it means to be human



Slide 32—Words Shape the Classroom Experience (48:00–49:30)

Just as our words shape students' beliefs about learning, effort, and intelligence, they also help students figure out how they fit into our classrooms. Words define who we are in relation to others and in relation to learning and various activities.

For example, a fourth-grade teacher was observed randomly selecting popsicle sticks with students' names on them to call on students after asking a question. She pulled Nina's stick and said without a moment's pause, "Nina. Nina, would you rather pass? It is OK if you want to pass." Nina and everyone else in the class then knew that the teacher thought Nina was incapable of answering the question.

The teacher then pulled Derek's stick and said, "Derek. Can you help Nina with the answer?" Everyone learned that Derek was a capable student whom others rely on for help.

Imagine this scenario being played out day after day. Who is Nina becoming? Who is Derek becoming? How will the students in this class view their role? How

will they view the teacher's role? How will they view questions and answers, the classroom, and school in general?

Instead of taking your words for granted, choose them deliberately. Your students are listening!

References

Johnston, 2004, 2012

How We Use Our Words



- Notice and name what we notice
- Create identities
- Support autonomy and agency
- Develop the ability to generalize and make connections
- Construct knowledge
- Create a community of learners



Slide 33—How We Use Our Words

(49:30–52:00)

In his books *Choice Words* and *Opening Minds*, Peter Johnston provides specific examples of words, phrases, and sentences that can help develop and support students' learning and motivation in literacy. He divides this language into the six categories listed on the slide. Let's take a look at some of his examples. Locate **Handout 6: Using Language Effectively in Literacy Classrooms**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides suggestions for language to use in your classroom. Take a moment to examine the handout.

Pause for participants to examine the handout.

Note to Presenter

If time is limited, skip the following activity. Instead, refer participants to the handout and tell them that it is a resource of scenarios to practice language use.

Optional Activity

Now we will practice using this language. Locate **Handout 7: Scenarios to Practice Language Use**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

On this handout, you can see four classroom scenarios. Using Handout 6 as a reference, write language examples you could use to improve students' motivation and learning within a scenario. I will model with the first one.

*Model the following think-aloud or use your own example for the first scenario. **Presenter Resource 4** provides an example of what you could write using this think-aloud.*

"I would start by doing a read-aloud with a book that focuses on the idea of community. During the read-aloud, I would ask questions to connect the story to our classroom experiences. We could then work on a shared writing piece explaining what it means to create a classroom community. During the lesson, I would ask students to give examples and nonexamples from our own classroom to illustrate the idea of classroom community. I would use words and phrases such as 'We...' and 'I wonder whether we could...' and 'You just gave me another idea to add.' I would let the students decide how we could publish it for ourselves and other classes to read."

Now, it is your turn. With a partner, pick one of the scenarios. Then, using Handout 6, write two or three language examples you could use to support students' motivation and learning. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants' ideas.

References

Johnston, 2004, 2012

How Can We Start?



“We can start to change our classroom interactions by changing our words and dragging some of our beliefs along with them.”

— Johnston, 2004, p. 84

- Consciously edit our speech
- Be genuinely interested in what students have to say
- Make learning meaningful to students



Slide 34—How Can We Start?

(52:00–56:00)

Now that we have practiced using effective language, it is time to think about how we can get these words into our classrooms. The words we use stem from our beliefs, and it is not easy to change beliefs. Therefore, Johnston suggests making a conscious effort to change our words even before we change our beliefs.

Though difficult, you can do it if you make it a priority. First, think about words to delete from your language repertoire and words to add to it.

Activity

Let's start now. Brainstorm a list of words that you may need to stop using. Examples might be *smart*, *lazy*, and *intelligence*. You have one minute.

Provide one minute for participants to brainstorm their lists. Use the ball toss energizer to share participants' ideas.

Now, brainstorm a list of words to begin using more often. Examples might include *hard work*, *challenge*, and *learning*. Again, you have one minute.

Provide one minute for participants to brainstorm their lists. Use the ball toss energizer to share participants' ideas.

Additionally, listen to what students say. What do their words tell you about their beliefs, knowledge, and feelings? How can you use this knowledge to build their self-confidence and create more internalized motivation?

Thinking and feeling go hand in hand. We have to consider the emotional meaning of learning and thinking for a student. Attending to language connects us to the emotional side of our classrooms.

Reference

Johnston, 2004, p. 84; Johnston, 2012

Developing Students' Identities as Readers and Writers

- Internalized motivation
- Autonomy
- Competence
- Self-regulation
- Beliefs and mindsets
- Power of language



Slide 35—Developing Students' Identities as Readers and Writers (56:00–56:30)

Research demonstrates a strong connection between motivation and identity development. We can use all of the ideas discussed in this session—internalized motivation, autonomy, competence, self-regulation, beliefs and mindsets, the power of language—to develop students' identities as readers and writers.

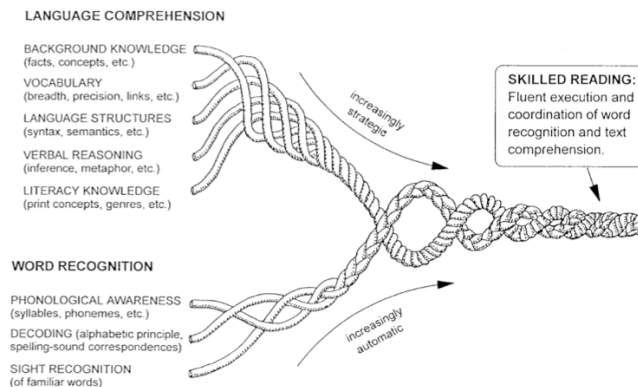
References

Boscolo & Gelati, 2007; Clinton, 2015; Johnston, 1992; Kaplan & Flum, 2009; McCaslin, 2009; Nolen, 2007; Oldfather, 2002; Robins & Pals, 2002; Stipek & Seal, 2001; Woodruff & Schallert, 2008

The Reading Rope



How do you use teacher-student relationships, autonomy, a sense of competence, and self-regulation to engage and motivate English language learners, struggling students, and/or gifted students?



Scarborough, 2001



Slide 36—The Reading Rope

(56:30–59:00)

Please locate your handout and model of the reading rope.

Pause for participants to find their handout and model. Hold up your model.

Activity

Let's synthesize what we have learned about student motivation, engagement, and literacy instruction. We know that incorporating instructional practices to support motivation, including strong teacher-student relationships, autonomy, a sense of competence, and self-regulation, enhances student learning across content areas. Take a moment to visualize how motivation could be represented on the reading rope.

Notes continue on the next page.

When I imagined adding motivation, I thought of it as a base in which my rope stood, like a tree. Discuss how you would represent motivation on the reading rope.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss.

Now, take a moment to reflect on the guiding question on the slide.

Allow 30 seconds for participants to reflect on the question.

Put your reading rope handout and model back in your folder.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Remember

“Being literate is more a role than a skill: [It is] something that one *is* rather than something one *has*.”

— Johnston, 1992, p. 5



Slide 37—Remember

(59:00–1:00:00)

Becoming truly literate should be every student’s goal. The path to reaching this goal is paved by teachers who understand how to develop not only students’ knowledge and skills, but also their identities as readers and writers.


References

Johnston, 1992, p. 5; Johnston, 2004, 2012; Kaplan & Flum, 2009; McCaslin, 2009; Oldfather, 2002; Robins & Pals, 2002; Stipek & Seal, 2001



Motivating and Engaging Students

Handouts

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black lead tip, positioned horizontally behind the text "READING TO LEARN".
**READING
TO LEARN**
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Evaluating Student Autonomy

Three example instructional practices from literacy classrooms are described below. For each example, rate the level of student autonomy the practice provides. Then, provide suggestions for ways to build more student autonomy into the instructional practice.

Use the following scale to rate the level of student autonomy.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High

Example	Student Autonomy Rating	Suggestions to Build Greater Student Autonomy
Each Monday, students are given a list of spelling words on which they will be tested on Friday. During the week, students are expected to take the words home to memorize and copy over and over. After they take the test on Friday, the teacher grades it, counting each word spelled correctly or incorrectly, and gives each student their grade on Monday. Students must then copy the words they missed again the following week.		
A teacher is planning a three-week unit on stars. She needs texts to use for read-alouds and student projects, so she asks the students to help her evaluate books, magazine articles, and the science text. Students use the Text Review sheet (pages 2–3 of this handout) to review texts in small groups and partners during workstation time. The teacher collects these reviews at the end of the week to plan which texts she will use.		
As a warm-up at the beginning of each writing class, a teacher displays unrelated sentences written incorrectly. The teacher gives students five to eight minutes to correct these sentences independently. The teacher then calls on individual students to write on the board one correction of an error. Sometimes, the teacher collects the students' corrected sentences to give students a grammar grade.		

Text Review

Title: _____

Author and/or illustrator: _____

What to Examine and Questions to Think About	Detailed Information on What You Found
Genre What type of text is it? What kind of information does it provide? What would it best be used for—for example, for research, as a teacher read-aloud, etc.? Note that the text could be used for more than one purpose.	
Organization How is the text organized—for example, does it have chapters, is it organized by specific information, etc.? Is it well organized or poorly organized? How does its organization affect your understanding or motivation? Could parts of the text be used rather than the whole thing?	
Pictures, Tables, and Other Graphics Does the text have graphics that help you understand the text? Are any graphics especially helpful? If so, provide the page numbers and explain why the graphic is helpful.	

Identify words that may need to be taught before we read the text.

**What is your overall impression of the text—good, bad, interesting, not interesting, etc.?
Provide specific examples to support your evaluation.**

Modeling Self-Efficacy Using a Picture Book

Materials

- *ish* by Peter H. Reynolds
- Three notecards—one with *motivation* written on it, one with *confidence*, and one with *-ish*
- Chart paper for brainstorming experiences
- Copies of living “ishfully” planning document for each student (pages 5 and 6 of this handout)
- Writer’s notebooks

Objective (“I Do”)

“We all have experienced what it feels like **not** to be good at something—whether it is something in school, like reading or math, or something else, like playing a sport or drawing or even making friends. Such an experience can create negative feelings and cause us not to be motivated to continue.

“In this lesson, we read about a character who has just such an experience and how his little sister helps him realize his potential and become motivated again.”

Preteach Vocabulary

Show students the notecard with the word *motivation* on it.

“*Motivation* means that you want to do something. If you have motivation to do something, you will probably do it. For example, if you feel motivation to read a book, you will probably read it. If you are motivated to play soccer, you will probably play soccer—unless something stops you.”

Show the notecard with the word *confidence* on it.

“*Confidence* means that you feel like you can do something. For example, I have strong confidence in my ability to do math. I have always been a good math student, so when someone asks me to do math, I know I can do it. On the other hand, I do not have confidence in my ability to draw fancy pictures. I am an OK artist, but I do not think I am great. If someone asked me to draw a picture that was important for something, I would be very nervous about it.”

Show the notecard the suffix *-ish* on it.

“This is the suffix *-ish*. It comes at the end of a word to say that something is like something else. For example, if I said an adult was **childish**, that would mean the adult was acting like a child. Or if I said your shirt was **blueish**, that would mean it looks like blue, but it is not exactly blue.

“In this lesson, you will learn more about these two words and this suffix.”

Brainstorming and Planning (“We Do”)

“Have you ever tried something and not been successful? I know I have. When I was a little girl, I wanted to learn how to be a softball pitcher. I played on a softball team, but I was one of the smallest girls on the team, and I was not very strong. I remember some of my friends even telling me I would not be able to pitch because I was not strong enough to get the ball across the plate.

“Have any of you ever felt like you could not do something—either because someone told you that or you just had a hard time doing it?”

Put up a web or brainstorm chart to list some of the experiences that your students share. Start the list with your own experience. You may have to add one or two more of your own to get students to share.

Show students the book *ish*.

“We will read this book today. In it, a little boy has an experience similar to the ones we just discussed. Let’s see how he handles it and how it changes him.”

Modeling (“I Do” and “We Do”)

Read the book. Stop after you read these words: “Leon’s laughter haunted Ramon. He kept trying to make his drawings look ‘right,’ but they never did.”

“What do the words *look right* mean?”

Have students turn and talk to a partner about these words. Discuss with students how we sometimes think that if we are not perfect, we should stop what we are trying to do.

“Let’s see what happens next with Ramon.”

Read the next page.

“What has happened to Ramon?”

Again, have students turn and talk with a partner.

Then, discuss as a class how Ramon has given up. He has lost all confidence in himself. Refer to your *confidence* notecard.

Discuss with students that when you lose confidence, you often lose your motivation to keep trying. Refer to your *motivation* notecard.

“Ramon has lost his confidence, which has also made him lose his motivation.

“Let’s keep reading. Ramon is at a low point right now, but that is about to change.”

Continue reading. Stop after you read these words: “‘Vase-ISH?’ Ramon looked closer. Then he studied all the drawings on Marisol’s walls and began to see them in a whole new way. ‘They do look...ish,’ he said.”

Remind students what *-ish* means.

“What does Marisol mean when she says the picture is ‘vase-ish’?”

Have students turn to their partners and talk.

“Marisol thinks Ramon’s picture looks like a vase even if it is not a perfect vase. She is helping him to see that his artwork might not be perfect, but it is good enough for her to put on her wall. Maybe he now can see the good in it, just like Marisol.”

Read the rest of the book.

“What do you think it means to live ‘ishfully’?”

Have students turn to their partners and talk.

“We do not have to be perfect. If we keep trying, we can do things, no matter what anyone else thinks. Sometimes, we are so worried about how we will look to others or how others will judge us that we forget that what is most important is how we see ourselves.”

Graphic Organizer (“I Do” and “We Do”)

- Web or brainstormed list of experiences
- Living “ishfully” planning document

Shared and Guided Writing (“We Do”)

“Now that we have learned about living ‘ishfully,’ let’s apply it to ourselves to write an essay. Let me apply it first to myself wanting to be a softball pitcher. How could I use Ramon’s lesson of living ‘ishfully’?”

Use the living “ishfully” planning document as students help you apply this philosophy to yourself. An example of how to fill out the planning document is provided on pages 7 and 8 of this handout.

Independent Writing (“You Do”)

After students work with you in the whole group on your planning and drafting, have each student or pair of students choose one of the ideas from your brainstormed list or from their own lives to plan and draft their own essay. Have students use a copy of the living “ishfully” document or have them plan and draft in their writer’s notebooks.

Optional: Put students’ texts together to create a collaborative book.

Reflection (“We Do”)

Guide self-reflection through key questions such as the following.

“What did this activity tell you about motivation and confidence? Why is it important to know about these concepts?”

Optional Steps: Write and Reflect Again (“We Do” and “You Do”)

Have students revise their drafts for effective word choice and sentences.

Then, have students self-reflect on their writing by asking themselves questions such as the following.

“Who might be interested in reading my essay? What is the purpose of this piece of writing?”

Living “ishfully”

What living “ishfully” means to me

Me making the choice to live “ishfully”

Action or Thinking	Action or Thinking
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<hr/>	<hr/>

What I Want

Action or Thinking	Action or Thinking
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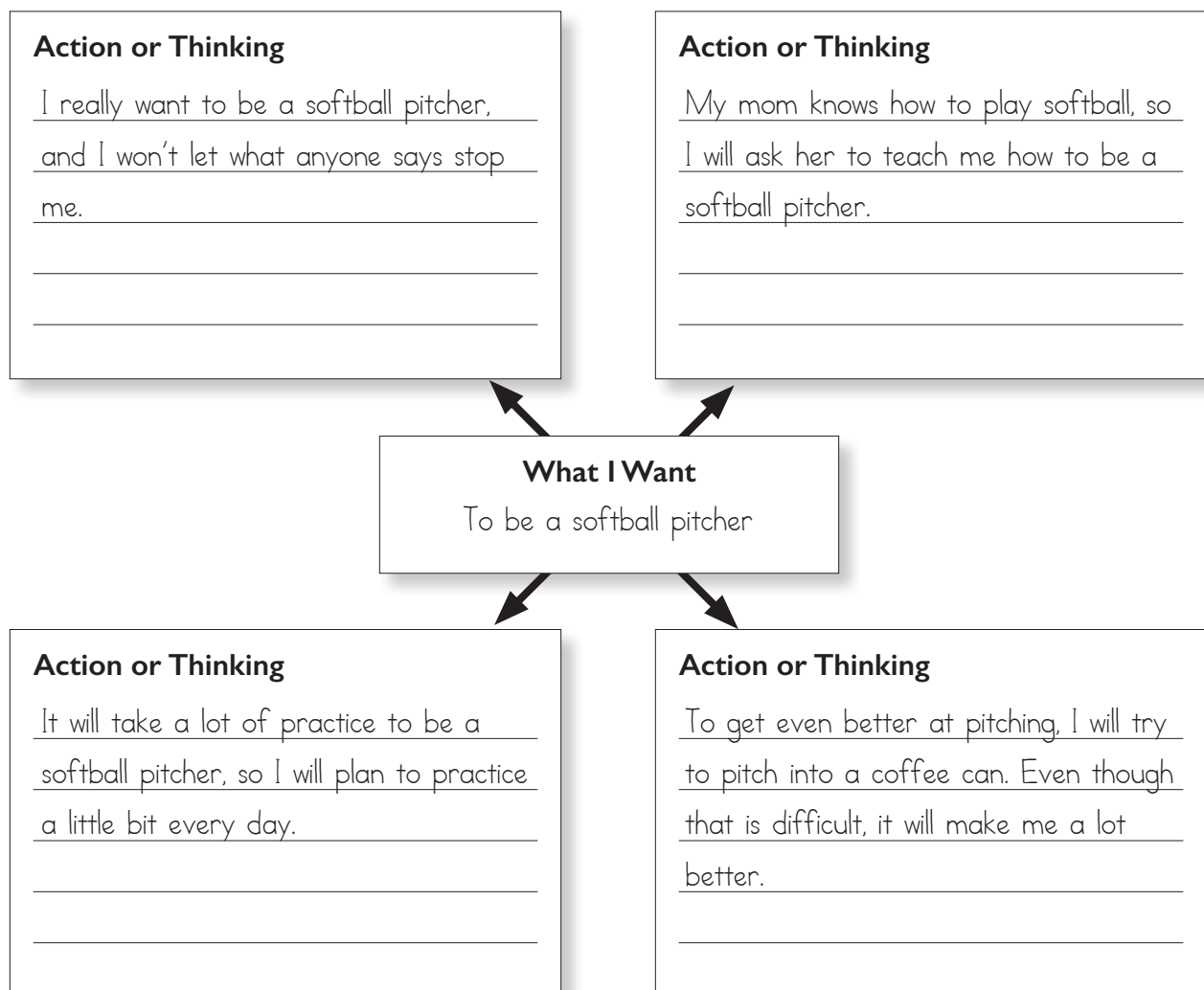
This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

Living “ishfully” Example

What living “ishfully” means to me

Living “ishfully” means that you do not let anyone keep you from doing the things you love. You must have confidence in yourself and believe that if you put your mind to it, you can accomplish pretty much anything. I believe that having confidence in yourself is one of the most important things to helping you do whatever it is you want to do.

Me making the choice to live “ishfully”



First draft of my living “ishfully” essay

Living "ishfully" means that you do not let anyone keep you from doing the things you love. You must have confidence in yourself and believe that if you put your mind to it, you can accomplish pretty much anything. I believe that having confidence in yourself is one of the most important things to helping you do whatever it is you want to do.

When I was a little girl, I wanted to be a softball pitcher. Many of my friends told me I could not be one because I was too small and too weak, but I decided that I would not let their words stop me. My mom had been a softball player, so I asked her to help me learn how to be a pitcher. I worked hard and practiced a little bit every day. To make myself even better, I would set out a coffee can to try to pitch the softball into. It was really difficult, but it made me a better pitcher.

I eventually became a very good pitcher and pitched on teams throughout elementary and middle school. I was even the pitcher on my high school team, and I pitched on a lot of different teams when I was an adult. So, you see, if you decide to live "ishfully," you can accomplish your goals and not let others get in your way. Living "ishfully" can give you the motivation to keep going.

Planning How to Model Self-Regulation in Writing

Imagine that you want to model and have students practice the steps of the writing process within a lesson on expository writing. This lesson will be a shared writing activity.

The lesson content has already been planned for you in the left column of the table below. Think about and note different self-regulation techniques you will use as an expository text writer. You will think aloud about and model these strategies for your students.

Lesson Content	Self-Regulation Techniques to Model
Planning <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Brainstorm ideas (think about purpose and audience).2. Choose an idea.3. Web support related to the idea.4. Create an initial thesis statement.5. Organize support using an outline.	
Drafting <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Draft our initial thesis sentence.2. Draft our support based on our outline.3. Draft our concluding paragraph.	

Lesson Content	Self-Regulation Techniques to Model
Revising <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Read the draft aloud.2. Think about sentences.3. Pay attention to “glue” and how text holds together.4. Think about word choice.5. Make sure writing works for the audience.	
Editing <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Check and correct capitalization.2. Check and correct usage.3. Check and correct punctuation.4. Check and correct spelling.	
Publishing <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Do I want to publish?2. Reread aloud, considering purpose.3. Reread aloud, considering audience.	

Analyzing and Setting Literacy Goals

Analyze the following literacy goals that students have set for themselves. Circle the elements that each goal contains. If you think a goal should be rewritten, do so in the right column.

Goal	Goal Elements	Rewritten Goal (if needed)
I will get a six out of eight on the expository essay we will write tomorrow.	Specific Challenging Short-term Long-term Learning Performance	
I will use one of the eight new vocabulary words in my personal narrative this week.	Specific Challenging Short-term Long-term Learning Performance	
I will earn 25 points on our computerized reading program by the end of the semester.	Specific Challenging Short-term Long-term Learning Performance	
As I read in the next week, I will find at least one sentence that has commas in a series.	Specific Challenging Short-term Long-term Learning Performance	
I will make a 100 on my spelling test this Friday.	Specific Challenging Short-term Long-term Learning Performance	

Promoting a Growth Mindset Using a Picture Book

Materials

- *Thank You, Mr. Falker* by Patricia Polacco
- Other Polacco books (e.g., *Thunder Cake*, *Pink and Say*, *The Keeping Quilt*, *Chicken Sunday*)
- Two notecards—one with the term *natural ability* written on it and one with the word *effort*
- Chart paper for brainstorming things students think they do well and things students think they don't do well
- Trisha's Beliefs About Herself chart (page 5 of this handout) on chart paper with no highlighting
- Copy of Changing My Beliefs and Improving Myself sheet (pages 6 and 7 of this handout) for each student
- Writer's notebooks

Objective ("I Do")

"We often think of abilities as something we are born with. If we are not good at something, we sometimes think it is just part of who we are and there is nothing we can do about it. There is a different way to think about abilities, though. Instead of thinking of ourselves as good or bad at something, we can think of certain abilities as underdeveloped—areas in which we can work to grow and improve.

"In this lesson, we read about a character who believes herself to be an artist but not a reader. At first, she sees these aspects of herself as a permanent part of who she is, but then a teacher comes along to show her how she can work to be just as strong a reader as she is an artist."

Preteach Vocabulary

Show students the notecard with the term *natural ability* on it.

"*Natural ability* refers to being able to do something easily, or naturally. When we say that someone has a natural ability, it seems as if that person were born that way. For example, some people seem to have a natural ability to run fast. They seem like they were born that way. Other people seem to have a natural ability for singing or playing a musical instrument—it is like they were born being good at it."

Next, show them the notecard with the word *effort*.

"*Effort* refers to hard work. When you put in effort to do something, you work hard to accomplish it. I put in a lot of effort to learn how to read and write, especially when I was younger. But I still have to work hard, even now as an adult, to continue to get better in these areas.

“Some people think that you are either born with natural ability or you are not, and that if you have to put in too much effort to accomplish something, you must not be good enough at it or smart enough to accomplish it. We will read about a girl who thought this way until a teacher changed her mind.”

Brainstorming and Planning (“We Do”)

“Let’s list some things that we think that we are good at. For example, I am a pretty good basketball player, so I will put that.”

Put up a web or brainstorm chart to list some of the students’ responses.

“Now, let’s list some things that we think we are not good at. I think I am not good at learning to speak a new language, like Spanish, so I will put that one.”

Finish brainstorming with students.

Refer to the first list.

“How did we become good at the things on this list? Talk with your partners for a minute about how you have developed these abilities.”

Give students 30 to 45 seconds to discuss with their partners.

“Were you born being good at these things or did you practice them? Did you do them a lot? I worked hard to become a good basketball player. I spent hours dribbling the ball and shooting free throws so that I would get better. I put in a lot of effort. I was not born with natural ability.”

Refer to the second list.

“Now, let’s talk about the things on this list. Why do you think you are not as good at these things?”

Give students 30 to 45 seconds to discuss with their partners.

“Sometimes, we think that if we are not good at something, we will never be good at it—no matter how much effort we put into it. But I have a book that shows we might be wrong.”

Modeling (“I Do” and “We Do”)

Show students the book *Thank you, Mr. Falker*.

“The main character in this book is a girl named Trisha. Pay attention to how she thinks about herself and what she is good at and what she is not so good at.”

Read the book, stopping occasionally to discuss how Trisha feels about herself as an artist and as a reader and learner. Stop after the page that ends with these words: “You are going to read—I promise you that.”

Display the first section of the Trisha's Beliefs About Herself chart on chart paper.

“Let's look at how the author shows us how Trisha views herself as an artist and as a reader and learner. Here are some direct quotes from the book so far. Let's highlight words that tell us what she believes about herself.”

Have students help you highlight the key words. Suggested answers are provided on page 6 of this handout.

Then, have students turn to a partner and discuss what they notice about each column.

“Notice that Trisha thinks she is an excellent artist. She loves to draw. On the other hand, she thinks she is a terrible reader and calls herself ‘dumb’ quite a bit. These feelings cause her to hate school. She thinks she was born without natural ability in reading. Let's see whether Mr. Falker can help her change her beliefs about her reading and learning.”

Read the rest of the book, stopping to discuss how Mr. Falker helps Trisha. Help students to realize that this book is about the author herself.

Display the second section of the Trisha's Beliefs About Herself chart on chart paper. Have students help you highlight key words that show how Trisha's beliefs have changed about herself as a learner and about school.

Then, have students turn to a partner to discuss what they notice.

“Here is a girl who thought she wasn't smart and thought that no matter what anyone did, she would continue not to be smart. She felt that way from first grade all the way into fifth grade. That is five years! But then, Mr. Falker showed her she was wrong. She just needed someone to teach her, really teach her, how to read.

“Now look at her. She wrote this book and many others.”

Show some of Patricia Polacco's other books.

“We can see that she is still a wonderful artist, which she started practicing when she was little. But she also writes good stories, which means she has learned to be a good reader and a good writer. She worked at it, and now she is famous for something she did not think she would ever be able to do. What do you think about this?”

Have students turn to a partner and discuss this question. Then, discuss it as a whole class.

Graphic Organizer (“I Do” and “We Do”)

- Web or brainstormed lists of things students think do well and things students think they do not do well
- Changing My Beliefs and Improving Myself planning document

Shared and Guided Writing (“We Do”)

“Can we follow Patricia Polacco’s model? Is there something that you feel like you are not good at now but that you want to work at to become better? You can use something from the list we created earlier or something else.”

Use the Changing My Beliefs and Improving Myself sheet as students help you make a plan for changing your beliefs and working to improve your abilities within a specific area. An example of how to fill out this planning document is provided on pages 8 and 9 of this handout.

Independent Writing (“You Do”)

After students work with you in the whole group on your planning and drafting, have each student or pair of students choose one of the abilities from your brainstormed list or from their own lives to plan and draft their own essay. Have students draft on the Changing My Beliefs and Improving Myself sheet or in their writer’s notebooks.

Optional: Put students’ texts together to create a collaborative “Improving Myself” book.

Reflection (“We Do”)

Guide self-reflection through key questions such as the following.

“What did this activity tell you about natural ability and effort? Why is it important to know about these concepts?”

Optional Steps: Write and Reflect Again (“We Do” and “You Do”)

Have students revise their drafts for effective word choice and sentences.

Then, have students self-reflect on their writing by asking themselves questions such as the following.

“Who might be interested in reading my essay? What is the purpose of this piece of writing?”

Trisha's Beliefs About Herself

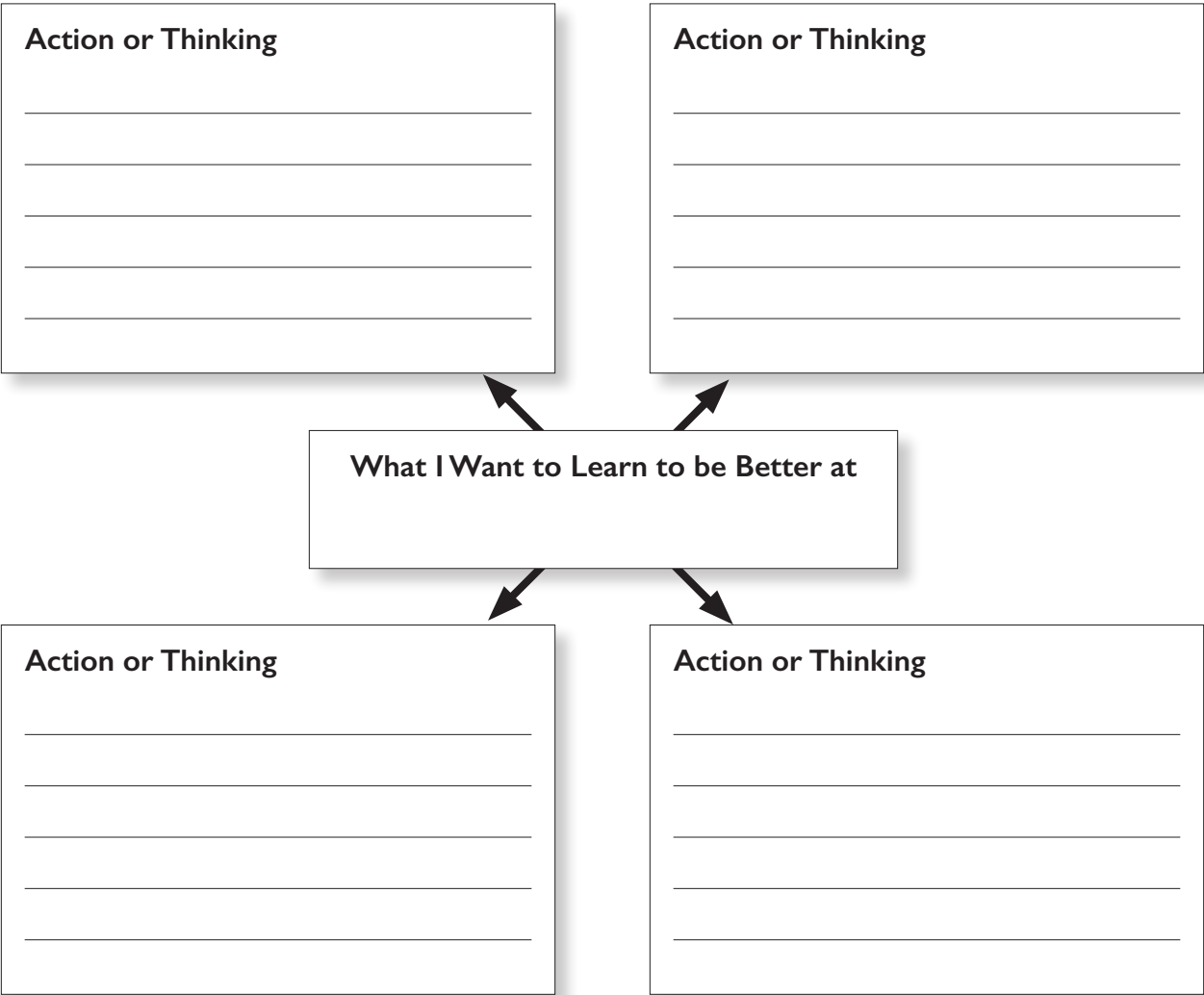
Herself as an Artist	Herself as a Reader and Learner
Before Mr. Falker helps her	
<p>"She loved being at school because she could draw. The other kids would crowd around her and watch her do her magic with the crayons."</p> <p>"The harder words got...the more and more time she spent drawing—how she loved to draw!"</p> <p>"She...drew more and more..."</p> <p>"Mr. Falker would stand behind Trisha whenever she was drawing and whisper, 'This is brilliant...absolutely brilliant.'"</p>	<p>"...she stayed alone in <i>Our Neighborhood</i>."</p> <p>"Trisha began to feel 'different.' She began to feel dumb."</p> <p>"Grama, do you think I'm...different?"</p> <p>"Do you think I'm smart?' Trisha didn't feel smart."</p> <p>"School seemed harder and harder now."</p> <p>"Reading was just plain torture."</p> <p>"She just knew she was dumb."</p> <p>"Maybe, though, the teachers and kids in her new school wouldn't know how dumb she was."</p> <p>"She was reading like a baby in the third grade!"</p> <p>"Now Trisha wanted to go to school less and less."</p> <p>"...she hated, hated, hated school."</p> <p>"Then, one day, she had to stand up and read, which she hated."</p> <p>"She felt completely alone."</p> <p>"You think you're dumb, don't you? How awful for you to be so lonely and afraid."</p>
After Mr. Falker helps her	
	<p>"Always sounding them out. And that felt good."</p> <p>"And deep down she still felt dumb."</p> <p>"Almost as if it were magic, or as if light poured into her brain, the words and sentences started to take shape..."</p> <p>"Then, she held the book, honey and all, close to her chest."</p> <p>"...she was happy, so very happy."</p> <p>"The rest of the year became an odyssey of discovery and adventure..."</p> <p>"She learned to love school."</p>

Changing My Beliefs and Improving Myself

Something I think I am not good at

Restating my belief about this ability

What I am willing to do to become better at it



First draft of my “Improving Myself” essay

[illegible]

Changing My Beliefs and Improving Myself

Something I think I am not good at

Speaking Spanish

Restating my belief about this ability

I think I have not had enough practice learning Spanish. I have practiced quite a bit with reading and writing Spanish, but I have not practiced enough with speaking it and learning new vocabulary. Those are things I want to get better at.

What I am willing to do to become better at it

Action or Thinking

I visited Honduras for 10 days. Most of the people I was around only spoke Spanish, and I started to get really good at understanding them and speaking to them, so I know if I just immerse myself in the language I will learn it.

Action or Thinking

I have a good friend who is bilingual and knows Spanish really well. When I go over to her house, I will ask her to speak to me only in Spanish for part of the time.

What I Want to Learn to be Better at

To speak Spanish with a lot of new vocabulary

Action or Thinking

I will get some children's books that are written in Spanish so that I can learn new vocabulary words. I will spend 30 minutes each night reading and saying the words.

Action or Thinking

I will have at least one conversation every day with a student in our class who speaks Spanish. I will ask the student to teach me at least one new word every day.

First draft of my “Improving Myself” essay

For a long time, I have thought that I am not good at learning languages. I got pretty good at reading and writing Spanish, but I could not understand it well when I heard it, and I could not speak it at all. Now I know that if I work at it, I can be good at understanding and speaking Spanish. It just takes hard work and practice.

When I was younger, I went to Honduras for 10 days. In Honduras, most of the people speak Spanish only, so I had to become good at understanding and speaking a little bit of Spanish. The longer I stayed there, the more words and phrases I picked up and spoke myself, so I know that if I just immerse myself in Spanish, I will be able to learn it.

I know a few strategies to try to immerse myself in the language. First, I will have one of my good friends speak to me in Spanish more. When I visit her, I will ask her to speak to me only in Spanish for a little while. Next, I need to learn more vocabulary words, so I will go to the bookstore and buy a few children's books that can teach me vocabulary. I will spend at least 30 minutes each night reading and saying the new words from the books. Finally, a lot of students in this class can help me learn Spanish, so I will have at least one conversation every day with a student in Spanish. I will ask that student to teach me at least one word. That way, I will also learn new vocabulary words. I will use each of these strategies over the next six months to see whether my Spanish improves. I am definitely excited to get started!

Using Language Effectively in Literacy Classrooms

Noticing and Naming

One way we use language is to **notice what is happening around us and then name it**. The following examples show how you can model noticing and naming for your students and help your students do their own noticing and naming, which helps them to be more active, self-regulated readers and writers.

- “Did anyone notice _____?”
- “I see you know how to _____.”
- “Remember the first week when we had to work really hard at _____? Now you do it automatically.”
- “You know what I heard you doing just now? You may not have realized it.”
- “Tell me how it went. What went well? What questions were asked?”
- “What did you notice? Did any _____ surprise you?”

Creating Identities

This type of language helps students **discover who they are and who they can become**. This language can help students develop their identities as learners, readers, writers, etc.

- “As [writers, poets, readers, analysts, thinkers, scientists, etc.], how should we handle this?”
- In response to problematic behavior: “That is not like you.”
- “I wonder if, as a [writer, poet, reader, etc.], you are ready for this.”
- “I bet you are proud of yourself.”
- “What are you doing as a [writer, poet, reader, etc.] today?”
- “What have you learned most recently as a [writer, poet, reader, etc.]?”

Supporting Autonomy and Agency

This type of language allows students to **take control of their learning and develop internalized motivation**.

- “How did you figure that out?”
- “What problems did you come across today?”
- “How are you planning to go about this?”
- “Where are you going with this [piece of writing, line of thinking, discussion, etc.]?”

- “You really have me interested in this [character, story, idea, etc.] because of _____, and if you _____, I will get an even stronger sense of what you are trying to accomplish.”
- “It seems to me that you made a conscious choice to [use these specific words, include that detail, etc.].”
- “Why _____?”

Developing Ability to Generalize and Make Connections

The purpose of this language is to help students **stretch their current thinking**. This type of language invites students to think critically about their learning and their own use of language. It also helps students make connections between ideas, texts, experiences, knowledge, etc. One method is to play with language and its rules (use nonsense rhymes, parody, etc.). See the following examples for more ideas.

- “One thing that people do when they _____ is think of what they know. [Writers, Poets, Readers, etc.] do this, too. Let’s try it.”
- “How else _____?”
- “That is like _____.”
- “What if _____?”

Constructing Knowledge

We want students to **contemplate, wonder, and consider what it means to know something**. Using language like in the following examples gets students thinking about their own thinking and what it means to be knowledgeable. As you can see in the last example, this type of language also can prompt students to question others’ knowledge. We want students to be able to explain their thinking and provide evidence.

- “Let’s see if I have this right.” Then summarize what a student or group of students has said.
- “Thanks for straightening me out.”
- “That is an interesting way of looking at it. I had not thought about it that way. I will have to think about it some more.”
- “How did you know?”
- “How could we check?”
- “Would you agree with that?”

Creating a Community of Learners

This type of language **creates the sense of a collaborative environment** in which we support one another in learning. We look to one another as fellow readers, writers, and thinkers who can provide ideas, make suggestions, demonstrate skills, etc.

- “We _____.”
- “Who else would _____?”
- “Any compliments?”
- “I wonder _____.”
- “Are there other ways to think about that?”
- “What are you thinking? Stop and talk to your neighbor about it.”
- “You managed to figure that out with each other’s help. How did you do that?”
- “That just reminded me of something. Thank you. Let me write it down.”

Adapted from Johnston, 2004.

Scenarios to Practice Language Use

Four scenarios from literacy classrooms are provided below. Imagine that you are the teacher in each of these scenarios. Using Handout 7 as a reference, write the language you would use to support students' motivation, thinking, and learning.

Scenario	Your Response
Your classroom does not seem to be functioning well. Students yell. They constantly bicker and fight with one another. They compare their performance to see who is smarter or better. How can you get the classroom working better as a community?	
Your students struggle to use text evidence. They respond to inference questions and other higher-level questions with random connections that have nothing to do with what the text says. You want to motivate students to go back to the text to find evidence for their answers.	
Your students seem to grasp what you teach related to reading, but this knowledge doesn't transfer to their own writing. How can you help students make the connection between reading and their own writing?	
Several of your students struggle with writing—even with writing a complete sentence. These students have no motivation to write and do not see themselves as capable of effective written communication. How can you get them motivated to write?	

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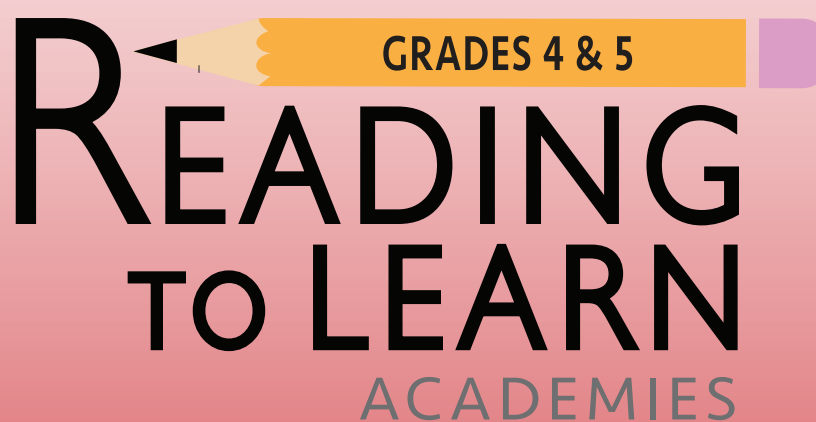
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Motivating and Engaging Students

Presenter Resources



GRADE 4

Evaluating Student Autonomy

Three example instructional practices from literacy classrooms are described below. For each example, rate the level of student autonomy the practice provides. Then, provide suggestions for ways to build more student autonomy into the instructional practice.

Use the following scale to rate the level of student autonomy.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High

Example	Student Autonomy Rating	Suggestions to Build Greater Student Autonomy
Each Monday, students are given a list of spelling words on which they will be tested on Friday. During the week, students are expected to take the words home to memorize and copy over and over. After they take the test on Friday, the teacher grades it, counting each word spelled correctly or incorrectly, and gives each student their grade on Monday. Students must then copy the words they missed again the following week.	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allow students to choose words from the list to write in sentences and sort into groups based on patterns. Ask students to look for other words that have the orthographic or morphological pattern in their reading and writing. Add these words to a student-generated list.
A teacher is planning a three-week unit on stars. She needs texts to use for read-alouds and student projects, so she asks the students to help her evaluate books, magazine articles, and the science text. Students use the Text Review sheet (pages 2–3 of this handout) to review texts in small groups and partners during workstation time. The teacher collects these reviews at the end of the week to plan which texts she will use.	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask students to bring in their own texts related to stars or to find texts in the library. Highlight students' feedback about a text. For example, "Several of you gave this book a favorable review. Will liked how the pictures helped him understand the text, and Vanessa thought it was well organized."
As a warm-up at the beginning of each writing class, a teacher displays unrelated sentences written incorrectly. The teacher gives students five to eight minutes to correct these sentences independently. The teacher then calls on individual students to write on the board one correction of an error. Sometimes, the teacher collects the students' corrected sentences to give students a grammar grade.	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instead of unrelated sentences written incorrectly, display a sentence from a text students have read that has a grammatical element you want to focus on. Allow students to work in pairs to identify elements within the sentence. Then, let students share these elements and highlight the one you want to examine. Provide students a sentence anagram from something they have read or written. Let students work in pairs to build the sentence. Then, let each pair write a sentence and use it to create their own sentence anagram to share with another student pair.

Planning How to Model Self-Regulation in Writing

Imagine that you want to model and have students practice the steps of the writing process within a lesson on expository writing. This lesson will be a shared writing activity.

The lesson content has already been planned for you in the left column of the table below. Think about and note different self-regulation techniques you will use as an expository text writer. You will think aloud about and model these strategies for your students.

Lesson Content	Self-Regulation Techniques to Model
Planning <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Brainstorm ideas (think about purpose and audience).2. Choose an idea.3. Web support related to the idea.4. Create an initial thesis statement.5. Organize support using an outline.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self-talk related to the importance of planning• Self-talk about brainstorming and using my writer's notebook• Self-talk while using the writer's notebook to find ideas• Setting a realistic goal given the amount of time I have to work• Goal: Choosing an idea from my brainstormed list and drafting a thesis statement related to the idea
Drafting <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Draft our initial thesis sentence.2. Draft our support based on our outline.3. Draft our concluding paragraph.	

Possible Responses to

Analyzing and Setting Literacy Goals

Analyze the following literacy goals that students have set for themselves. Circle the elements that each goal contains. If you think a goal should be rewritten, do so in the right column.

Goal	Goal Elements	Rewritten Goal (if needed)
I will get a six out of eight on the expository essay we will write tomorrow.	<div>Specific</div> <div>Challenging</div> <div>Short-term</div> <div>Long-term</div> <div>Learning</div> <div>Performance</div>	Tomorrow, I will write an expository essay that has a clear thesis, is well organized, sticks to my thesis, and provides an interesting perspective.
I will use one of the eight new vocabulary words in my personal narrative this week.	<div>Specific</div> <div>Challenging</div> <div>Short-term</div> <div>Long-term</div> <div>Learning</div> <div>Performance</div>	I will use four of the eight new vocabulary words in my personal narrative this week.
I will earn 25 points on our computerized reading program by the end of the semester.	<div>Specific</div> <div>Challenging</div> <div>Short-term</div> <div>Long-term</div> <div>Learning</div> <div>Performance</div>	I will read at least five new books by the end of the semester.
As I read in the next week, I will find at least one sentence that has commas in a series.	<div>Specific</div> <div>Challenging</div> <div>Short-term</div> <div>Long-term</div> <div>Learning</div> <div>Performance</div>	
I will make a 100 on my spelling test this Friday.	<div>Specific</div> <div>Challenging</div> <div>Short-term</div> <div>Long-term</div> <div>Learning</div> <div>Performance</div>	I will practice words with the ____ pattern for 15 minutes every day this week so that I can read and spell them accurately.

Scenarios to Practice Language Use


Four scenarios from literacy classrooms are provided below. Imagine that you are the teacher in each of these scenarios. Using Handout 7 as a reference, write the language you would use to support students' motivation, thinking, and learning.

Scenario	Your Response
<p>Your classroom does not seem to be functioning well. Students yell. They constantly bicker and fight with one another. They compare their performance to see who is smarter or better. How can you get the classroom working better as a community?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct a read-aloud that focuses on the idea of community • During the read-aloud, ask questions that connect the story to our classroom experiences • Work on a shared writing piece explaining what it means to create a classroom community • Ask students to provide examples and nonexamples from our classroom to illustrate classroom community • During the lesson, use words and phrases like "We..." and "I wonder if we could..." and "You just gave me another idea."
<p>Your students struggle to use text evidence. They respond to inference questions and other higher-level questions with random connections that have nothing to do with what the text says. You want to motivate students to go back to the text to find evidence for their answers.</p>	
<p>Your students seem to grasp what you teach related to reading, but this knowledge doesn't transfer to their own writing. How can you help students make the connection between reading and their own writing?</p>	
<p>Several of your students struggle with writing—even with writing a complete sentence. These students have no motivation to write and do not see themselves as capable of effective written communication. How can you get them motivated to write?</p>	



Using Assessment Data

Presenter Notes

 A yellow pencil with a purple eraser and a black tip, positioned horizontally across the middle of the text.
READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Document camera
- Clipboard with blank paper for recording participant responses to show on document camera
- Laser pointer
- ELPS Academy: Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide
- Folder containing the following documents: Fluency Handout 2: Oral Reading Fluency Norms, Fluency Handout 5: Monitoring Reading Fluency, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary, Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope
- Video: Using Assessment Data
- Video: Oral Reading Fluency Sample
- Video: Retell Sample

Participant Materials

- Calculator
- ELPS Academy: Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide (one per participant)
- Folder containing the following documents: Fluency Handout 2: Oral Reading Fluency Norms, Fluency Handout 5: Monitoring Reading Fluency, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary, Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope

Materials to Provide Each Table

Guiding Questions document (two per table)



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Using Assessment Data

Slide 1—Title Slide

(0:00–0:10)

Welcome back. Let's begin the Using Assessment Data session.

Section Objectives



This section will enhance your knowledge of

- different types of data,
- their purposes, and
- how to use them effectively.



Slide 2—Section Objectives

(0:10–1:10)

Take a moment to review the objectives on the slide. These objectives should guide your learning in this section and support your thinking as you reflect on the guiding questions.

Allow a few seconds for participants to read the slide.

Let's return to the reading rope. Find Handout 1: The Reading Rope in your folder. This handout is from the Overview section of this academy.

As participants locate the handout, display your copy on the document camera.

In this section, we will learn how to collect assessment data and monitor the progression of skills included in the language comprehension and word recognition strands of the rope. Assessing students and using data to plan instruction helps us to ensure that students have developed all of the skills needed to read to learn new information.

Quickly look over the strands of the rope to review the components of reading we will refer to in this section.

Allow a few seconds. Then ask participants to place the handout back in the folder.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Questions to Address

- Why should we use assessment data in fourth grade?
- What kind of data should we use in fourth grade?
- How should we assess and use data in fourth grade?
- Are we using data effectively?
- What are our next steps?



Slide 3—Questions to Address

(1:10–1:40)

We will address the following questions during this session:

- Why should fourth-grade teachers not only collect, but also use assessment data?
- What kinds of data should we collect and use in fourth grade?
- How should we use these data?

After discussing the why, what, and how of using data, we will give you time to reflect and plan. As we work this afternoon, think about the following questions:

- How are we doing? Are we using data effectively?
- Can we take steps to improve how we use data?

Video: Using Assessment Data



As you watch the video, take notes related to the following questions:

- What do the teachers use their data for? How do the data affect their instruction?
- How do the teachers use data to differentiate their instruction?
- Which grouping formats do the teachers use?
- What kinds of activities do students participate in across the different grouping formats?



Slide 4—Video: Using Assessment Data

(1:40–8:30)

Before we begin, we will watch a video on using assessment data. As you watch, take notes related to the questions on the slide.

Video: Using Assessment Data

Play the video.

Discuss the questions on the slide with your tablemates. You have two minutes.

Give participants two minutes to discuss the questions. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Have a few participants share their thinking. (You may want to use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants' responses.)

Why Should We Use Data?

Effective teachers “question themselves, they worry about which students are not making progress, they seek evidence of successes and gaps, and they seek help when they need it in their teaching.”

— Hattie, 2012, p. 11



Slide 5—Why Should We Use Data?

(8:30–8:50)

In his research, John Hattie finds that effective teachers know their impact. They consistently look for evidence of learning, whether it is happening or not. They know when students are not making adequate progress, and they do something about it.

Reference

Hattie, 2012, p. 11

Systematic Use of Data

- Allows for comparisons across students, classrooms, and schools
- Allows teachers to design more effective instruction
- Supports teachers in differentiating instruction
- Improves student achievement



Slide 6—Systematic Use of Data

(8:50–9:00)

More than 30 years of research demonstrates similar findings. When teachers systematically use data, their instruction improves and so do their students' learning outcomes.

References

Fuchs & Fuchs, 1986, 1991, 2001, 2011a, 2011b; Hosp & Hosp, 2003; Stecker & Fuchs, 2000

Systematic Use of Data (cont.)

- Allows educators to track student progress across time
- Helps teachers communicate with students and parents about progress
- Helps students take responsibility for their learning and progress



Slide 7—Systematic Use of Data (cont.)

(9:00–9:20)

Additionally, such data use allows teachers to track student progress and communicate more clearly and precisely with students and parents about that progress. When students analyze their own data, they take greater responsibility for their learning, developing self-regulation skills like setting goals and monitoring progress toward achieving those goals.

References

Davis, Fuchs, Fuchs, & Whinnery, 1995; Fuchs, Butterworth, & Fuchs, 1989; Hosp & Hosp, 2003; Marston, Diment, Allen, & Allen, 1992

Using Data to Differentiate

- Modeling more examples
- Scaffolding more extensively
- Allowing for extended practice opportunities
- Providing immediate, corrective feedback related to the task, process, or strategies used
- Using various grouping formats



Slide 8—Using Data to Differentiate

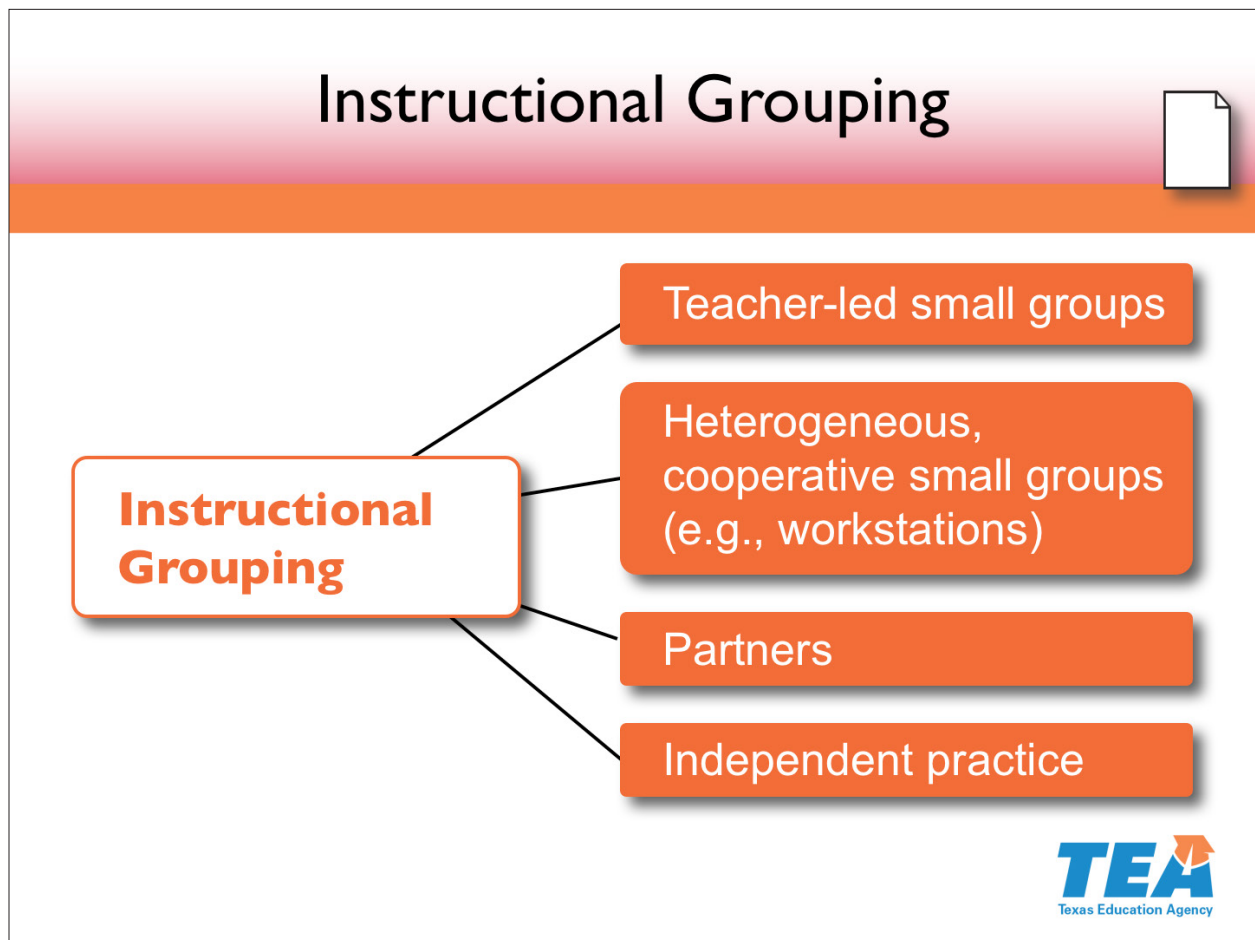
(9:20–9:40)

A key reason teachers collect and analyze data is to differentiate instruction based on students' strengths and needs. Data collected during various assessments may also be used to support a referral for formal dyslexia assessment or for a full comprehensive evaluation.

We have discussed a variety of methods for differentiating instruction over the past three days. Let's take a look at the last one—using various grouping formats.

References

Archer & Hughes, 2011; Gersten et al., 2008; Rosenshine, 2012; Vaughn, Wanzek, Murray, & Roberts, 2012



Slide 9—Instructional Grouping

(9:40–11:00)

No matter what you teach and have students practice—word study or writing, comprehension or vocabulary—you can use data to create and use various grouping formats, including

- teacher-led small groups;
- mixed-ability, cooperative groups like those used in workstations;
- student pairs; and
- individual students practicing on their own.

Locate and review **Handout 1: Grouping Plan**, which is a form to help you plan lessons and activities across these different types of groups.

Provide one minute for participants to locate and examine the handout.

References

Gersten et al., 2008; Kosanovich, Weinstein, & Goldman, 2009; Vaughn et al., 2012

Teacher-Led Small Groups

Can be used to target specific student needs, including the following:

- Students who struggle with a skill or concept
- Students who need enrichment to move beyond grade level
- Students who require more language support

Allow teachers to provide the following:

- More modeling
- More extensive scaffolding
- Extended practice opportunities
- Immediate feedback

Instructional Grouping



Slide 10—Teacher-Led Small Groups

(11:00–11:30)

Teacher-led small groups are based on students' similar needs or strengths. How do you know which students to group together or what to do with them? You use your data.

Do you have students who need work on decoding? If so, pull that group of students to work on sounding out, reading, and spelling words.

Do you have students who need extensive scaffolding for speaking in complete sentences? If so, use sentence stems to help this group practice academic language and speaking in simple sentences.

Maybe you have students who read above grade level. You can work with them on reading fluency and comprehension.

References

Elbaum, Vaughn, Hughes, & Moody, 1999; Foorman & Torgesen, 2001; Vaughn et al., 2003; Vaughn et al., 2012

Heterogeneous, Cooperative Small Groups and Partners

- Provide extended practice opportunities of previously taught skills with support from peers
- Give students the chance to scaffold and model strategies for one another
- Provide time for students to discuss strategies, thinking, and learning processes
- Foster oral language development, especially with academic language

Instructional Grouping



Slide 11—Heterogeneous, Cooperative Small Groups and Partners

(11:30–12:00)

Teachers often ask what the rest of the class should do while they work with students in small groups. Our answer: Students should practice previously taught reading skills and strategies. Much of this extended practice should occur in mixed-ability small groups or pairs so that students can provide modeling and scaffolding for each other. Other benefits include developing students' oral language and improving motivation.

Reference

Kosanovich et al., 2009

Grouping: Lesson Plan



- On Handout 2, what do you notice about the small-group lessons? How do the plans change from group to group?
- What do you notice about the partner work versus workstations versus independent work?
- Why did the teacher write how much time he thinks the partner work, workstations, and independent work will take? Why might this be important to consider?

Instructional Grouping



Slide 12—Grouping: Lesson Plan

(12:00–16:00)

Locate Handout 2: Grouping Plan: Fourth-Grade Example.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout shows how one teacher planned her teacher-led small groups, workstations, partner work, and independent practice based on her class data.

Activity

Take three minutes to examine the handout and discuss the questions on the slide with your partner.

Give participants three minutes to work with their partners. Walk around and listen to the discussions. Have a few participants share their thinking.

Possible responses:

Notes continue on the next page.

Question 1: Each small group has a different instructional focus. The first is working on reading and spelling short vowel sounds, and the next two are working on reading and spelling words that have the long-a or long-a/long-e sounds. The fourth group is working on more advanced skills and concepts, and the fifth group is getting feedback on their writing. The first group is working on below-grade-level skills, the next two are working on grade-level skills, and the fourth group is working on grade-level or above-grade-level skills.

Question 2: The partner work includes activities that students can do with support from each other. Spelling, the phrase game, and putting words in sentences make sense to do in partners because students will get more opportunities to respond than if they worked in a larger group, like at a workstation. The workstation activities—a word sort and sentence anagrams—lend themselves more to three or four students working together to support each other and discuss their ideas. The independent work seems to be activities for the teacher to check student understanding. She may want to assess whether students have mastered what they should have during the whole-group comprehension lesson and prior punctuation and capitalization lessons.

Question 3: Consideration of time is essential to effective classroom management. If the activities in partners, workstations, and independent work take too long, students will not finish. If the activities take too little time, students will finish quickly and then possibly cause disruptions. If you add up the time amounts, they equal 53 minutes, which is almost one hour. Perhaps she's planning to spend about one hour working with students in small groups while other students work in partners, at workstations, or independently.

Workstation Planning Form



- Objective, activity, and materials
- Differentiation to meet students' needs
- Student interaction
- Choice
- Student accountability (evidence of practice and learning)

Instructional Grouping



Slide 13—Workstation Planning Form

(16:00–17:30)

Workstations provide students with extended, supported practice opportunities related to skills and concepts. Let's explore a few workstation ideas in **Handout 3: Workstation Planning Form**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Do you include all of these elements in your workstations?

On the second page, you will see an example for a partner reading workstation in a fourth-grade classroom. Examine the example and identify one element that you want to emphasize in planning your own workstations.

Allow one minute for participants to work.

At workstations, students can work in partners or in mixed-ability groups. Partner activities provide for more response opportunities and feedback, so this grouping

Notes continue on the next page.

format may be especially beneficial for struggling students. Additionally, some teachers find student pairs easier to manage than groups of three or four students.

When planning for mixed-ability groups of three to four, you may want to assign roles, such as leader, recorder, timekeeper, or discussion manager. The purpose of this grouping format is to develop students' cooperative skills while at the same time having students scaffold and support one another. Interaction and discussion are key to the success of such groups.

Partnering Students



- On Handout 4, why did the teacher divide the list in half (in Step 2) and move the halves next to each other (in Step 3)?
- Read Step 5. Do the teacher's decisions make sense? Why or why not?
- This example uses oral reading fluency data. What other kinds of data could you use to partner students?

Instructional Grouping



Slide 14—Partnering Students

(17:30–20:30)

Similar to workstations, partner work allows students to practice specific skills and concepts with support. Locate **Handout 4: Partnering Students Example**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

In the Fluency section of this academy, we briefly looked at partnering students for paired reading. This handout demonstrates how to partner students using oral reading fluency data in more detail.

Activity

Take two minutes to look over the example and discuss the questions on the slide with those at your table.

Give participants two minutes to work. Walk around and listen to the table discussions. Have a few participants share their thinking. (You may want to use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants' responses.)

Independent Practice

- Should be provided after students demonstrate mastery in cooperative groups or with partners
- Allows teacher to assess student mastery of skills and concepts
- Helps students develop fluency and practice to automaticity
- Provides data related to student learning and progress, which can inform instructional adaptations and decisions

Instructional Grouping



Slide 15—Independent Practice

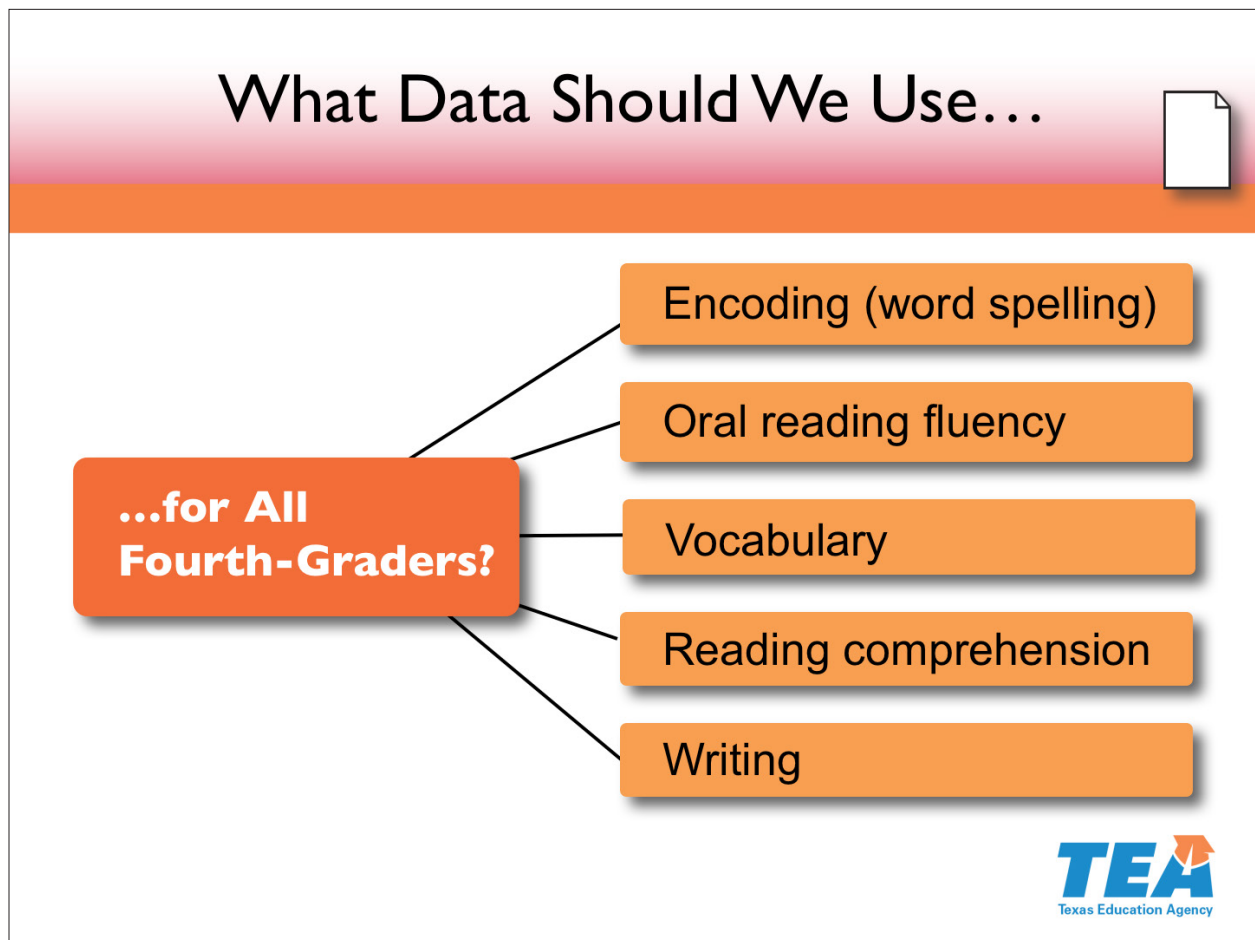
(20:30–21:00)

Now we will focus on independent practice.

After students demonstrate mastery of skills and concepts in mixed-ability groups and pairs, they can practice independently. Research shows that such extended practice allows learners to build automaticity. It also provides opportunities for you to learn where students need additional feedback, scaffolding, and reteaching.

Reference

Archer & Hughes, 2011



Slide 16—What Data Should We Use for All Fourth-Graders?

(21:00–22:00)

Now that we have discussed the “why” of using data—to differentiate instruction and create various grouping formats—let’s discuss which data we should collect and use. This slide lists several types of data that research shows should be examined in fourth grade. Take a moment to read the slide. You’ll see that the data types listed here directly correspond to the content from our academy sections.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Please locate **Handout 5: Fourth-Grade Assessment Examples**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout lists these data types with descriptions and examples. Notice that these assessments align with the TEKS that we have discussed in previous sections.

Keep this handout out to make notes as we briefly discuss each type.

Encoding

- Students spell words with orthographic patterns that will be taught across the year.
- The teacher examines spelling errors.

Data for All Students



Slide 17—Encoding

(22:00–22:20)

Encoding, or spelling, is the flip side of decoding, or word reading. Students' spelling abilities and spelling errors can provide specific information about their phonological abilities, orthographic knowledge, and even morphological knowledge, or knowledge of how meaning influences spelling.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Oral Reading Fluency

- Students read a grade-level text while being timed (usually for a minute).
- The teacher follows along, marking words misread or skipped.
- Scores include accuracy (the percentage of words read correctly out of the total words read) and rate (the words correct per minute)
- Additional data come from analyzing a student's miscues, evaluating phrasing, and listening for prosodic elements.

Data for All Students



Slide 18—Oral Reading Fluency

(22:20–23:00)

Oral reading fluency correlates strongly with reading comprehension, especially in the elementary grades. These measures give two scores—one for accuracy and one for fluency.

Accuracy is the percentage of words read correctly out of the total number of words read. It is indicative of students' sight-word knowledge and decoding ability. Fluency is the words read correctly per minute. This score is indicative of the rate at which students automatically apply their orthographic knowledge while reading connected text.

In addition to these quantitative scores, you can conduct qualitative analyses, including examining the words that students misread; evaluating students' ability to phrase, or chunk, text; and listening for prosodic elements like correct accenting and intonation—raising or lowering the voice.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Vocabulary

- **Receptive vocabulary:** Students identify a picture (usually out of four) that matches a given word.
- **Expressive vocabulary:** Students name a picture of a person, object, or action or give the definition of a word.
- **Relational vocabulary:** Students tell how two or three words are alike.
- **General vocabulary:** Students give a synonym or antonym for a word, use a given word in a sentence, or orally fill in the blank in a sentence.

Data for All Students



Slide 19—Vocabulary

(23:00–23:30)

There are many different options for assessing vocabulary. The assessment you choose depends on whether you want to examine a student's receptive, expressive, or relational vocabulary. Vocabulary measures vary in their use of pictures, definitions, sentences, synonyms, and antonyms.

Depending on the chosen assessment, you may get different results. For example, it is common for a student to have much stronger receptive vocabulary than expressive vocabulary, meaning they know the meaning of more words than you hear them speak or see them write.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Reading Comprehension



After reading a text, students do one of the following:

- Orally answer open-ended questions, both literal and inferential
- Answer multiple-choice questions
- Respond in writing to open-ended questions
- Retell a story or what was learned from an informational text

Students read a text and fill in blanks, using one of the following procedures:

- Maze: Answers are chosen from three options.
- Cloze: No choices are provided.

Data for All Students



Slide 20—Reading Comprehension

(23:30–25:00)

Comprehension may be the most difficult reading component to measure. As with vocabulary, different comprehension measures tap into different knowledge and skills. This slide provides different options for assessing comprehension.

Students may perform differently depending on the chosen comprehension assessment. For example, a student may display weaker comprehension abilities when answering open-ended questions versus multiple-choice questions. Having students answer in writing versus orally can also affect comprehension scores.

When answering inferential questions, have students prove their responses by returning to the text to cite evidence. When possible, ask students about their thinking in relation to the text and how they derived meaning from it.

Notes continue on the next page.

Another method for assessing comprehension is having students retell a story or what they learned from an informational text. Locate **Handout 6: Story Retelling Record Sheet**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout can help you evaluate students' story-retelling abilities. Note how the record sheet has you evaluate the student's ability to sequence events, provide main ideas, and identify details of the setting and characters.

Pause for participants to review the handout.

One other method for assessing comprehension is a maze or cloze measure. Both measures use fill-in-the-blank responses, but a maze measure provides three possible choices for each blank. A cloze measure does not provide answer choices.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Writing

- Output
- Mechanics
- Vocabulary
- Sentence structure
- Organization of ideas
- Voice
- Genre (or text) elements

Data for All Students



Slide 21—Writing

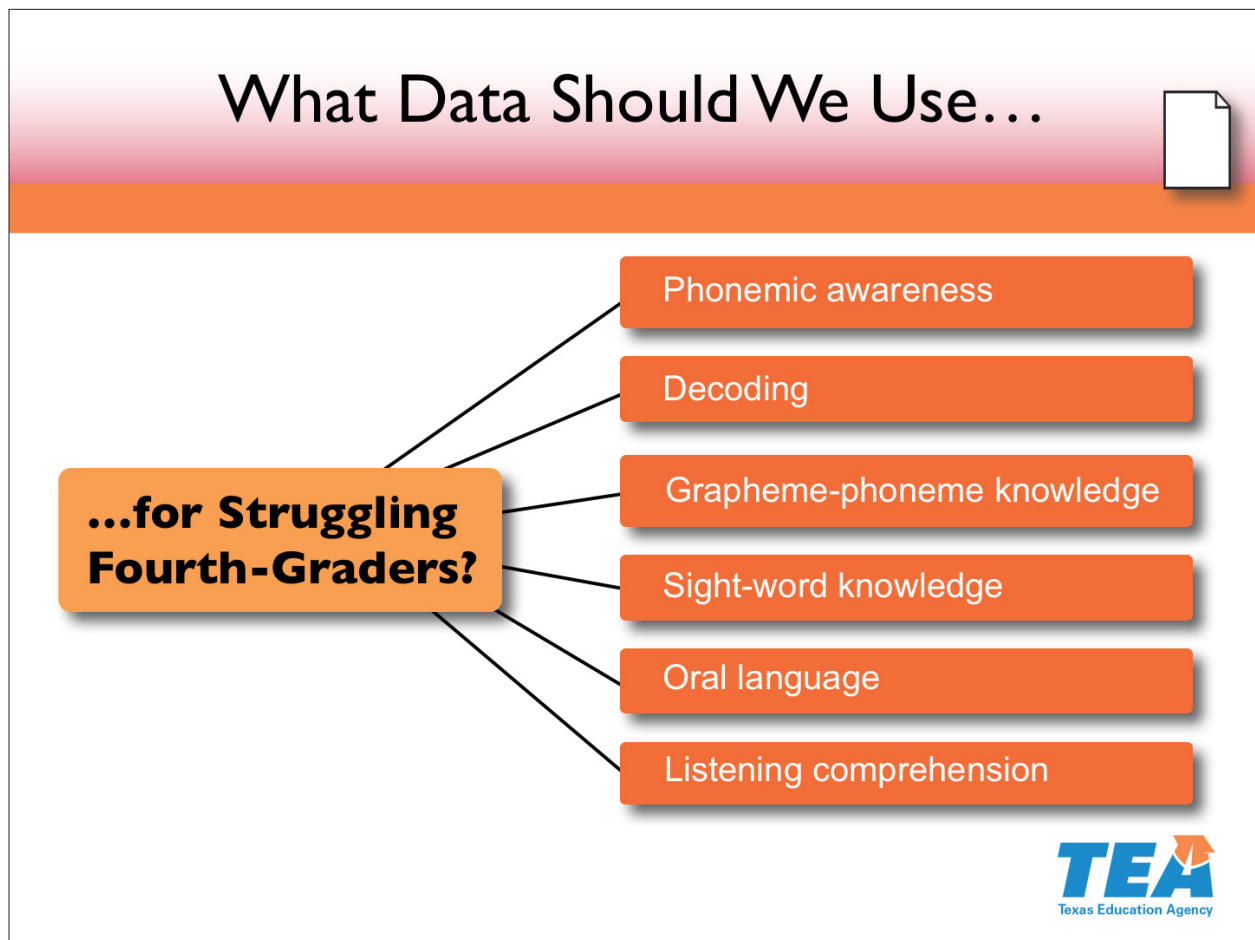
(25:00–25:20)

Measures of overall writing quality assess the effectiveness of a piece of writing, which may include the elements listed on this slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Reference

Graham et al., 2012



Slide 22—What Data Should We Use for Struggling Fourth-Graders? (25:20–25:40)

This slide lists additional data that research shows should be examined for struggling fourth-grade students. Take a moment to read the slide.

Pause for participants to read the slide.

Pages 3 and 4 of Handout 5 include information about possible assessments for students who struggle.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Phonemic Awareness



- Students blend, segment, or manipulate individual sounds in words.
- The teacher records students' correct and incorrect responses.
- The teacher examines the errors.

Data for Struggling Students



Slide 23—Phonemic Awareness

(25:40–27:00)

If students demonstrate difficulty with decoding, spelling, or maybe even fluency, you could assess their phonemic awareness skills. Research indicates that for students in fourth grade and beyond, proficiency with advanced phonemic awareness skills like deletion or substitution of sounds is strongly related to reading ability.

I will share some example skills. We will work together to practice some of the skills our struggling fourth-graders might encounter. Refer to page three of Handout 5. Let's begin.

Pause for participants to answer each of the following questions and prompts.

This first two are examples of deletion tasks.

Say *his*. Now say *his* without the /h/. (*is*)

Notes continue on the next page.

Say *fright*. Now say *fright* without the /t/. (*fry*)

Next, we will substitute phonemes, the smallest unit of sounds in words.

Say *fry*. Now replace the /f/ with /t/. (*try*)

Say *test*. Now replace the /s/ with /n/. (*tent*)

When assessing phonemic awareness, keep track of not only students' correct and incorrect responses, but also their proficiency in responding. Consistently slow responses indicate a lack of phonemic proficiency, which relates to word reading and fluency difficulties.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a, 2015b; Spear-Swerling, 2015; Vaessen & Blomert, 2010

Decoding

- Students read a list of nonsense, or make-believe, words.
- The assessment can be timed or untimed.

Data for Struggling Students



Slide 24—Decoding

(27:00–27:20)

As we have discussed, decoding refers to sounding out and reading words. Research-based decoding assessments often use nonsense, or make-believe, words. These measures ensure that students demonstrate decoding abilities without using word meaning to support their word-reading skills.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Grapheme-Phoneme Knowledge

- Students say the sounds of a given list of letters and letter combinations.
- Students write the matching letter or letter combination(s) of an orally presented sound.
- Students read words with various orthographic patterns (e.g., closed syllables, vowel teams).
- These measures can be timed or untimed.

Data for Struggling Students



Slide 25—Grapheme-Phoneme Knowledge

(27:20–28:00)

When students demonstrate difficulty with decoding, spelling, or fluency, more information about their grapheme-phoneme knowledge can be helpful. These assessments include reading or spelling individual letters or letter combinations. These assessments also include using grapheme-phoneme knowledge to read words with various orthographic patterns, such as

- closed syllables,
- consonant digraphs,
- vowel teams, and
- consonant-*le*.

These measures are more extensive than the decoding ones discussed previously and provide more in-depth information about a student's orthographic knowledge. They can be timed to assess both accuracy and fluency or untimed.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Sight-Word Knowledge

- Students read a list of words.
- The list may include high-frequency words or words increasing in difficulty.
- These assessments can be timed or untimed.

Data for Struggling Students



Slide 26—Sight-Word Knowledge

(28:00–28:30)

If a student demonstrates difficulty with oral reading fluency or accuracy, you may want to administer a sight-word assessment, which provides information about words the student knows automatically, or by sight. Often, these assessments are a list of high-frequency words that students should master across the curriculum. Sometimes, these measures use words that increase in difficulty as the student moves down the list. Usually, these assessments are timed, but they can be untimed.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a

Oral Language

Sentence-level assessments

- Sentence memory: Students repeat sentences of increasing length.
- Sentence grammar: Students identify whether a sentence is spoken correctly.
- Sentence meaning: Students decide whether two spoken sentences have the same meaning.

Discourse-level assessments

Given a spoken question or statement, students point to a part of a picture or one of four pictures.

Data for Struggling Students



Slide 27—Oral Language

(28:30–29:00)

When students decode and read words fluently but struggle with comprehension, it may help to get more information about their oral language skills. As with vocabulary, multiple measures of oral language exist. Most of these assessments focus on different sentence-level abilities, including remembering sentences, identifying whether a sentence makes sense, and evaluating whether two sentences have the same meaning.

To assess language beyond the sentence level, some assessments provide a few short sentences with a question or statement and have the student point to part of a picture or one of several pictures.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

Listening Comprehension



- Used to assess students who struggle with reading comprehension but do not demonstrate difficulties in decoding, word reading, or fluency
- Provides data similar to reading comprehension but removes the influence of word-reading ability
- Used to diagnose whether a student's comprehension problems stem from language or understanding difficulties or from word reading difficulties

Data for Struggling Students



Slide 28—Listening Comprehension

(29:00–33:00)

If a student demonstrates reading comprehension problems, you may choose to administer a listening comprehension assessment to compare the student's performance on the two measures. By administering a listening comprehension assessment, you remove the influence of word-reading skills on the comprehension outcomes.

If a student performs significantly better on a listening comprehension assessment than a reading comprehension assessment, it's likely the student's reading difficulties stem from word-reading problems. However, if the student performs poorly on both types of comprehension assessments, the student's reading difficulties likely stem from struggles with language or understanding.

Activity

Place the Activity Resource on the document camera.

Notes continue on the next page.

We have gone over several areas to assess in reading. On Handout 5: Fourth-Grade Assessment Examples, place a checkmark next to the components you feel comfortable assessing and examining. Then, put a star next to the two components you feel you need more support with or more information about how to assess them effectively.

Give participants one minute to do the activity.

Now, we will take a moment to discuss assessing these different components. Please stand and take five steps in any direction until you have found a new partner.

Pause for participants to stand and move to a new place in the room.

With your new partner, discuss how you feel about assessing these different components and what you have learned over the last 11 slides.

Allow two minutes for participants to talk. Walk around and listen to the discussions. (You may want to call on a few participants to share their thinking.) Then have participants return to their seats.

References

Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015a; Spear-Swerling, 2015

How Should We Assess?



Assess across different literacy areas, including the following:

- Decoding and encoding
- Oral reading fluency
- Vocabulary and listening and reading comprehension
- Writing

Use reliable, valid assessments, including the following:

- Universal screening and benchmark measures
- Diagnostic measures
- Progress-monitoring measures
- Summative assessments
- Language assessments



Slide 29—How Should We Assess?

(33:00–34:00)

It is important to assess multiple aspects of fourth-grade students' early literacy. That is the only way to ensure we create all of the components of the rope that, when woven together, will create successful and proficient readers and writers. The elements listed here are similar to the ones we explored in the rubrics in the Writing section.

No matter which component we want to examine, reliable, valid measures must be used. A reliable assessment consistently measures a component. A valid assessment measures what it is supposed to measure. Be aware that multiple measures with no proven reliability or validity are widely used. We do not want to make instructional, life-affecting decisions for our fourth-grade students by using these inaccurate, invalid assessments.

Next, we will look at different purposes for assessments in fourth grade.

References

Farrall, 2012; Fuchs & Fuchs, 2011a, 2011b; Gersten et al., 2008; Spear-Swerling, 2015; Vaughn, Wanzek, Woodruff, & Thompson, 2007

How Should We Assess? (cont.)

Universal Screening and Benchmark Measures

- Are quick to administer
- Are used with **all** students three to four times a year
- Assess grade-level performance
- Identify students on grade level and students at risk

Data Uses

- Examine whole-class needs
- Group students for targeted small-group instruction
- Examine individual students' strengths and needs



Slide 30—How Should We Assess? (cont.)

(34:00–34:30)

Universal screening and benchmark measures are given to all students three or four times a year. These are quick assessments. Measures that take 30 to 45 minutes per student do not fall into this category.

The purpose of a reliable screener is to screen out students who demonstrate mastery of highly predictive skills and to identify students who do not demonstrate such mastery.

Fourth-grade teachers using research-based screening tools will more easily identify which students meet grade-level expectations and which students may need more targeted instruction.

Screening data provide information about the whole class. These data allow teachers to look at groups of students and at individual student strengths and needs.

References

Farrall, 2012; Gersten et al., 2008; Spear-Swerling, 2015; Vaughn et al., 2007

Screening Data: Modeling



Class 1

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	Spelling		Oral Reading Fluency		Reading Comprehension	
			BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY
Jessica	N	N	I	S	S	B	I	S
Marta	Y	N	I	B	I	S	I	S
Zoe	N	Y	I	I	S	S	I	B
Aiden	N	N	S	I	B	B	B	B
Sebastian	Y	N	S	S	S	B	I	I
Noel	Y	N	I	S	B	B	S	S
Josiah	N	N	S	B	B	B	B	B
Jaiden	N	Y	S	B	B	B	B	B
Zach	N	N	B	B	S	B	B	S
Karla	Y	N	I	S	I	S	I	I
Enrique	N	N	B	B	B	B	I	I
Emma	N	N	I	S	I	I	S	B
Lucas	Y	N	S	I	S	S	S	S
Jackson	N	Y	I	B	I	S	B	B
Oliver	N	N	B	B	S	B	S	S
Sofia	Y	N	I	I	I	S	I	I
Hannah	N	N	I	B	B	B	B	B
Carlos	N	N	I	S	I	I	B	B
Tristan	Y	N	S	I	S	S	I	S
Santiago	N	N	S	B	B	B	S	S



Slide 31—Screening Data: Modeling

(34:30–39:30)

Next, we will practice using fourth-grade screening data. Please locate **Handout 7: Sample Screening Data** and **Handout 8: Screening Beginning to Middle of Year**.

Pause for participants to locate the handouts.

Handout 7 shows sample screening data for two fourth-grade classes, and Handout 8 provides a data analysis chart and a small-group planning chart.

I will use the data for Class 1 on Handout 7 and the chart on page 1 of Handout 8 to model one method for analyzing screening data at two time points—the beginning of the year, or BOY, and the middle of the year, or MOY. These charts reflect example data similar to that provided by many research-based screening instruments. The data are not from any screening instrument in particular.

Notes continue on the next page.

Note to Presenter

To prevent conflicts of interest, no reference to specific assessment instruments is allowed in this section.

To begin, we will review the data in Handout 7. The first three columns provide each student's name, English language learner status, and special education status.

The next columns show three types of screening data—spelling skills, oral reading fluency, and reading comprehension skills. These data were collected at two time points, BOY and MOY. The letters correspond to the following three levels of student performance:

- Benchmark, which is represented by the letter *B*, means the student performed at or above grade level on the assessment.
- Strategic, which is represented by the letter *S*, means the student did not meet grade-level expectations and may need strategic support.
- Intensive, which is represented by the letter *I*, means the student performed far below grade-level expectations and may need intensive support.

Because we have two data points, BOY and MOY, we can look at students' progress. Did they move from more struggling (intensive) to less struggling (strategic) or even to benchmark (on grade level)?

Next, we will examine the chart on page 1 of Handout 8.

Display the completed chart on page 1 of Handout 8 on the document camera.

The data chart shows students who moved in levels of performance and students who did not move for each of the assessed skills (spelling, oral reading fluency, and reading comprehension). The first three columns show students who are at benchmark at MOY. The next column shows students who moved from intensive to strategic. The last column shows students below benchmark who did not improve or who dropped in their performance level.

When we see the data displayed this way, we can answer the question, "Are a significant number of students making progress?" And we can answer it in each assessed reading component.

In spelling, most students made progress. Of the 20 total students, five moved from more struggling to less struggling and six moved to benchmark. That is 11 students! But six students either did not improve or moved from less struggling to more struggling. We need to ask more questions about why this might be.

In oral reading fluency, seven students started the year at benchmark. Eight students moved from more struggling to less struggling or to benchmark. But, again, quite a few students, five, did not improve.

The reading comprehension data are not as positive. A significant number of students struggled in this area and did not make the progress we would like to see. These data indicate that although students' fluency is improving, many continue to struggle with comprehension.

Now, we will look at the Possible Instructional Small Groups chart on the next page.

Show this chart and discuss each small group.

Each group has an instructional focus, students needing support in that area, and additional information about the instruction to be provided.

- Group 1 includes students struggling in both spelling and oral reading fluency.
- Group 2 includes students struggling in spelling.
- Group 3 includes students struggling in oral reading fluency.
- Group 4 includes students struggling in reading comprehension.
- Group 5 includes students performing at benchmark across the board, so they can work on building fluency and comprehension with above-grade-level text.

Using a chart like this allows us to group students for instruction to focus on specific needs or areas of strength.

Screening Data: Practice



Class 2

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	Spelling		Oral Reading Fluency		Reading Comprehension	
			BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY
Freda	Y	N	S	B	B	B	I	S
Gabriel	N	N	B	B	B	B	B	B
Annella	N	N	I	B	S	B	I	I
Chance	N	N	B	B	I	B	S	S
Roshan	N	N	I	I	S	S	I	I
Arjun	Y	N	I	B	S	B	S	B
Kelsey	N	N	S	S	B	B	I	S
Prima	N	N	B	B	B	B	S	B
Alex	N	N	B	B	B	S	B	S
Erika	Y	N	B	B	S	B	S	S
Natalia	N	N	I	S	I	I	S	S
Ryan	N	N	S	S	S	S	I	B
Danika	Y	N	S	B	B	B	I	S
Makaila	N	Y	I	I	I	I	B	B
Preston	N	N	B	B	S	B	B	B
David	Y	N	S	B	B	B	S	S
Saul	N	N	B	B	S	S	B	S
Yahir	N	N	I	B	I	B	S	B
Rey	Y	N	I	S	I	B	I	I
Ashley	N	Y	S	B	B	B	I	I



Slide 32—Screening Data: Practice

(39:30–47:30)

Activity

On Handout 7, locate the data for Class 2 on page 2. On Handout 8, locate the blank charts on pages 3 and 4.

Pause for participants to locate the pages.

Work with your partner and use the data for Class 2. Practice the same analysis and grouping decisions that we reviewed for Class 1. First, write the students' names in the appropriate boxes in the Student Movement chart. Then, note patterns in the data and what the patterns might mean. Finally, use the data to create small groups, each with a specific instructional focus. You have seven minutes to work.

Give participants seven minutes to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. At the end of the seven minutes, have participants share what they learned from the activity or share ideas you heard that were interesting. Presenter Resource 1 provides completed versions of the charts.

Activity Wrap-Up



- Did you find it difficult or easy to create instructional groups based on the data? Why?
- How often should you do this kind of data analysis and grouping? Why?



Slide 33—Activity Wrap-Up

(47:30–50:00)

Activity

Now, discuss these activity wrap-up questions with your tablemates. Be prepared to share your thoughts. You have two minutes to discuss.

Give participants two minutes to work at their tables. Walk around and listen to the discussions. (You may want to use the cold calling energizer or another energizer from the list in your introductory materials to share participants' responses.)

Diagnostic Measures

- Give more in-depth information about each student's needs
- Show individual learning gaps
- Help you set goals that are more student-specific
- Allow for more precisely targeted instruction



Slide 34—Diagnostic Measures

(50:00–50:30)

Let's move on to a different assessment purpose—diagnosing. Unlike screening assessments, diagnostic measures take more time to administer, but it is not necessary to use them with every student. You administer these assessments only to students for whom you need more information about specific strengths and needs. Examples of diagnostic assessments are listed on pages 3 and 4 of Handout 5.

There is another difference between screening and diagnosing. Screening should always be done on grade level. Diagnosing, on the other hand, may mean moving off grade level to examine gaps in underlying, previously taught skills.

References

Farrall, 2012; Spear-Swerling, 2015; Vaughn et al., 2007

How Should We Use These Data?

- To identify specific student gaps
- To plan targeted instruction based on these gaps
- To set specific, achievable goals for individual students



Slide 35—How Should We Use These Data?

(50:30–50:50)

Having diagnostic information allows you to more precisely meet students' needs. You can identify gaps, set specific goals to fill those gaps, and plan targeted instruction and practice for individual students.

References

Farrall, 2012; Spear-Swerling, 2015; Vaughn et al., 2007

Diagnostic Data: Fluency Analysis



- As you listen to the student read, mark errors you hear.
- Pay attention to other fluency elements like phrasing, prosody, and attending to punctuation.
- When the student finishes reading, use the checklist (on page 2) to mark observed patterns and summarize errors.
- Use the fluency rubric (on page 2) to assess expression, phrasing, smoothness, and pace.
- Calculate the student's accuracy score (percentage of words read correctly) and fluency score (words correct per minute).



Slide 36—Diagnostic Data: Fluency Analysis

(50:50–56:00)

We can examine diagnostic data within the screening assessments we give. For example, we can analyze the correct and incorrect responses that students provide on an assessment. An analysis of these data gives much more information than a simple score or classification of “on grade level” or “below.”

Let's look at diagnostic data we can examine when using an oral reading fluency screener. Locate **Handout 9: Oral Reading Fluency Scoring Probe**. Also, remove Handout 5: Monitoring Reading Fluency from your folder. This handout is from the Fluency section of this academy.

Pause for participants to locate the handouts.

In a moment, I will play a video of a student taking an oral reading fluency assessment. As you listen to the student read, use the fluency probe to mark any errors you hear. Take 30 seconds now to review with your partner what types of errors count as miscues. You can use Handout 5 from the Fluency section as a guide for these miscues.

Allow 30 seconds for participants to review the miscues.

Also, when viewing the video, notice fluency elements like phrasing and prosody.

When the student finishes reading, use the checklist and rubric on page 2 of Handout 9 to summarize and document patterns you noticed. Then, calculate the student's accuracy and fluency scores at the bottom of page 1.

Ready?

Video: Oral Reading Fluency Sample

Play the video.

When the video finishes, give participants three minutes to work. Walk around and answer questions as needed.

Diagnostic Data: Retell Analysis



- As you listen to the retell, use the number chart (on page 3) to count words in the retell.
- Rate the quality of the retell using the four-point scale (on page 3).



Slide 37—Diagnostic Data: Retell Analysis

(56:00–57:30)

Now, we will listen to and analyze the student's retell for the “Wonderful Water” passage. Turn to page 3 of Handout 9.

Pause for participants to locate the page.

You will use the number chart to count the number of words in the student's retell. As the student talks, put a slash through a number for each word you hear. Do not count *ums* or *ers* or repetitions. Circle the number for the last word you hear in the retell.

Ready?

Video: Retell Sample

Play the video.

Now, rate the quality of the retell by circling a number on the rubric on page 3.

Pause for participants to rate the student's retell.

*If participants would like to check their scoring of the student's fluency and retell, use **Presenter Resource 2**.*

Diagnostic Data: Analysis



Examine the student's data.

- How does the student's fluency score compare to the fluency norms we examined during the Fluency session?
- What strengths does the student demonstrate?
- What areas of need do you see for the student?
- How can these data inform your instruction?

Compare notes with those of your tablemates.

- Are your data similar?
- Do you see the same strengths and areas of need?



Slide 38—Diagnostic Data: Analysis

(57:30–1:00:00)

Activity

Work with your tablemates to examine the student's fluency and retell data. Begin by locating Handout 2: Oral Reading Fluency Norms that you placed in your folder during the Fluency section. Then, compare the student's fluency score to the norms on the chart for winter of fourth grade.

Show your copy of the fluency norms chart.

Then, discuss the other questions on the slide. You have two minutes.

Give participants two minutes to work.

Diagnostic Data: Spelling Analysis



On a spelling inventory, instead of simply counting each spelling as right or wrong, examine students' spelling patterns.

- Which patterns has each student mastered?
- With which patterns does each student need more instruction and practice?

Use the data to group students and target word study and recognition instruction.

- Group students with like needs together.
- For patterns that more than half of the class needs support with, teach the whole group.



Slide 39—Diagnostic Data: Spelling Analysis

(1:00:00–1:02:30)

In addition to oral reading fluency data, spelling inventories provide important information about students' phonological, orthographic, and morphological knowledge. Locate **Handout 10: Diagnostic Data From Spelling Inventory**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

The chart in this handout breaks down each student's spelling inventory data by orthographic or morphological pattern.

Activity

Take a moment to examine the data. Then, working with a partner, use the data to answer the questions on page 2 of the handout. You have two minutes.

Give participants two minutes to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. (You may want to use the overhead accountability energizer to share participants' responses.) Answers are provided in Presenter Resource 3.

Progress-Monitoring Measures

- Are quick to administer
- Are used to monitor a student's growth in a specific area
- Assess grade-level and/or off-grade-level performance
- Provide data to adapt to and target students' learning strengths and needs



Slide 40—Progress-Monitoring Measures

(1:02:30–1:02:50)

A third purpose for using assessments is progress monitoring. As with screening, progress monitoring is a quick measure of student abilities. When used across time, these data help teachers monitor student growth in specific areas, such as oral reading fluency. Progress-monitoring assessments usually measure grade-level performance, and they can also be used to monitor growth on prerequisite skills.

References

Farrall, 2012; Fuchs & Fuchs, 2011a, 2011b; Gersten et al., 2008; Spear-Swerling, 2015; Vaughn et al., 2007

How Should We Use These Data?

- To examine students' current level of performance
- To examine students' progress across time
- To gauge movement toward goals and grade-level expectations
- To adapt instruction based on performance level and improvement level
- To set new learning goals



Slide 41—How Should We Use These Data? (1:02:50–1:03:20)

Progress-monitoring data are important for two reasons. They provide information about a student's performance level at one specific time, and they show changes in the student's performance over time.

Examine progress-monitoring data over time to gauge student progress toward meeting learning goals and expectations. These data help us see when our instruction is not adequately accelerating student learning to close learning gaps, allowing us to help students sooner. Using these data, we can help students set new learning goals and let them monitor their own growth toward achieving those goals.

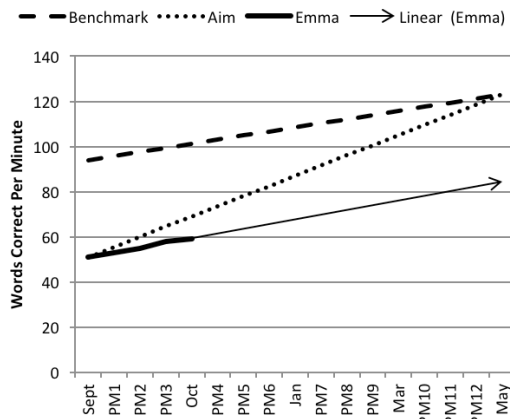
References

Farrall, 2012; Fuchs & Fuchs, 2011a, 2011b; Gersten et al., 2009; Spear-Swerling, 2015

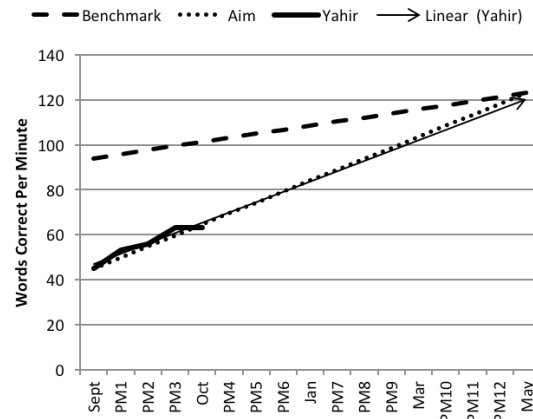
Progress-Monitoring Data: Oral Reading Fluency



Emma



Yahir



Slide 42—Progress-Monitoring Data: Oral Reading Fluency

(1:03:20–1:04:50)

Locate **Handout 11: Sample Progress-Monitoring Data**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

This handout provides two examples. We will look at the first student's data.

Emma scored a 51 on the BOY oral fluency assessment. Her scores on the oral reading fluency progress-monitoring measures can be seen in the third row of the table—53, 55, 58, and 59.

When we look at the line graph, we can compare her performance (the thick black line) to the assessment's benchmarks (the dashed line). We can also compare her performance to the dotted aim line—the trajectory Emma's data need to take to reach the end-of-year goal. Now look at the black arrow trend line cutting through Emma's data points. Will she meet the end-of-year goal if she follows this trend? (No.)

Right. The instruction is not accelerating her growth. Her teacher cannot wait. She needs to change Emma's instruction now.

Activity

Take a moment to examine the second line graph with Yahir's oral reading fluency data.

Pause for participants to examine the line graph.

What does it tell us about the instruction Yahir's receiving? Turn and talk to your partner.

Pause for participants discuss the line graph. Call on one or two participants to share their thinking.

Creating a visual representation of progress-monitoring data, like these line graphs, helps you see the instructional impact for specific students.

Graphing Progress-Monitoring Data

Showing progress-monitoring data in a line graph helps you visualize a student's growth and determine whether instruction is truly accelerating learning.

Tool to Track Progress-Monitoring Data

<http://buildingrti.utexas.org/instructional-materials/progress-monitoring-line-graph>



Slide 43—Graphing Progress-Monitoring Data (1:04:50–1:05:00)

Using a progress-monitoring line graph that includes benchmark lines, aim lines, and trend lines makes it much easier to evaluate student growth. If you need help graphing your students' progress, the website on the slide has a line graph that you can download and use.

Summative Assessment: State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR)

- Is used at the end of instruction to measure mastery of end-of-year expectations
- Provides an overall gauge of student achievement related to grade-level content



Slide 44—Summative Assessment: State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) (1:05:00–1:05:30)

In addition to screening, diagnostic, and progress-monitoring assessments, we collect summative assessment data using the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness, or STAAR. These types of assessments give us a gauge of overall student achievement related to grade-level content. They are given at the end of each year so teachers and administrators can examine students' mastery of grade-level expectations.

Reference

Texas Education Agency, 2016

How Should We Use These Data?

Examine data at the end of the year to find strengths and areas of need in relation to specific vocabulary and comprehension expectations

Combine these data with other data (decoding, spelling, and fluency screening data) to do the following:

- Analyze specific student needs across all reading and writing components
- Set annual goals to improve students' overall reading and writing abilities
- Plan instructional changes for the following year based on students' strengths and areas of need



Slide 45—How Should We Use These Data? (1:05:30–1:06:00)

Unfortunately, because summative assessments occur at the end of the year, they are not very helpful for making immediate instructional changes to accelerate student learning. Additionally, they measure student mastery of grade-level expectations without providing information about underlying skills such as decoding or fluency, which could influence students' outcomes.

When used in combination with other kinds of data, however, summative assessments give additional information for analyzing specific student needs, setting goals across years, and planning long-term instructional changes.

References

Ball & O'Connor, 2016; Merino & Beckman, 2010; Tomlinson, 2007–2008

Example: Using STAAR With Other Data



Students Scoring Advanced on STAAR			Students Scoring 70% to 85% on STAAR		Students Scoring 0% to 49% on STAAR		
<i>n</i>	EOY Oral Reading Fluency	Four Students' Scores	<i>n</i>	EOY Oral Reading Fluency	<i>n</i>	EOY Oral Reading Fluency	EOY Oral Reading Fluency
63	Four students (6%) read fewer than 115 WCPM	89, 112, 113, 113	188	16 students (9%) read fewer than 100 WCPM	302	163 students (54%) read fewer than 100 WCPM	233 students (77%) read fewer than 115 WCPM

**What relationship do you see between fluency and comprehension?
Why should you combine data from different assessments like these?**



Slide 46—Example: Using STAAR With Other Data

(1:06:00–1:10:30)

Let's look at one example of using STAAR data in combination with other data. On the slide, you can see how one district examined its fourth-grade STAAR data in relation to its end-of-year, or EOY, oral reading fluency data.

Let me explain what's in this chart.

Click to highlight the first column.

Use your laser pointer to point to the elements of the chart as you explain them.

In this column, we see the total number of students who scored Advanced on the STAAR, 63. Then, we can see that of these 63 students, four read fewer than 115 words correct per minute, or WCPM. We also see those four students' WCPM scores: 89, 112, 113, and 113.

Notes continue on the next page.

Click to highlight the second column.

In this column, we see the total number of students who scored 70 percent to 85 percent on the STAAR, 188 students. Then, we can see that of these students, 16 read fewer than 100 WCPM.

Click to highlight the third column.

In this column, we see the total number of students who scored 0 percent to 49 percent on the STAAR, 302. Then, we can see that of these students, 163 read fewer than 100 WCPM and 233, or 77 percent, read fewer than 115 WCPM.

Activity

Take a minute to consider these data. Then, at your table, discuss the answers to the two questions at the bottom of the slide.

Allow two minutes for participants to examine the data in the chart and discuss the two questions. After the two minutes, have a few participants share their thinking.

Now, let's look at one more type of data to collect and examine for students identified with language needs.

Reference

The Meadows Center for Preventing Educational Risk, 2016

Assessing English Language Learners

- Use assessments that are reliable and valid with this student population.
- Identify reading abilities initially in both the native language and in English.
- Identify language strengths and needs.



Slide 47—Assessing English Language Learners (1:10:30–1:11:00)

When assessing English language learners, we need to consider additional factors. The purpose of assessment is to inform instruction, so our assessments should be in the language of instruction. To obtain as much information as possible about students' literacy abilities, assess reading and writing in both their native language and in English initially.

In addition to reading and writing abilities, we need to assess students' language strengths and needs. In Texas, we have the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System, or TELPAS.

References

Esparza Brown & Sanford, 2011; Gersten et al., 2007; Rivera, Moughamian, Lesaux, & Francis, 2008; Texas Education Agency, 2007, 2011

Language Assessment Data



Class 1

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	TELPAS			
			Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Marta	Y	N	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate	Advanced
Sebastian	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate
Noel	Y	N	Advanced	Intermediate	Advanced High	Intermediate
Karla	Y	N	Advanced	Intermediate	Intermediate	Beginning
Lucas	Y	N	Advanced High	Intermediate	Intermediate	Advanced
Sofia	Y	N	Intermediate	Intermediate	Intermediate	Beginning
Tristan	Y	N	Advanced	Intermediate	Intermediate	Intermediate

Class 2

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	TELPAS			
			Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Freda	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced	Advanced High	Intermediate
Arjun	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced
Enka	Y	N	Advanced	Advanced High	Advanced	Intermediate
Danka	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced
David	Y	N	Intermediate	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate
Rey	Y	N	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate	Beginning



Slide 48—Language Assessment Data

(1:11:00–1:16:30)

Remember the fourth-grade classes whose screening data we examined? Now, we are looking at the English language learners' TELPAS data in those classes.

Activity

Locate **Handout 12: Sample TELPAS Data**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Work with your partner to examine the TELPAS data for each class and respond to the questions on the handout. You will also need Handout 7. You have four minutes.

Give participants four minutes to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. (You may want to use the ball toss energizer or another energizer from the list in your introductory materials to share participants' responses.)

A tool for analyzing TELPAS data is in the ELPS Academy: Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide, which is in your materials. The grouping chart is on the last page.

Show the chart on the last page of the ELPS Academy: Linguistic Instructional Alignment Guide.

References

Texas Education Agency, 2007, 2011, 2012

How Are We Doing?



Reflect on your current use of assessment data.

- Do you collect the right kinds of data?
- Do you use data for all of the purposes discussed in this session?
- Do you examine that data consistently?
- Do you make instructional decisions and adaptations based on your students' data?



Slide 49—How Are We Doing?

(1:16:30–1:21:00)

During this session, we provided you with information about using assessment data, and you practiced analyzing many different kinds of data. Now, take a minute to reflect on what you have learned and consider your current use of assessment data.

Activity

Locate **Handout 13: Reflection: Using Assessment Data**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Read the handout and follow the directions. When you finish, share your reflection with your tablemates. You have four minutes to work.

Allow four minutes for participants to work. Walk around and listen to the discussions. (You may want to use the overhead accountability energizer or another energizer from the list in your introductory materials to share participants' responses.)

Next Steps



What can you do to improve your use of assessment data? Write three steps you can take on Handout 15.



Slide 50—Next Steps

(1:21:00–1:23:00)

Activity

Locate **Handout 14: Next Steps: Using Assessment Data**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Use the handout to plan three steps you will take to improve your use of assessment data. When you finish, share your steps with your tablemates. You have two minutes.

Give participants two minutes to work.

Remember

“If assessment is used for nothing more than sorting students, we will continue to achieve the results we have always gotten. These assessments are measures of our progress, too—but only if we choose to look closely at our impact.”

— Fisher, Frey, & Hattie, 2016, pp. 166–167



Slide 51—Remember

(1:23:00–1:23:30)

Take a moment to read the quotation on the slide.

Pause for participants to read the quote.

Using assessment data enables us to better reflect, plan instruction, and monitor both our students' learning growth and our own growth.

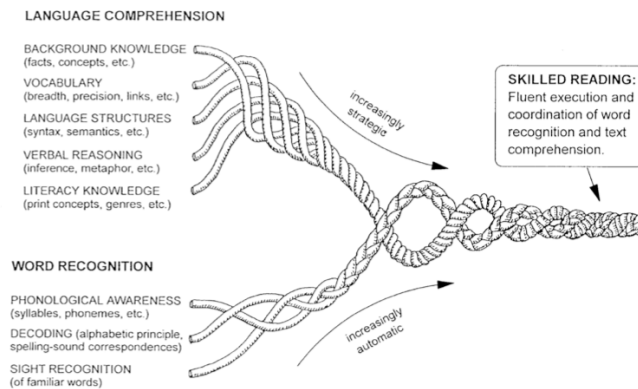
Reference

Fisher, Frey, & Hattie, 2016, pp. 166–167

The Reading Rope



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



Scarborough, 2001



Slide 52—The Reading Rope

(1:23:30–1:25:00)

Activity

Please locate your handout and model of the reading rope.

Display your model on the document camera, pausing a moment for participants.

During this section, we have focused on collecting and using assessment data. Effective use of assessment data contributes to the continuous development of a skilled reader. Imagine data showing that a student was not fully developed in one strand of the rope. Discuss how you would use this knowledge to plan instruction for the student.

Allow one minute for participants to discuss the question.

Now take a moment to reflect on the guiding question on the slide.

Notes continue on the next page.

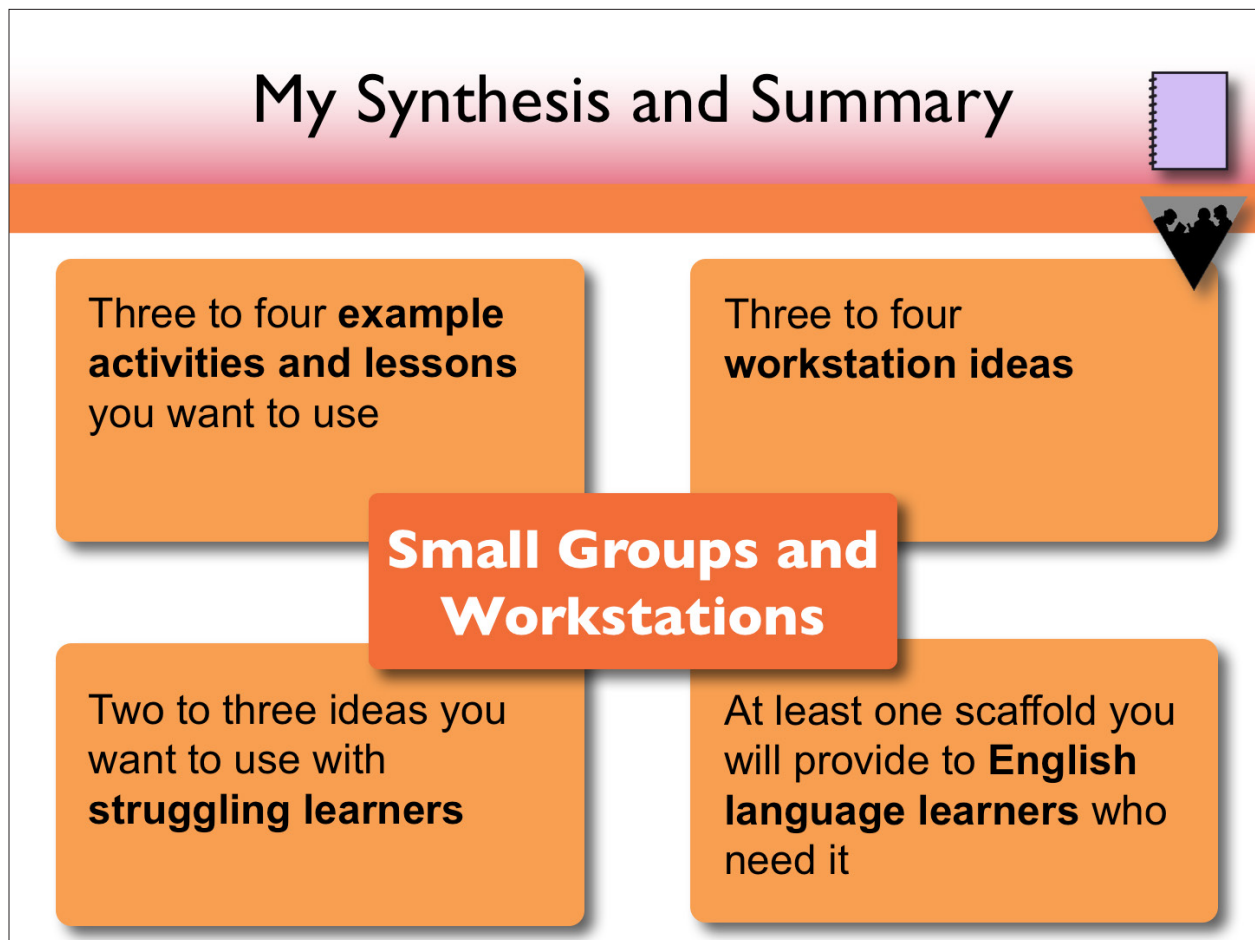
Allow 30 seconds for participants to reflect on the question.

Put your reading rope handout and model back in your folder.

Now that you have had time to reflect, let's see how our new learning can be applied to our daily instruction.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001



Slide 53—My Synthesis and Summary

(1:25:00–1:30:00)

We will wrap up this section by synthesizing what we have learned and what it means for our literacy block. Take out the Grade 4 Literacy Block and the English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide from your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the resources.

As with the other sections, we will use these two documents to summarize what we have learned and how we can apply it to our literacy instruction when we get back to our classroom. On the Grade 4 Literacy Block handout, we will complete the last row, labeled “Small groups and workstations.”

Display Presenter Resource 4 on the document camera.

Notes continue on the next page.

Activity

Here is a model showing how I completed the Literacy Block document for this section.

Review the example on the presenter resource as needed.

When filling out the last column related to English language learners, you may refer to your English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide. Please take four minutes to fill out all four columns for this section.

Allow four minutes for participants to work.


Please place your Literacy Block and English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide back in your folder.

We have finished the Using Assessment Data section.



Using Assessment Data

Handouts

 A yellow pencil with a black eraser and a black band. The band has the text "GRADES 4 & 5" in black, sans-serif font. The pencil is positioned horizontally, with its tip pointing to the left, and it is placed over the letter "R" of the word "READING".

READING
TO LEARN
ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

Grouping Plan

	Lesson Plan		Lesson Plan
Small Group 1		Partner Work	Word study and recognition:
			Fluency:
			Vocabulary:
Small Group 2			Comprehension:
			Writing:
Small Group 3		Workstations	Word study and recognition:
			Fluency:
			Vocabulary:
Small Group 4			Comprehension:
			Writing:
Small Group 5		Independent Work	Word study and recognition:
			Fluency:
			Vocabulary:
			Comprehension:
			Writing:

Grouping Plan: Fourth-Grade Example

	Lesson Plan		Lesson Plan
Small Group 1	<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> Practice spelling words with /ă/, /î/, or /ë/ sound; read words with these sounds.</p> <p><u>Fluency:</u> Choral and whisper read a decodable text with /ă/, /î/, or /ë/ words; have individual students read aloud during whisper read to assess fluency.</p>	Partner Work	<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> Spell words with prefixes <i>pre-</i>, <i>re-</i>, and <i>un-</i> using phoneme-grapheme mapping. (10 min.)</p> <p><u>Fluency:</u> Partner read an informational text. (5 min.)</p> <p><u>Vocabulary:</u> Take turns orally putting three of last week's words in sentences; then write sentences together. (10 min.)</p> <p><u>Comprehension:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Writing:</u> n/a</p>
Small Group 2	<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> Practice spelling words with /ă/ and /ë/ spellings; read words with these sounds.</p> <p><u>Fluency:</u> Choral and whisper read a decodable text with /ă/ and /ë/ words; have individual students read aloud during whisper read to assess fluency.</p>		<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> Sort words with prefixes <i>pre-</i>, <i>re-</i>, and <i>un-</i>. (8 min.)</p> <p><u>Fluency:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Vocabulary:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Comprehension:</u> Complete two compound sentence anagrams. (5 min.)</p> <p><u>Writing:</u> n/a</p>
Small Group 3	<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> Sort words with prefixes <i>pre-</i>, <i>re-</i>, and <i>un-</i>; discuss meanings of words.</p> <p><u>Vocabulary:</u> Have each student pick a word from the prefix sort and write it in a sentence.</p> <p><u>Comprehension:</u> Partner students to read an expository text to discuss the following day.</p>	Workstations	<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Fluency:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Vocabulary:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Comprehension:</u> Write a summary using a completed main idea graphic organizer for the informational text read previously. (10 min.)</p> <p><u>Writing:</u> Write sentences from comprehension workstation and add correct capitalization and punctuation. (5 min.)</p>
Small Group 4	<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> Sort words with roots <i>tract</i>, <i>port</i>, and <i>rupt</i>; discuss meanings of words.</p> <p><u>Vocabulary:</u> Have each student pick a word from the root sort and write it in a sentence.</p> <p><u>Comprehension:</u> Partner students to read an expository text to discuss the following day.</p>		<p><u>Word study and recognition:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Fluency:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Vocabulary:</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Comprehension:</u> Write a summary using a completed main idea graphic organizer for the informational text read previously. (10 min.)</p> <p><u>Writing:</u> Write sentences from comprehension workstation and add correct capitalization and punctuation. (5 min.)</p>
Small Group 5	<p><u>Writing:</u> Conference with five students who are in the revising stage of a writing piece.</p>	Independent Work	

Workstation Planning Form

Element	Explanation
Workstation	
Objective	
Activity	
Materials	
Differentiation	
Student Interaction	
Student Choice	
Accountability	

Workstation Planning Form (Example)

Element	Explanation
Workstation	Partner Reading
Objective	Improve automaticity, phrasing, and prosody by reading a text aloud.
Activity	<p>If this is the cold read, before reading, partners skim the text to see what it will be about and to identify any difficult words.</p> <p>Students then follow the partner-reading format.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Partners switch papers. Partner A reads aloud, while Partner B times, marks errors, provides corrective feedback, and circles the last word read. Partner B reads aloud, while Partner A times, marks errors, provides corrective feedback, and circles the last word read. The partners switch papers back and figure out their total words read, errors, and words correct per minute. If this is either the cold or hot read, each partner graphs his or her words correct per minute. <p>When students finish, they discuss one thing they learned from their reading.</p>
Materials	<p>Partner reading folder with two copies of the same text, error-correction feedback cards, and two bar graphs</p> <p>Timer</p> <p>Pencils</p>
Differentiation	<p>Struggling readers are partnered with stronger readers.</p> <p>Text is at the instructional or independent level of the struggling reader.</p>
Student Interaction	Students work together to read the text, provide corrective feedback to one another, graph their words correct per minute, and discuss what they learned from the reading.
Student Choice	The teacher allows each student pair to pick from a variety of texts at the struggling student's instructional or independent level. These texts are then put in their partner reading folder to use at the workstation.
Accountability	<p>Students must fill out their bar graphs for the cold and hot reads. On other days, students complete comprehension activities related to the text's content (e.g., answering questions, writing a summary).</p> <p>During workstation wrap-up, the teacher calls on a few students to share how they did and what they read about at the Partner Reading workstation.</p>

Partnering Students Example

Step 1: Rank students.

<u>Last Name</u>	<u>First Name</u>	<u>Oral Reading Fluency</u>
Hanson	Missy	165
Barrack	Mandy	163
Shore	Carolyn	155
Smith	Lance	150
Horner	Kaleb	146
Richards	Chris	130
Barr	Jenny	122
Nieto	Jose	119
Mason	Lori	110
Kaspian	Eli	103
Romero	Edgar	96
Kort	Ruby	96
Salinas	Melissa	88
Sanders	Sid	80
Moore	Jay	79
Willis	Heather	75
Stern	Tina	74
Doogan	Carl	65
Gunner	Landon	64
Mitchell	Diane	61
Jackson	Jerrel	55
Treviño	Leti	40
Stevens	Roger	36

Step 2: Divide list in half.

Step 3: Move halves next to each other.

Missy Hanson (165)	Ruby Kort (96)
Mandy Barrack (163)	Melissa Salinas (88)
Carolyn Shore (155)	Sid Sanders (80)
Lance Smith (150)	Jay Moore (79)
Kaleb Horner (146)	Heather Willis (75)
Chris Richards (130)	Tina Stern (74)
Jenny Barr (122)	Carl Doogan (65)
Jose Nieto (119)	Landon Gunner (64)
Lori Mason (110)	Diane Mitchell (61)
Eli Kaspian (103)	Jerrel Jackson (55)
Edgar Romero (96)	Leti Treviño (40)
	Roger Stevens (36)

Step 4: Partner students based on list.

Missy, Ruby
Mandy, Melissa
Carolyn, Sid
Lance, Jay
Kaleb, Heather
Chris, Tina
Jenny, Carl
Jose, Landon
Lori, Diane
Eli, Jerrel
Edgar, Leti, Roger

Step 5: Repartner based on other information.

There is a big discrepancy between Missy and Ruby and Missy is not good at working with students who struggle, so I moved Kaleb up to work with Missy.

I moved Ruby into Kaleb's place because she is reading more fluently than Heather, so she will provide a model for her.

I also moved Roger to work with Lori and Diane because Diane is not too much higher than Roger, and Lori and Diane follow directions well and will help Roger stay on task.

I have left the others partnered for now, but I may have to change them based on rate of progress, behavior issues, or need for modeling.

Final List

Missy, Kaleb
Mandy, Melissa
Carolyn, Sid
Lance, Jay
Ruby, Heather
Chris, Tina
Jenny, Carl
Jose, Landon
Lori, Diane, Roger
Eli, Jerrel
Edgar, Leti

Fourth-Grade Assessment Examples

All students should be assessed in each of the following areas.

Encoding

- Students spell words with orthographic patterns that will be taught across the year.
- The teacher examines spelling errors.

Oral Reading Fluency

- Students read a grade-level text while being timed (usually for a minute).
- The teacher follows along, marking words either misread or skipped.
- Scores include accuracy (percentage of words read correctly out of total words read) and fluency (words correct per minute).
- Additional data come from analyzing students' miscues, evaluating phrasing, and listening for prosodic elements.

Vocabulary

- Receptive vocabulary: Students identify a picture (usually out of four) that matches a given word.
- Expressive vocabulary: Students name a picture of a person, object, or action or give the definition of a word.
- Relational vocabulary: Students tell how two or three words are alike.
- General vocabulary: Students give a synonym or antonym for a word, use a given word in a sentence, or orally fill in the blank in a sentence.

Reading Comprehension

After listening to a text being read or reading a text, students

- orally answer open-ended questions, both literal and inferential;
- answer multiple-choice questions;
- respond in writing to open-ended questions; or
- retell a story or what was learned from an informational text.

Students read a text and fill in blanks by using

- a maze procedure, in which answers are chosen from three options; or
- a cloze procedure, in which no choices are provided.

Writing

- Before students write a text, the teacher provides a rubric that includes elements that will be assessed.
- After students have written the text, the teacher uses the rubric to gauge the effectiveness of the writing sample.
- Elements may include output, mechanics, vocabulary, sentence structure, organization of ideas, voice, and genre (or text) elements.

Possible Assessments for Students Who Struggle

For students who struggle in one or more of the areas listed on the previous pages, more diagnostic information can help teachers target specific needs in fundamental areas like phonemic awareness or grapheme-phoneme knowledge.

Phonemic Awareness

(for students struggling with decoding, spelling, or possibly fluency)

- Students blend, segment, or manipulate individual sounds in words.
- The teacher records students' correct and incorrect responses.
- The teacher examines the errors.

Sample items may include the following:

- /b/ /r/ /i/ /t/—What's the word?
- Tell me the sounds in *plant*.
- Say *his*. Now, say *his* without the /h/.
- Say *fright*. Now, say *fright* without the /t/.
- Say *fry*. Now, replace the /f/ with /t/.
- Say *test*. Now, replace the /s/ with /n/.

Decoding

(for students struggling with fluency)

- Students read a list of nonsense, or make-believe, words.
- Assessment can be timed or untimed.

Grapheme-Phoneme Knowledge

(for students struggling with decoding, spelling, or fluency)

- Students say the sounds of a given list of letters and letter combinations.
- Students write the matching letter or letter combination(s) of an orally presented sound.
- Students read words with various orthographic patterns (e.g., closed syllables, vowel teams).
- These measures are more extensive than the decoding measures described above.
- These measures can be timed or untimed.

Sight-Word Knowledge

(for students struggling with reading accuracy or fluency)

- Students read a list of words.
- The list may include high-frequency words or words increasing in difficulty.
- These assessments can be timed or untimed.

Oral Language

(for students struggling with comprehension, not decoding or word reading)

Sentence-level assessments include the following:

- Sentence memory: Students repeat sentences of increasing length.
- Sentence grammar: Students identify whether a sentence is spoken correctly.
- Sentence meaning: Students decide whether two spoken sentences have the same meaning.

Discourse-level assessments: Given a spoken question or statement, students point to a part of a picture or one of four pictures.

Listening Comprehension

(for students struggling with comprehension, not decoding or word reading)

After listening to a text being read, students do one of the following:

- Orally answer open-ended questions, both literal and inferential
- Retell a story or what was learned from an informational text

Adapted from Farrall, 2012; Kilpatrick, 2015; Spear-Swerling, 2015.

Story Retelling Record Sheet

Story retelling is a technique to promote comprehension and monitor students' comprehension progress. This record sheet can be used to record students' retelling of the beginning, middle, and ending of a story.

Name:

Date:

Story:

Number of Times Read:

Pages:

Story	Student's Retelling	Prompts
Beginning		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What happened in the beginning? • Where did the story happen? • Who were the main characters? • What was the problem?
Middle		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What happened next? • What did _____ do? • Why?
Ending		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How was the problem solved? • How did the story end?

Adapted from Tompkins, 1998.

Sample Screening Data

Class I

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	Spelling		Oral Reading Fluency		Reading Comprehension	
			BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY
Jessica	N	N	I	S	S	B	I	S
Marta	Y	N	I	B	I	S	I	S
Zoe	N	Y	I	I	S	S	I	B
Aiden	N	N	S	I	B	B	B	B
Sebastian	Y	N	S	S	S	B	I	I
Noel	Y	N	I	S	B	B	S	S
Josaiah	N	N	S	B	B	B	B	B
Jaiden	N	Y	S	B	B	B	B	B
Zach	N	N	B	B	S	B	B	S
Karla	Y	N	I	S	I	S	I	I
Enrique	N	N	B	B	B	B	I	I
Emma	N	N	I	S	I	I	S	B
Lucas	Y	N	S	I	S	S	S	S
Jackson	N	Y	I	B	I	S	B	B
Oliver	N	N	B	B	S	B	S	S
Sofia	Y	N	I	I	I	S	I	I
Hannah	N	N	I	B	B	B	B	B
Carlos	N	N	I	S	I	I	B	B
Tristan	Y	N	S	I	S	S	I	S
Santiago	N	N	S	B	B	B	S	S

Note. ELL = English language learner; Sp. Ed. = special education; BOY = beginning of the year; MOY = middle of the year; I = intensive; S = strategic; B = benchmark.

Class 2

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	Spelling		Oral Reading Fluency		Reading Comprehension	
			BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY	BOY	MOY
Freda	Y	N	S	B	B	B	I	S
Gabriel	N	N	B	B	B	B	B	B
Annella	N	N	I	B	S	B	I	I
Chance	N	N	B	B	I	B	S	S
Roshan	N	N	I	I	S	S	I	I
Arjun	Y	N	I	B	S	B	S	B
Kelsey	N	N	S	S	B	B	I	S
Prima	N	N	B	B	B	B	S	B
Alex	N	N	B	B	B	S	B	S
Erika	Y	N	B	B	S	B	S	S
Natalia	N	N	I	S	I	I	S	S
Ryan	N	N	S	S	S	S	I	B
Danika	Y	N	S	B	B	B	I	S
Makaila	N	Y	I	I	I	I	B	B
Preston	N	N	B	B	S	B	B	B
David	Y	N	S	B	B	B	S	S
Saul	N	N	B	B	S	S	B	S
Yahir	N	N	I	B	I	B	S	B
Rey	Y	N	I	S	I	B	I	I
Ashley	N	Y	S	B	B	B	I	I

Screening Beginning to Middle of Year

Class 1

Student Movement

	STILL ON TARGET (B to B)	BIG JUMP (I to B)	LITTLE JUMP (S to B)	LITTLE JUMP (I to S)	NO JUMP (I to I, S to S, or Dropped)
Spelling	Zach Enrique Oliver	Marta Hannah	Josaiah Jaiden Santiago	Jessica Noel Karla Emma Carlos	Zoe (I to I) Sofia (I to I) Aiden (S to I) Lucas (S to I) Tristan (S to I) Sebastian (S to S)
Oral Reading Fluency	Aiden Noel Josaiah Jaiden Enrique Hannah Santiago		Jessica Sebastian Zach Oliver	Marta Karla Jackson Sofia	Emma (I to I) Carlos (I to I) Zoe (S to S) Lucas (S to S) Tristan (S to S)
Reading Comprehension	Aiden Josaiah Jaiden Hannah Carlos Jackson	Zoe	Emma	Jessica Marta Tristan	Sebastian (I to I) Karla (I to I) Enrique (I to I) Sofia (I to I) Noel (S to S) Lucas (S to S) Oliver (S to S) Santiago (S to S) Zach (B to S)

Note. I = intensive; S = strategic; B = benchmark.

Possible Instructional Small Groups

Instructional Focus	Student Names	Additional Information
Spelling and Oral Reading Fluency	Zoe Lucas Tristan	Reading and spelling multisyllabic words with long-vowel patterns Phrase fluency Fluency with text containing multisyllabic words with long-vowel patterns
Spelling	Sofia Aiden	Reading and spelling multisyllabic words with long-vowel patterns Fluency with text containing multisyllabic words with long-vowel patterns
Oral Reading Fluency	Emma Carlos Marta Karla Jackson	Reading multisyllabic words out of context to build automaticity Phrase fluency Fluency in multiple-criteria text with multisyllabic words
Reading Comprehension	Sebastian Karla Enrique Sofia	Fluency in instructional- or independent-level text Making inferences within text Practicing word-learning strategies
Fluency and Comprehension in Above-Grade-Level Text	Josaiah Jaiden Santiago Hannah Oliver	Fluency with above-grade-level text Making inferences within text Practicing word-learning strategies

Class 2

Student Movement

	STILL ON TARGET (B to B)	BIG JUMP (I to B)	LITTLE JUMP (S to B)	LITTLE JUMP (I to S)	NO JUMP (I to I, S to S, or Dropped)
Spelling					
Oral Reading Fluency					
Reading Comprehension					

Note. I = intensive; S = strategic; B = benchmark.

Possible Instructional Small Groups

Instructional Focus	Student Names	Additional Information
Spelling and Oral Reading Fluency		
Spelling		
Oral Reading Fluency		
Reading Comprehension		
Fluency and Comprehension in Above-Grade-Level Text		

Oral Reading Fluency Scoring Probe

Wonderful Water

Some people say, "You are what you eat." It might be more accurate to say, "You are what you drink." That is because about two-thirds of the human body is made up of water. 16
34
35

Our bodies use water in many ways to maintain our health and well-being. We need water to help with digesting and absorbing the food we eat. Water controls our body temperature, keeping us from getting too hot in warm weather. It helps to carry oxygen and nutrients to all the body's cells and even acts as a protective cushion for joints, such as knees and hips. 50
65
80
96
102

Each day, our bodies lose as many as six pints of water through evaporation and perspiration. Replacing that water is important for maintaining good health. People who exercise vigorously lose even more water. Running, playing soccer, bicycling, and hiking can increase the amount of water you need to drink. 117
128
140
151

How can you get all the water you need? First, try to drink plenty of fresh water with every meal and after you exercise. It's also good to drink water at other times during the day, especially if it is a warm day. Eat plenty of fresh fruits and vegetables, which also contain water. Eating these can also help you get the water your body needs. 168
184
201
216
217

Many people do not drink enough water to maintain their health. They say they do not feel thirsty. Sometimes people who do not think they are thirsty are confusing thirst for hunger. They think their body is asking for food, instead of water. 231
246
260

Total Words Read: _____

Total Errors Made: _____

Accuracy Score:

Number of words read correctly ÷ total number of words = _____ % accuracy

Fluency Score:

Total words read – total errors made = _____ words correct per minute

Oral Reading Fluency Error Analysis

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Reads with appropriate phrasing, intonation and expression, and observed punctuation
<input type="checkbox"/> Self-corrects and monitors meaning
<input type="checkbox"/> Shows automaticity on reread words
<input type="checkbox"/> Uses effective decoding strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequent errors on sight words (e.g., <i>I was, and, the, said</i>)
<input type="checkbox"/> Other: | <input type="checkbox"/> Frequent errors on phonetically regular words (e.g., <i>cat, milk</i>)
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequent errors on phonetically irregular words
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequently omits words or letters
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequently adds words or letters
<input type="checkbox"/> Skips lines |
|--|---|

Fluency Rubric

	1	2	3	4
Expression and Volume	Reads in a quiet voice as if to get words out Does not sound natural like talking to a friend	Reads in a quiet voice Sounds natural in part of the text but does not always sound like talking to a friend	Reads with volume and expression Sometimes slips into expressionless reading and does not sound like talking to a friend	Reads with varied volume and expression Sounds like talking to a friend and voice matches the interpretation of the passage
Phrasing	Reads word-by-word in a monotone voice	Reads in two- or three-word phrases, not adhering to punctuation, stress, and intonation	Reads with a mixture of run-ons, mid-sentence pauses for breath, and choppiness Reasonable stress and intonation	Reads with good phrasing, adhering to punctuation, stress, and intonation
Smoothness	Frequently hesitates while reading, sounds out words, and repeats words or phrases Makes multiple attempts to read the same passage	Reads with extended pauses or hesitations Has many “rough spots”	Reads with occasional breaks in rhythm Has difficulty with specific words and/or sentence structures	Reads smoothly with some breaks but self-corrects with difficult words and/or sentence structures
Pace	Reads slowly and laboriously	Reads moderately slowly	Reads fast and slow throughout reading	Reads at a conversational pace throughout

Score: _____

A score of 10 or more indicates the student is making good progress in fluency.
 A score below 10 indicates the student needs additional instruction in fluency.

Retell Scoring

Count the number of words by marking a slash through numbers as the student says the retell.

0 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 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48
49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71
72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94

Quality of Retell Response

1	2	3	4
Provides two or fewer details	Provides three or more details	Provides three or more details in a meaningful sequence	Provides three or more details in a meaningful sequence that captures a main idea

Adapted from Good & Kaminski, 2011; Rasinski, 2004.

Diagnostic Data From Spelling Inventory

Fourth Grade (Middle of Year): Spelling Inventory Data Disaggregated by Orthographic Pattern

Student Name	TOTAL Patterns Correct and Words Correct 82 Total Points	ORTHOGRAPHIC PATTERNS										Words Spelled Correctly	
		Consonant Blends 7 Points	Short Vowels 7 Points	Long Vowel Patterns 7 Points	Other Vowel Patterns 7 Points	Inflected Endings 7 Points	Syllable Junctures 7 Points	Unaccented Final Syllables 7 Points	Suffixes 7 Points	26 Points		26 Points	
Roshan	29	7	6	4	4	5	0	0	0	3			
Makaila	35	7	7	1	4	5	1	2	2	6			
Kelsey	42	7	6	5	5	6	1	1	2	9			
Rey	44	7	7	7	6	6	0	1	2	8			
Natalia	46	7	7	6	7	4	3	2	0	10			
Ryan	46	7	6	6	6	5	1	2	2	11			
Arjun	50	6	6	7	7	7	1	2	2	12			
Annella	52	7	7	7	7	7	1	2	3	11			
Yahir	53	7	7	7	6	6	3	1	3	13			
Danika	59	7	7	6	6	4	4	4	5	16			
Alex	59	7	7	6	7	7	3	4	3	15			
Saul	60	7	7	6	6	7	5	5	2	15			
Freda	62	7	7	7	7	6	4	3	4	17			
Erika	62	7	7	6	7	7	5	4	4	15			
Preston	68	7	7	7	7	7	5	5	4	19			
David	68	7	6	7	6	7	7	7	3	18			
Chance	73	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	20			
Prima	74	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	22			
Ashley	76	7	7	7	7	7	6	7	5	23			
Gabriel	80	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	25			

■ = 0–39, ■ = 40–49, ■ = 50–82
■ = 2 or more pattern errors ■ = 0–9, ■ = 10–14, ■ = 15–26

Using the diagnostic spelling inventory data, answer the following questions.

Which students need small-group instruction to fill gaps in orthographic patterns they should have mastered by the middle of the year in fourth grade? How would you group them?

Which students can be pushed to master more complex orthographic patterns?

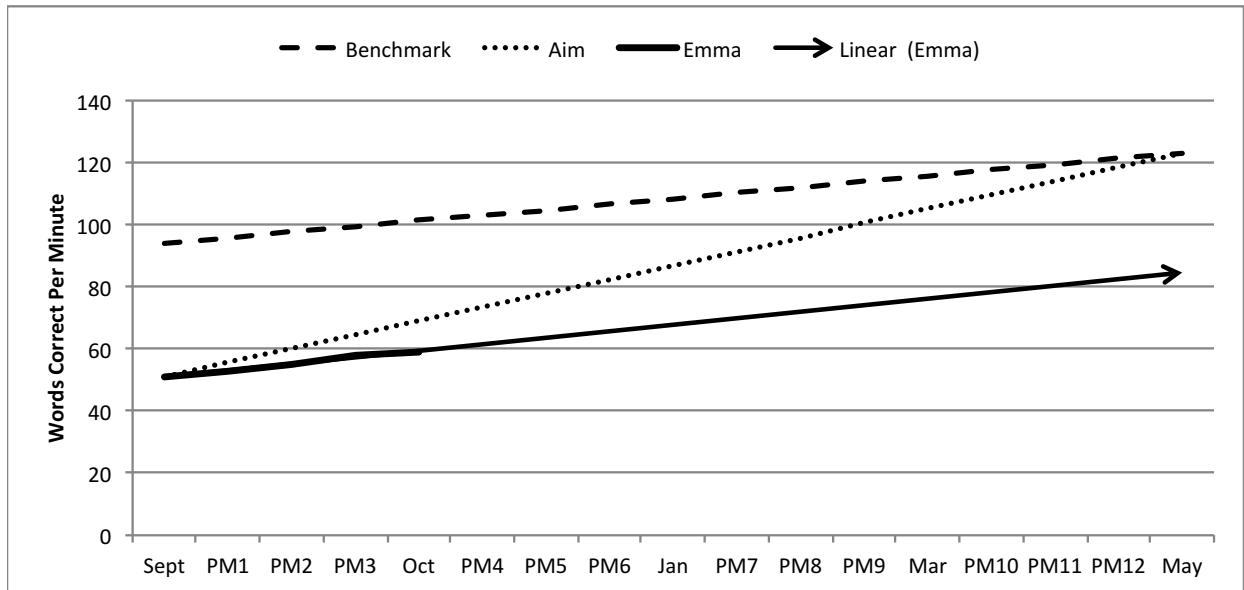
Based on these data, what will be the focus of your whole-group instruction in word study and recognition?

Adapted from Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2015.

Sample Progress-Monitoring Data

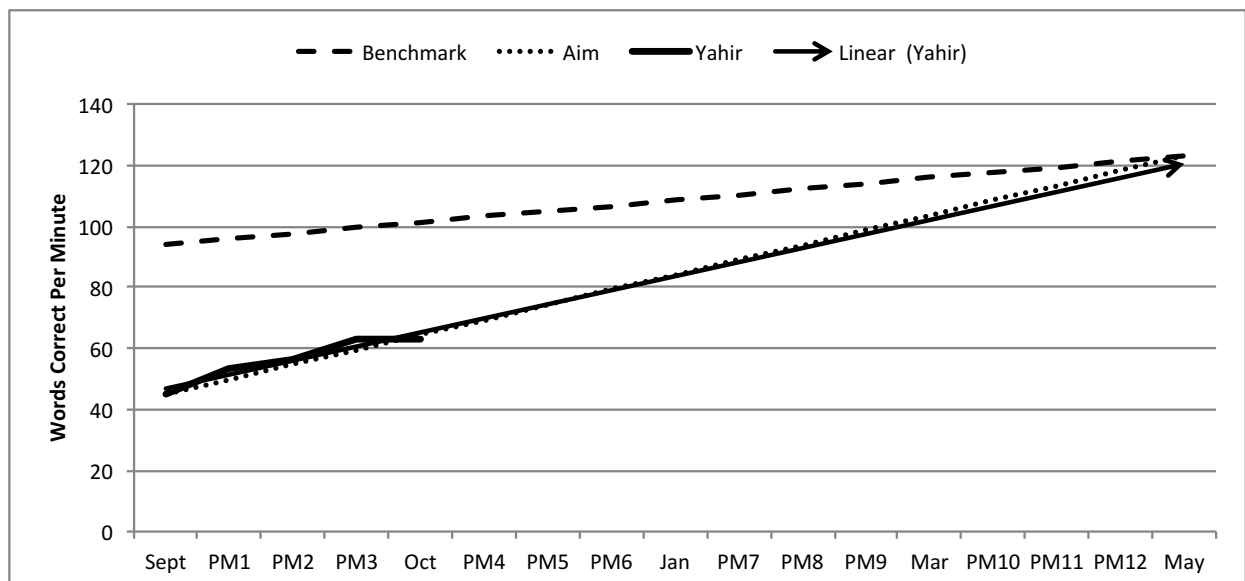
Emma's Data: Oral Reading Fluency

	Sept	PM1	PM2	PM3	Oct	PM4	PM5	PM6	Jan	PM7	PM8	PM9	Mar	PM10	PM11	PM12	May
Benchmark	94	95.8	97.6	99.4	101.3	103.1	104.9	106.7	108.5	110.3	112.1	113.9	115.8	117.6	119.4	121.2	123.0
Aim	51	55.5	60.0	64.5	69.0	73.5	78.0	82.5	87.0	91.5	96.0	100.5	105.0	109.5	114.0	118.5	123.0
Emma	51	53	55	58	59												



Yahir's Data: Oral Reading Fluency

	Sept	PM1	PM2	PM3	Oct	PM4	PM5	PM6	Jan	PM7	PM8	PM9	Mar	PM10	PM11	PM12	May
Benchmark	94	95.8	97.6	99.4	101.3	103.1	104.9	106.7	108.5	110.3	112.1	113.9	115.8	117.6	119.4	121.2	123.0
Aim	45	49.9	54.8	59.6	64.5	69.4	74.3	79.1	84.0	88.9	93.8	98.6	103.5	108.4	113.3	118.1	123.0
Yahir	45	53.0	56.0	63.0	63.0												



Sample TELPAS Data

Class 1

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	TELPAS			
			Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Marta	Y	N	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate	Advanced
Sebastian	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate
Noel	Y	N	Advanced	Intermediate	Advanced High	Intermediate
Karla	Y	N	Advanced	Intermediate	Intermediate	Beginning
Lucas	Y	N	Advanced High	Intermediate	Intermediate	Advanced
Sofia	Y	N	Intermediate	Intermediate	Intermediate	Beginning
Tristan	Y	N	Advanced	Intermediate	Intermediate	Intermediate

Class 2

Student	ELL?	Sp. Ed.?	TELPAS			
			Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Freda	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced	Advanced High	Intermediate
Anjun	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced
Erika	Y	N	Advanced	Advanced High	Advanced	Intermediate
Danika	Y	N	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced High	Advanced
David	Y	N	Intermediate	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate
Rey	Y	N	Advanced	Advanced	Intermediate	Beginning

What differences do you notice in these two classes?

Take a moment to go back to the screening data analysis on Handout 7. For each class, examine the English language learners' improvement and identified needs. What do you notice?

How might these TELPAS data have informed our analysis of the spelling, oral reading fluency, and reading comprehension data?

Adapted from Texas Education Agency, 2011.

Reflection: Using Assessment Data

Reflect on your current use of assessment data. Check all below that you feel you do effectively. Circle the top three on which you need to improve.

1. Do you collect the right kinds of data?

- ☐ Encoding
- ☐ Oral reading fluency
- ☐ Vocabulary
- ☐ Reading comprehension
- ☐ Writing

2. Do you use data for all of the purposes discussed in this session?

- ☐ Screening
- ☐ Diagnosing
- ☐ Progress monitoring
- ☐ Assessing language
- ☐ Summative assessment

3. Do you examine data consistently?

- ☐ Analyzing data at the beginning, middle, and end of the year
- ☐ Conducting error analysis within every screening and progress-monitoring assessment
- ☐ Graphing student progress

4. Do you make instructional decisions and adaptations based on your students' data?

- ☐ Managing data to have easy access (e.g., using charts or graphs)
- ☐ Using data to form teacher-led small groups, mixed-ability groups, and partners
- ☐ Regrouping based on student data
- ☐ Using data to establish an instructional focus
- ☐ Differentiating instructional delivery and/or activities
- ☐ Providing students immediate feedback and scaffolding based on data

Next Steps: Using Assessment Data

Plan next steps toward more effective use of assessment data. Based on your reflection about where you currently stand, where do you want to go next? What are your priorities? What three steps can you take immediately? Record your responses below to form an action plan.

Step 1

Step 2

Step 3

References

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Resources and Recommended Reading

Websites

www.intensiveintervention.org/chart/progress-monitoring

<http://buildingrti.utexas.org>

www.rtinetwork.org

www.rti4success.org

www.fcrr.org/FAIR_Search_Tool/FAIR_Search_Tool.aspx

http://tea.texas.gov/Academics/Subject_Areas/English_Language_Arts_and_Reading/English_Language_Arts_and_Reading/

Articles and Booklets

https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/Docs/PracticeGuide/rti_reading_pg_021809.pdf

www.rti4success.org/sites/default/files/rtiforells.pdf

www.centeroninstruction.org/files/Using%20Student%20Center%20.pdf

Books

Farrall, M. L. (2012). *Reading assessment: Linking language, literacy, and cognition*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

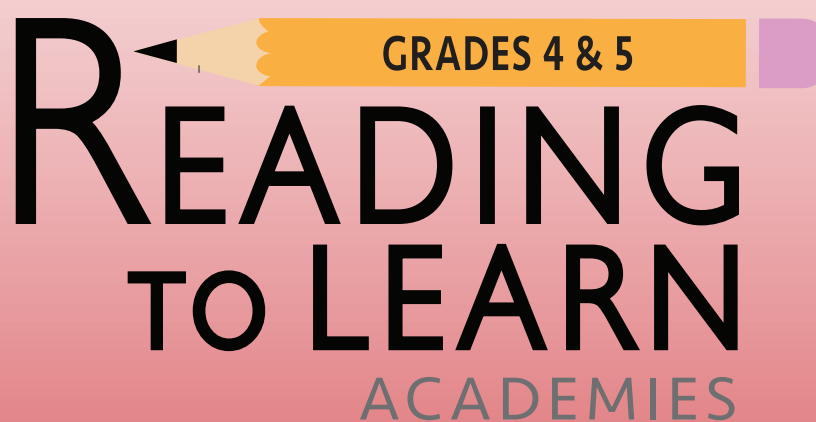
Fisher, D., Frey, N., & Hattie, J. (2016). *Visible learning for literacy: Implementing the practices that work best to accelerate student learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Spear-Swerling, L. (2015). *The power of RTI and reading profiles: A blueprint for solving reading problems*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.



Using Assessment Data

Presenter Resources



GRADE 4

Class 2

Student Movement

	STILL ON TARGET (B to B)	BIG JUMP (I to B)	LITTLE JUMP (S to B)	LITTLE JUMP (I to S)	NO JUMP (I to I, S to S, or Dropped)
Spelling	Gabriel Chance Prima Alex Erika Preston Saul	Annella Arjun Yahir	Freda Danika David Ashley	Natalia Rey	Roshan (I to I) Makaila (I to I) Kelsey (S to S) Ryan (S to S)
Oral Reading Fluency	Freda Gabriel Kelsey Prima Danika David Ashley	Chance Yahir Rey	Annella Arjun Erika Preston		Natalia (I to I) Makaila (I to I) Roshan (S to S) Ryan (S to S) Saul (S to S) Alex (B to S)
Reading Comprehension	Gabriel Makaila Preston	Ryan	Arjun Prima Yahir	Freda Kelsey Danika	Annella (I to I) Roshan (I to I) Rey (I to I) Ashley (I to I) Chance (S to S) Erika (S to S) Natalia (S to S) David (S to S) Alex (B to S) Saul (B to S)

Note. I = intensive; S = strategic; B = benchmark.

Possible Instructional Small Groups

Instructional Focus	Student Names	Additional Information
Spelling and Oral Reading Fluency	Makaila Roshan Natalia Ryan	
Spelling	Kelsey Rey	
Oral Reading Fluency	Saul Alex	
Reading Comprehension	Annella Roshan Rey Ashley	
Fluency and Comprehension in Above-Grade-Level Text	Gabriel Prima Preston Arjun Freda Chance Danika	

Oral Reading Fluency Scoring Probe

Wonderful Water

Some people say, "You are what you eat." It might be more accurate to say, "You are what you drink." ^{What}That is because about two-thirds of the ^{SC}human body ^{it}is made up of water. 16
34
35

Our bodies use water in many ways to maintain our health and well-being. We need ^{OMIT}water to help with digesting] and absorbing the food we eat. Water controls our body temperature, keeping us from getting too hot in warm weather. It helps to carry oxygen and nutrients to all the body's cells and even acts as a protective cushion for joints, such as knees and hips. 50
65
80
96
102

Each day, our bodies lose as many as six pints of water through evaporation and perspiration. Replacing that water is important for maintaining good health. People who exercise vigorously lose even more water. Running, playing soccer, bicycling, and hiking can increase the amount of water you need to drink. 117
128
140
151

How can you get all the water you need? First, try to drink plenty of fresh water with every meal and after you exercise. It's also good to drink water at other times during the day, especially if it is a warm day. Eat plenty of fresh fruits and vegetables, which also contain water. Eating these can also help you get the water your body needs. 168
184
201
216
217

Many people do not drink enough water to maintain their health. They say they do not feel thirsty. Sometimes people who do not think they are thirsty are confusing thirst for hunger. They think their body is asking for food, instead of water. 231
246
260

Total Words Read: 56

Total Errors Made: 6

Accuracy Score:

Number of words read correctly ÷ total number of words = 89 % accuracy

Fluency Score:

Total words read – total errors made = 50 words correct per minute

Oral Reading Fluency Error Analysis

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Reads with appropriate phrasing, intonation and expression, and observed punctuation
<input type="checkbox"/> Self-corrects and monitors meaning ^{human}
<input type="checkbox"/> Shows automaticity on reread words
<input type="checkbox"/> Uses effective decoding strategies
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequent errors on sight words (e.g., <i>I was, and, the, said</i>) ^{That, is}
<input type="checkbox"/> Other: accurate, maintain, digesting | <input type="checkbox"/> Frequent errors on phonetically regular words (e.g., <i>cat, milk</i>)
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequent errors on phonetically irregular words
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequently omits words or letters ^{water}
<input type="checkbox"/> Frequently adds words or letters
<input type="checkbox"/> Skips lines |
|---|--|

Fluency Rubric

	1	2	3	4
Expression and Volume	Reads in a quiet voice as if to get words out Does not sound natural like talking to a friend	Reads in a quiet voice Sounds natural in part of the text but does not always sound like talking to a friend	Reads with volume and expression Sometimes slips into expressionless reading and does not sound like talking to a friend	Reads with varied volume and expression Sounds like talking to a friend and voice matches the interpretation of the passage
Phrasing	Reads word-by-word in a monotone voice	Reads in two- or three-word phrases, not adhering to punctuation, stress, and intonation	Reads with a mixture of run-ons, mid-sentence pauses for breath, and choppiness Reasonable stress and intonation	Reads with good phrasing, adhering to punctuation, stress, and intonation
Smoothness	Frequently hesitates while reading, sounds out words, and repeats words or phrases Makes multiple attempts to read the same passage	Reads with extended pauses or hesitations Has many "rough spots"	Reads with occasional breaks in rhythm Has difficulty with specific words and/or sentence structures	Reads smoothly with some breaks but self-corrects with difficult words and/or sentence structures
Pace	Reads slowly and laboriously	Reads moderately slowly	Reads fast and slow throughout reading	Reads at a conversational pace throughout

Score: 9

A score of 10 or more indicates the student is making good progress in fluency.
 A score below 10 indicates the student needs additional instruction in fluency.

Retell Scoring

Count the number of words by marking a slash through numbers as the student says the retell.

0 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 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48
49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71
72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94

Quality of Retell Response

1	2	3	4
Provides two or fewer details	Provides three or more details	Provides three or more details in a meaningful sequence	Provides three or more details in a meaningful sequence that captures a main idea

Adapted from Good & Kaminski, 2011; Rasinski, 2004.

Diagnostic Data From Spelling Inventory

Fourth Grade (Middle of Year): Spelling Inventory Data Disaggregated by Orthographic Pattern

Student Name	TOTAL Patterns Correct and Words Correct 82 Total Points	ORTHOGRAPHIC PATTERNS										Words Spelled Correctly	
		Consonant Blends 7 Points	Short Vowels 7 Points	Long Vowel Patterns 7 Points	Other Vowel Patterns 7 Points	Inflected Endings 7 Points	Syllable Junctures 7 Points	Unaccented Final Syllables 7 Points	Suffixes 7 Points	26 Points			
Roshan	29	7	6	4	4	5	0	0	0	3			
Makaila	35	7	7	1	4	5	1	2	2	6			
Kelsey	42	7	6	5	5	6	1	1	2	9			
Rey	44	7	7	7	6	6	0	1	2	8			
Natalia	46	7	7	6	7	4	3	2	0	10			
Ryan	46	7	6	6	6	5	1	2	2	11			
Arjun	50	6	6	7	7	7	1	2	2	12			
Annella	52	7	7	7	7	7	1	2	3	11			
Yahir	53	7	7	7	6	6	3	1	3	13			
Danika	59	7	7	6	6	4	4	4	5	16			
Alex	59	7	7	6	7	7	3	4	3	15			
Saul	60	7	7	6	6	7	5	5	2	15			
Freda	62	7	7	7	7	6	4	3	4	17			
Erika	62	7	7	6	7	7	5	4	4	15			
Preston	68	7	7	7	7	7	5	5	4	19			
David	68	7	6	7	6	7	7	7	3	18			
Chance	73	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	20			
Prima	74	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	22			
Ashley	76	7	7	7	7	7	6	7	5	23			
Gabriel	80	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	25			

■ = 0–39, ■ = 40–49, ■ = 50–82
■ = 2 or more pattern errors ■ = 0–9, ■ = 10–14, ■ = 15–26

Using the diagnostic spelling inventory data, answer the following questions.

Which students need small-group instruction to fill gaps in orthographic patterns they should have mastered by the middle of the year in fourth grade? How would you group them?

Work on long and other vowel patterns: Roshan, Makaila, Kelsey

Work on inflected endings: Roshan, Makaila, Natalia, Ryan, Danika

Which students can be pushed to master more complex orthographic patterns?

David, Chance, Prima, Ashley, Gabriel

Based on these data, what will be the focus of your whole-group instruction in word study and recognition?

Syllable junctures and unaccented final syllables
Suffixes

Adapted from Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2015.

Grade 4 Literacy Block

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Word study and recognition (30–45 minutes)			
Fluency (10–15 minutes)			

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners		Workstation Ideas
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners	
Vocabulary (10–15 minutes)			
Comprehension (25–30 minutes)			


Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Workstation Ideas	Supporting All Learners	
		Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Writing (20–30 minutes)			

Example Activities and Lessons to Use	Supporting All Learners	
	Struggling Learners	English Language Learners
Small groups and workstations		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use data to group students in same-ability small groups and mixed-ability workstation groups • Work with struggling students daily on fundamental skills and building automaticity • Work with other students as often as possible on specific skills and enrichment activities • Use workstations that cut across the components and provide extended practice with taught skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meet with daily • Target specific skills • Practice to automaticity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work with ELLs in small groups to target specific language needs • Partner ELLs with other students to help scaffold English language



Using Assessment Data

Activity Resource

 A yellow pencil with a black eraser and a black band. The band has the text "GRADES 4 & 5" in black, sans-serif font. The pencil is positioned horizontally, with its tip pointing to the left, and it is placed over the letter "R" of the word "READING".

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GRADE 4



Slide—Listening Comprehension



Place a check mark next to the components you are comfortable assessing and examining.

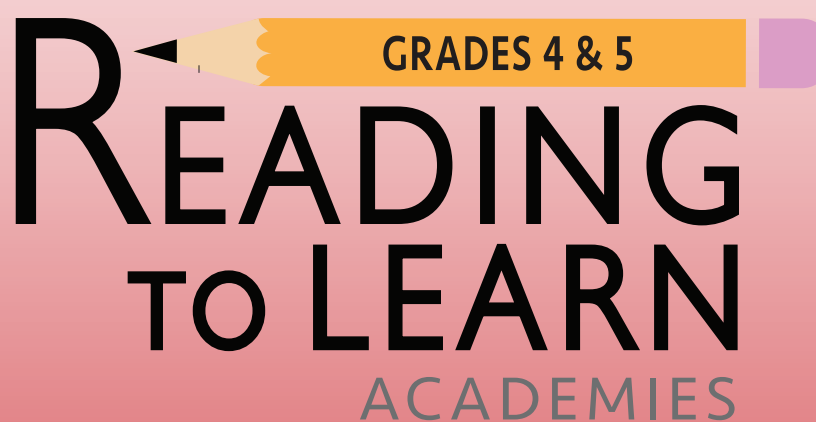
Put a star next to the two components you need more support with or information about how to assess them effectively.

Discuss what you've learned so far about assessing these different components.



Putting It All Together

Presenter Notes



GRADE 4

Materials

Presenter Materials

- Adhesive tab
- Document camera
- Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary

Participant Materials

Folder containing the following documents: Overview Handout 1: The Reading Rope, Grades 3–6 English Language Arts and Reading TEKS Alignment, Grade 4 Literacy Block, English Language Learner Scaffolding Planning Guide, Glossary



READING TO LEARN ACADEMIES

GRADE 4

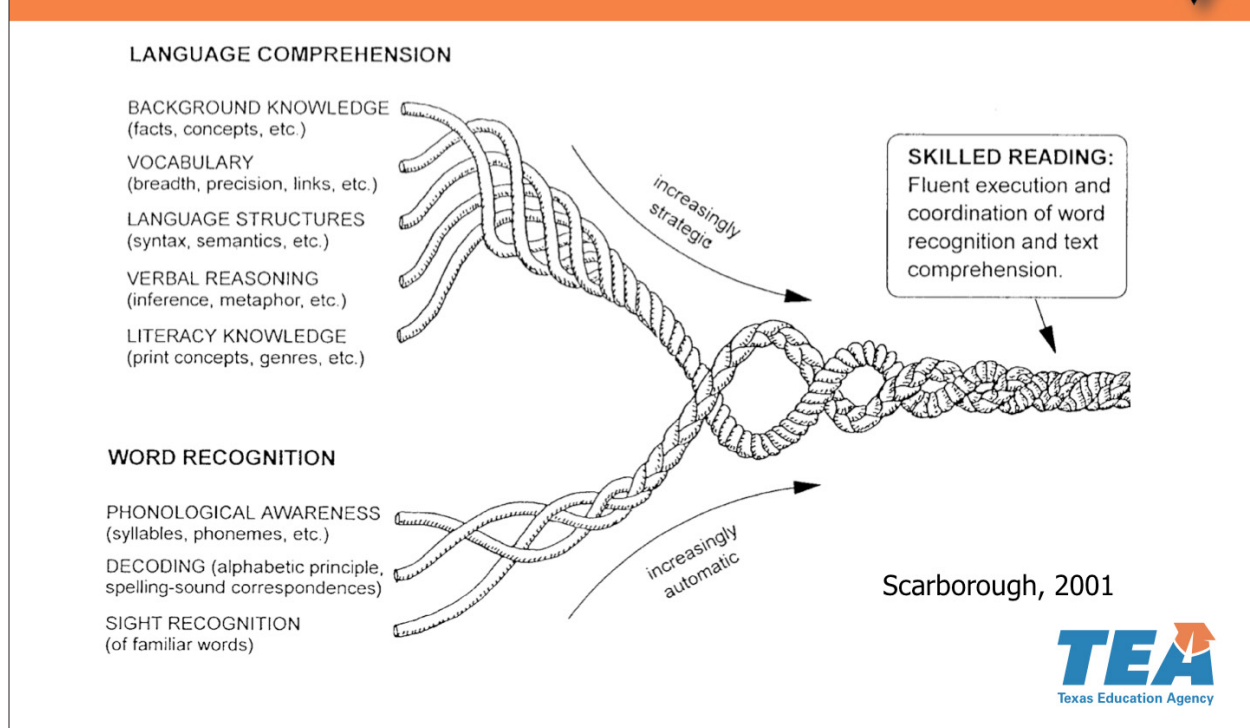
Putting It All Together

Slide 1—Title Slide

(0:00–0:15)

We are at the end of the Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy. Let's take some time to reflect on what we have learned over the past three days.

Completing the Reading Rope



Slide 2—Completing the Reading Rope

(0:15–2:00)

We will now complete the reading rope that we began on the first day. Please locate your reading rope model.

Pause for participants to locate their reading rope model.

The reading rope is completed when the two strands bind together seamlessly. A reader who decodes and comprehends text with automaticity has fluent execution and coordination of word recognition and text comprehension.

Activity

Now that your model is complete, represent fluency by adding an adhesive tab to the far-right side of the model. Label your tab “skilled, fluent reader.”

Allow a few seconds for participants to work.

Reference

Scarborough, 2001

Reflection: Supporting All Learners

- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 3—Reflection: Supporting All Learners

(2:00–5:30)

Now, we will take a moment to reflect on each section of the academy. Please remove your completed Grade 4 Literacy Block from your folder.

Pause for participants to locate the document.

Also, locate in your binder this section's **Handout 1: Academy Reflection**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

Using your completed Grade 4 Literacy Block and your other academy materials, decide what was your main takeaway, or your “big idea,” from the Supporting All Learners section. Write that in the first row, first column of the table in Handout 1.

Notes continue on the next page.

Then, think about what your next steps will be to implement that takeaway related to Supporting All Learners, including a time frame for implementation. Write those ideas in the second column. Next, reflect on who will support you or with whom you will collaborate for implementation. Write those ideas in the third column. You have two minutes to work.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Reflection: Word Study and Recognition

- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 4—Reflection: Word Study and Recognition

(5:30–8:00)

Activity

We will now complete the same reflection activity for the Word Study and Recognition section. Move to the second row and complete it with your main takeaway, next steps and a time frame for implementation, and the support or collaboration that will help make implementation possible. You have two minutes to work.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Reflection: Fluency

- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 5—Reflection: Fluency

(8:00–10:30)

Activity

Complete the third row for the Fluency section of this academy using the same guiding thoughts as you used in the previous two sections. You have two minutes to work.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Reflection: Vocabulary

- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 6—Reflection: Vocabulary

(10:30–13:00)

Activity

You have two minutes to complete the fourth row for the Vocabulary section of this academy.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Reflection: Comprehension



- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 7—Reflection: Comprehension

(13:00–15:30)

Activity

Now, you will complete the fifth row for the Comprehension section. You have two minutes to work.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Reflection: Writing



- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 8—Reflection: Writing

(15:30–17:45)

Activity

Work through these reflections and takeaways toward implementation on the sixth row related to the Writing section of this academy. You have two minutes to work.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Reflection: Motivating and Engaging Students

- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 9—Reflection: Motivating and Engaging Students

(17:45–20:00)

Activity

Take two minutes to write your reflections and takeaways toward implementation on the next row in the handout: Motivating and Engaging Students. You have two minutes.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Reflection: Using Assessment Data

- Your main takeaway?
- Next steps toward implementation?
- Who will support implementation?



Slide 10—Reflection: Using Assessment Data

(20:00–22:15)

Activity

You have two more minutes to complete the last row for the Using Assessment Data section we just completed. You may begin.

Allow two minutes for participants to work.

Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy Impact

What impact will this academy have on your literacy instruction?



Slide 11—Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy Impact (22:15–24:30)

Now take one minute to reflect on the question on this slide.

Provide one minute for participants to reflect on the question.

Final Reflection



- What are three ideas you learned in this academy that will affect your instruction?
- What are three instructional elements you will continue to implement?
- What are three instructional elements you will begin to implement?



Slide 12—Final Reflection

(24:30–29:00)

Please locate **Handout 2: Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy Impact**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.

Activity

You will have four minutes to respond to these questions. Please note your responses on Handout 2. You will determine

- three ideas you learned from this academy that will affect your instruction,
- three instructional elements you will continue to implement, and
- three instructional elements you will begin to implement as a result of this academy.

Notes continue on the next page.

Allow four minutes for participants to work.

Now we will mix it up a bit! Please stand up.

Pause for participants to stand.

Take the handout you just completed and walk around the room until I signal you to stop. As you walk, think about which ideas from each of the three lists on your handout you want to share with someone.

Give participants a moment to walk around the room.

Stop. Turn toward the person standing closest to you. This will be your last partner of the academy. Take turns sharing one idea from each of the three lists on your completed handout. You have three minutes.

Allow three minutes for participants to share their ideas. Walk around and listen to the discussions.

Thank you! Please return to your seat.

Remember



“So it is with children who learn to read fluently and well: They begin to take flight into whole new worlds as effortlessly as young birds take to the sky.”

—William James

“It’s none of their business that you have to learn to write. Let them think you were born that way.”

— Ernest Hemingway



Slide 13—Remember

(29:00–30:00)

Here are two of our favorite quotations related to reading and writing.

Pause for participants to read.

To inspire you as we wrap up the Grade 4 Learning to Read Academy, we leave you with one final handout, **Handout 3: Quotations to Inspire Reading and Writing**.

Pause for participants to locate the handout.


We hope you have learned a lot and enjoyed these last three days.

Thank you and best wishes as you continue to implement these instructional practices and increase literacy outcomes for all your fourth-grade students!



Putting It All Together

Handouts

 A yellow pencil with a black eraser and a black band. The band has the text "GRADES 4 & 5" in black, sans-serif font. The pencil is positioned horizontally, with its tip pointing to the left, and it is placed over the letter "R" of the word "READING".
READING
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Academy Reflection

Main Section Takeaway	Next Steps to Implementation	Support and Collaboration
Supporting All Learners		
Word Study and Recognition		
Fluency		

Main Section Takeaway	Next Steps to Implementation	Support and Collaboration
Vocabulary		
Comprehension		
Writing		

Main Section Takeaway	Next Steps to Implementation	Support and Collaboration
Motivating and Engaging Students		
Using Assessment Data		

Grade 4 Reading to Learn Academy Impact

Three ideas I learned that will affect my instruction:

1.

2.

3.

Three instructional elements I will continue to implement:

1.

2.

3.

Three instructional elements I will begin to implement as a result of this academy:

1.

2.

3.

Quotations to Inspire Reading and Writing

Reading

“So it is with children who learn to read fluently and well: They begin to take flight into whole new worlds as effortlessly as young birds take to the sky.”

— William James

“A reader lives a thousand lives before he dies. The man who never reads lives only one.”

— George R. R. Mann

“The world belongs to those who read.”

— Rick Holland

“Each time you open a book and read it, a tree smiles, knowing there’s life after death.”

— Anonymous

“A book is a dream that you hold in your hand.”

— Neil Gaiman

“Whenever you read a good book, somewhere in the world, a door opens to allow in more light.”

— Vera Nazarian

“Any book that helps a child to form a habit of reading, to make reading one of his deep and continuing needs, is good for him.”

— Maya Angelou

“Great books help you understand, and they help you feel understood.”

— John Green

“In a good book, the best is between the lines.”

— Swedish proverb

“It is what you read when you don’t have to that determines what you will be when you can’t help it.”

— Oscar Wilde

“There are perhaps no days of our childhood we lived so fully as those we spent with a favorite book.”

— Marcel Proust

“Today a reader, tomorrow a leader.”

— Margaret Fuller

“Reading is a discount ticket to everywhere.”

— Mary Schmich

“Once you learn to read, you will be forever free.”

— Frederick Douglas

“Outside of a dog, a book is a man’s best friend. Inside of a dog, it’s too dark to read.”

— Groucho Marx

“We read to know we are not alone.”

— C. S. Lewis

“You can find magic wherever you look. Sit back and relax—all you need is a book.”

— Dr. Seuss

Writing

“It’s none of their business that you have to learn to write. Let them think you were born that way.”

— Ernest Hemingway

“We write to taste life twice, in the moment and in retrospect.”

— Anaïs Nin

“To live a creative life, we must first lose the fear of being wrong.”

— Joseph Chilton Pearce

“If there’s a book that you want to read, but it hasn’t been written yet, then you must write it.”

— Toni Morrison

“There is no greater agony than bearing an untold story inside you.”

— Maya Angelou

“You don’t write because you want to say something. You write because you have something to say.”

— F. Scott Fitzgerald

“If you want to be a writer, you have to write every day ... You don’t go to a well once but daily.”

— Walter Mosley

“I write to give myself strength. I write to be the characters I am not. I write to explore all the things I’m afraid of.”

— Joss Whedon

“I can shake off everything as I write. My sorrows disappear; my courage is reborn.”

— Anne Frank

“Most of the basic material a writer works with is acquired before the age of 15.”

— Willa Cather

“Don’t try to figure out what other people want to hear from you; figure out what you have to say. It’s the one and only thing you have to offer.”

— Barbara Kingsolver

“Get it down. Take chances. It may be bad, but it’s the only way you can do anything really good.”

— William Faulkner

“Almost all good writing begins with terrible first efforts. You need to start somewhere.”

— Anne Lamott

“The most difficult thing about writing is writing the first line.”

— Amit Kalantri

“Write. Rewrite. When not writing or rewriting, read. I know of no shortcuts.”

— Larry L. King

“If you want to be a writer, you must do two things above all others: read a lot and write a lot.”

— Stephen King

