Research Base of the TCRWP Reading Curriculum

"Success in the early grades does not guarantee success throughout the school years and beyond, but failure in the early grades does virtually guarantee failure in later schooling." (p. 11)

Slavin, R., N. Karweit, and B. Wasik. (1992). Preventing early school failure: What works? *Educational Leadership,* 50, 10-19.

"The Big Five" from the Reading First Panel of the Federal Government

"Adequate progress in learning to read English beyond the initial level depends on the following:
1. A working understanding of how sounds are represented alphabetically;
2. Time for sufficient practice in reading to achieve fluency;
3. Opportunity to read different kinds of text written for different purposes;
4. Instruction focused on concept and vocabulary growth; and
5. Control over procedures for monitoring comprehension and repairing misunderstandings." (p. 223).

Snow, C. E., Burns, M.S. & Griffin, P. (Eds.) (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

The Work of the TCRWP Is Grounded in the Best of Current and Seminal Research on Balanced Literacy Instruction		
Research Topic	Findings	Sources
Use a balanced approach to combining whole-class and small group instruction.	The work of the TCRWP supports all components of a balanced approach which combines whole-class and small group instruction. Whole-Class: • Minilessons and End of Workshop Shares in Reading and Writing Workshop • Interactive Writing • Shared Reading • Small Group: • Partner Reading • Guided Reading Lessons • Strategy Lessons • Individual conference • Table conference (with a group of children in one area)	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2001). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* Washington, DC: National Institutes of Health. Neuman, S. B., & Dickinson, D. K. (Eds.), (2001). *Handbook of early literacy research.* New York: Guilford Publications. Adams, M., Forman, B., Lundberg, I., & Beeler, T. (1998). *Phonemic awareness in young children.* Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.
Using assessment to inform instruction in all areas of balanced literacy	A combination of formative (conference notes, notes after small group lessons, quick checks on reading level, and so forth) and informal assessments developed by the TCRWP (K-8 Assessment for Independent Reading Level and Writing	Fountas, I. C. & Pinnell, G. S. (1996). *Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Tierney, R. J. (1998). Literacy assessment reform: Shifting beliefs, principled possibilities, and emerging practices. *The*

	Rubrics to judge student progress) are used to identify students' reading and writing strengths and weaknesses. Daily interaction with students during Reading and Writing Workshop and other components of balanced literacy provide assessment checkpoints so teachers can monitor student learning.	*Reading Teacher*, 51(5), 374-390. Beaver, J. M. (2006). *Developmental reading assessment: Second edition (DRA2).* Parsippany, NJ: Celebration Press. McGill-Franzen, A.Dick Allington's wife) (2006). *Kindergarten literacy: matching assessment and instruction in kindergarten.* New York, NY: Scholastic, Inc. Caldwell, J. S. (2002). *Reading assessment: A primer for teachers and tutors.* New York, NY: Guilford Publications. Snow, C. E., Burns, M.S. & Griffin, P. (Eds.) (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
Provide daily opportunities for students to read on-level text.	The TCRWP K-8 Assessment for Independent Reading Level is designed to identify a student's independent reading level. In addition, students are taught how to choose books that are just right for them within a level. In turn, a student goes to a basket of books at his/her assessed level and chooses "just right books" within that level. Independent reading time is a major part of Readers Workshop, and students are encouraged to read independently at other free times during the day. Homework always involves independent reading.	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2001). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* Washington, DC: National Institutes of Health. Armbruster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Putting reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read—Kindergarten through grade 3.* Washington, D.C. National Institute for Literacy. Fountas, I. C. & Pinnell, G. S. (1996). *Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. Au, K. A., Carroll, J. H., & Sheu, J. A. (1997). *Balanced literacy instruction; A teacher's resource book.* Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.
Scaffolded instruction for all students with a gradual release of responsibility from teacher to student—teaching for independence.	The format for minilessons, conference and small group lessons follows and models the steps of scaffolded instruction outlined in the literature as follows: 1. Introduce the strategy (explicit identification of the strategy) 2. Model the strategy (teacher modeling) 3. Guided Practice (student practice with teacher support)	Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: the development of higher psychological processes* (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Eds. & Trans.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. (Original work published 1934). Allington, R. L., & Johnston, P.H. (2000). What do we know about effective fourth-grade teachers and their

	4. Review and reflect (independent application) (Pearson and Gallagher, 1983; Pearson and Duke, 2002)	classrooms? (CELA Research Report No. 13010), Albany: National Research Center on English Learning and Achievement, State University of New York. Allington, R. L., and Johnston, P. H. (2002). *Reading to learn: Lessons from exemplary fourth-grade classrooms.* New York: Guilford Publications. Pearson, P. D., and Gallagher, M. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology,* 8, 317-344. Pressley, M., Allington, R. L., Wharton-McDonald, R., Block, C., & Morrow, L. M. (2001). *Learning to Read: Lessons from exemplary first grade classrooms.* New York: Guilford Publications.
Provide explicit models of reading strategy instruction.	Through printed materials (books, curriculum calendars, and additional packets of information), calendar (conference) days with video examples of strategy teaching, on-site staff development by TCRWP staff-developers, and a series of institutes (week long courses) throughout the year, teachers are provided with models of explicit strategy instruction. In addition to providing examples of the Pearson-Duke format above in the format of project minilessons and conference architectures, teachers are instructed in how to prompt students differentially to provide a release of responsibility creating independent student use of strategies.	RAND Reading Study Group. (2002). *Reading for Understanding: Toward and R&D program in reading comprehension.* Santa Monica, CA: RAND. Duke, N. K. & Pearson, P. D. (2002). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. In A. E. Firetrap & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction (3rd. ed., pp. 205-242).* Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Palinscar, A. S. and Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1(2), 117, 175. Pearson, P. D., Roehler, L. R. , Dole, J.A., & Duffy, G.G. (1990). *Developing expertise in language to learn.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
Provide opportunities for students to collaborate and talk about their learning.	Various structure and events during the day allow students who participate in the work of the TCRWP to collaborate and talk about their learning. Techniques such as "turn and talk" to a partner is used during minilessons, interactive read aloud, partner time during independent reading time, and sometimes during small group instruction. At these points, teachers can listen in and assess students' understanding of new learning.	RAND Reading Study Group. (2002). *Reading for Understanding: Toward and R&D program in reading comprehension.* Santa Monica, CA: RAND. Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: the development of higher psychological processes* (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Eds. & Trans.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. (Original work published

	The teaching point at the end of small group lessons and the share at the end of the workshop often provides opportunities for students to talk about their new learning with others in the class or group.	1934). Eeds, M., & Wells, D. (1989). Grand conversations: An exploration of meaning construction in literature study groups. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 23(1), 4-29. Cazden, C. B. (1988). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Johnson, D. W. and Johnson, R. T. (1987). *Learing together and alone: Cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning* (2nd Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. Allington, R. L., & Johnston, P.H. (2000). What do we know about effective fourth-grade teachers and their classrooms? (CELA Research Report No. 13010), Albany: National Research Center on English Learning and Achievement, State University of New York. Allington, R. L., and Johnston, P. H. (2002). *Reading to learn: Lessons from exemplary fourth-grade classrooms*. New York: Guilford Publications.
Teach reading skills and strategies in the context of real reading.	Reading and writing skills and strategies are taught in the context of "real" reading and writing throughout the school day by reading and discussing varied genre--fiction and non-fiction text as well as producing various kinds of writing.	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2001). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* Washington, DC: National Institutes of Health. Fountas, I. C. & Pinnell, G. S. (1996). *Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. Clay, M. M. (1985). The early detection of reading difficulties: A diagnostic survey with recovery procedures (3rd ed.), Auckland, New Zealand: Heinemann. Duke, N. K. & Pearson, P. D. (2002). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. In A. E. Firetrap & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction (3rd. ed., pp. 205-242)*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Research Base of the TCRWP Reading Curriculum

Some Quotes You Might Use—And Who Said It!

Domain	What the Research Says (followed by who said it).

Phonemic Awareness	"In addition to teaching phonemic awareness, it is important for teachers to help children make connections between the skill taught and their application to reading and writing tasks."
	
	    National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2001). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* Washington, DC: National Institutes of Health.
	
	"Reading aloud models what language sounds like and how one reads, and it helps children to foster their appreciation and comprehension of text and literary language."
	
	    Snow, C. E., Burns, M.S. & Griffin, P. (Eds.) (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
	
	"Through rich experiences with language, patterned stories, and big books, teachers can model, demonstrate and explicitly teach phonemic awareness."
	
	    Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
	    Juel, C. (1991). Beginning reading. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, and P. D. Pearson (Eds.O, *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 759-788). New York: Longman.
	    Pressley, M., Allington, R. L., Wharton-McDonald, R., Block, C., & Morrow, L. M. (2001). *Learning to Read: Lessons from exemplary first grade classrooms.* New York: Guilford Publications.
	
	"Phonemic awareness instruction does not need to consume long periods of time to be effective. In these analyses, programs lasting less than 20 minutes were more effective than longer programs."
	
	    National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2001). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* Washington, DC: National Institutes of Health.

Phonics	"Programs should acknowledge that systematic phonics instruction is a means to an end. Some phonics programs focus primarily on teaching children a large number of letter-sound relationships. These program often do not allot enough instructional time to help children learn to put this knowledge into use in reading actual words, sentences, and texts. Although children need to be taught the major consonant and vowel letter-sound relationships, they also need ample reading (in uncontrolled text; i.e. NOT decodable text) and writing activities that allow them to practice this knowledge."
	
	    Hudson, R.F., L. High, & S. Al Otaiba. (2007). Dyslexia and the brain: What does the current research tell us? *The Reading Teacher,* 60(6), Pp. 506-515.
	    Armbruster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Putting reading first: The research building blocks for teaching*

| | *children to read—Kindergarten through grade 3.* Washington, D.C. National Institute for Literacy.

"Phonics instruction is important because it leads to an understanding of the alphabetic principal (i.e. letters have sounds attached to them, there isn't a one-to-one correspondence between sounds heard and letters seen, and letters change sounds)—or the systematic and predicable relationship between written letters and spoken sounds"
    Armbruster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Putting reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read—Kindergarten through grade 3.* Washington, D.C. National Institute for Literacy.

"When students receive intensive phonics instruction, (brain scans show) that regions of the brain that process letter-sound relationships was, predictably, more active, and the students' performance on tests designed to measure phonics skills improves. But, we cannot generalize from these findings that ALL reading improves when the so called phonics center becomes more active. Such a conclusion would be like taking a patient who has suffered permanent right-arm paralysis that has spared, but weakened the right pinky finger and treating the patient by performing intensive physical therapy on that one finger. If the patient moves that finger during a brain scan, the brain region with neurons dedicated to movement of the right pinky finger. Yet, no improvement would necessarily occur in the movement of any other part of the patient's arm; the therapy would not affect the damaged neurons that control the whole arm.
    In the same way, it is faulty science to conclude that reading ability has improved just because phonics-intense instruction has produced changes in phonics-functioning brain regions (on brain scans) and improved performance on phonics-weighted post-tests. Nevertheless, researchers have used the "brain glitch theory" to lump diverse reading differences and learning styles under a single label of phonics impairment. And policy makers have used that label to promote one-size-fits-all, phonics-heavy reading instruction (Coles, 2004). A generation of students is paying the price."
    Willis, J. (2007). The gully in the "brain glitch" theory. *Educational Leadership*, 64(5), Pp. 68-73. |
| Fluency | "Direct instruction in fluency can improve students' comprehension."
    National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2000b). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* (NIH Publication No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
    Sample, K.J. (2005). Promoting fluency in adolescents with reading difficulties. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 40, 243-246.
    Shanahan, T. (2006). Developing fluency in the context of effective literacy instruction. In T. Rasinski, C. Blachowicz, & K. Lems (Eds.), *Fluency instruction: Research-based best practices*. New York: Guilford Publications.

"Repeated reading (e.g. reading the same book/story several times) interventions that were combined with comprehension activities enhanced bother fluency and comprehension. Thus, it would seem to confirm the importance of including both these elements in daily instruction."
    Chard, D. J., Vaughn, S., & Tyler, B. (2002). A synthesis of research on effective interventions for building reading |

	fluency with elementary students with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 35(5), 386-406.*

Vocabulary	"Instruction in vocabulary should focus on high-value words students need to understand in order to develop as readers."
	    Biemiller, A. (2003). Vocabulary: Needed if more children are to read well. *Reading Psychology*, 24, 315-327.
	    Blachowicz, C. L. Z., & Fisher, P. (2000). Vocabulary Instruction. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 503-524). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
	
	"Students must be given multiple opportunities to encounter the words in varying contexts."
	    Blachowicz, C. L. Z., & Fisher, P. (2000). Vocabulary Instruction. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 503-524). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
	    Beck, I. L., Perfetti, C. A. and McKeown, M. G. (1982). Effects of long-term reading vocabulary instruction on lexical access and reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 74(4), 506-521.
	    Nagy, W. E., & Scott, J. A. (2000). Vocabulary Processes. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3, pp. 269-284). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
	
	"Vocabulary is also very important to reading comprehension. Readers cannot understand what they are reading without know what most of the words mean. As children learn to read more advanced texts, they must learn the meaning of new words that are not part of their oral vocabulary."
	    Armbruster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Putting reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read—Kindergarten through grade 3.* Washington, D.C. National Institute for Literacy.
	
	"Reading stories, as an act in itself does not necessarily promote literacy: sharing attitudes, and interactive behaviors enhance the potential of the read-aloud even for promoting literacy development…During story reading, the adult helps the child understand the text by interpreting written language based on experiences, background, and beliefs (p. 351)."
	    Morrow, L.M. & L. Gambrell. (2001). Literature-based instruction in the early years. In Neuman, S.B. & D.K. Dickinson (Eds.), Handbook of early literacy research. (pp. 348-360). New York: Guilford Press.
	
	"The two experiments provide evidence that reading stories aloud to children is a significant source of vocabulary acquisition. But when teachers' provide additional explanation of words as they are reading can more than double such vocabulary gains (p. 185)."
	    Elley, W. (1989). Vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24(2), Pp. 174-187.
	    .
	
	"[Interaction} that provides opportunities for learners to use and negotiate new vocabulary items in dialogically symmetrical discourse (e.g. talking to each other) seems to create better conditions for incidental vocabulary acquisition than interaction in teacher-controlled exchanges that restrict the kind of intermittent activity claimed to foster learning. We also note, however, that even the teacher controlled exchanges in this study were quite successful in promoting vocabulary learning (p. 299)." (This supports our "turn and talk" with a vocabulary twist, and our explaining new

		vocabulary directly) Elllis, R. & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. *Studies in Language Acquisition,* 21(2), 285-301. "Both word meanings and sensitivity to the sound structure of words (phonological awareness) contributed to the second language reading comprehension for the young (and not very skilled) readers in this study. Because they had not received any instruction in literacy skills in their native language, it is likely that the (SE/book syntax, vocabulary and concept building) and metalinguistic skills they learned from the oral use of words supported their learning to read in the second language (p. 474)." (Therefore, the repeated reading of books—and exposure to book language—helps language development of ELL students.) Carlisle, J.F., M. Beeman, L.H. Davis, & G Spharim. (1999). Relationship of metalinguistic capabilities and reading achievement for children who are becoming bilingual. *Applied Linguistics*, 20, 459-478. "The results (of their study) indicate that the functional practice (in oral communication using their second language) was the strategy that distinguished successful Chinese ESL learners from the less successful ones (p. 297)." Huang, X., & M. Van Naerssen. (1987). Learning strategies for oral communication. *Applied Linguistics,* 8(3), 287-307.
	Comprehension	"Instruction in comprehension should be focused on a small number of key reading strategies and skills." National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2000b). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* (NIH Publication No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. Pressley, M., el-Dinary, P. B., Gaskins, I., Schuder, T., Bergman, J.L., Almasi, J., et. al. (1992). Beyond direct explanation: Transactional Instruction of reading comprehension strategies. *The Elementary School Journal,* 92(5), 513-555. "The teaching of each strategy should be explicit and intense sand should include substantial opportunities for meaningful practice and application." Palinscar, A. S. and Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1(2), 117, 175. Pearson, P. D. & Fielding, L. (1996). Comprehension Instruction. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, and P. D. Pearson (Eds.O, *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 815-880). New York: Longman. Rosenshine, B., Meister, C., & Chapman, S. (1996). Teaching students to generate questions: A review of the intervention studies. *Review of Educational Research,* 66(2), 181-221. "To develop as readers, striving students need substantial opportunities to read text written at a level they can read" O'Connor, R. E., Bell, K.M., Harty, K.R., Larking, L.K., Sackor, S., & Zigmond, N. (2002). Teaching reading to poor readers in the intermediate grades: A comparison of text difficulty. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 94,

474-485.

Stanovitch, K.E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly,* 21(4), 360-407.

"Comprehension strategies are not ends in themselves; they are means of helping students understand what they are reading."

Armbruster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Putting reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read—Kindergarten through grade 3.* Washington, D.C. National Institute for Literacy.

"Comprehension is the reason for reading. If readers can read the words but do not understand what they are reading, they are not really reading."

Armbruster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Putting reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read—Kindergarten through grade 3.* Washington, D.C. National Institute for Literacy.

"Clearly, direct instruction on comprehension strategies, a component of both experimental treatments, is an important aspect of teaching. Direct instruction involves teachers presenting comprehension and metacomprehension strategies, and students practicing the strategies with teaching guiding them and giving them corrective feedback (p. 14)."

R.J. Stevens, R.E. Slavin, & A.M. Farnish. (1991). The effects of cooperative learning and instruction in reading comprehension strategies on main idea identification. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(1), 8-16.

A strategy encouraged by teachers.

"Some teachers try to train children to miss out problem words in their reading and go to the end of the line or sentence in order to complete the meaning and so solve the word. Yet research (and day-to-day observation) shows that despite this training, young children at the acquisition stage spontaneously return to the beginning of a line or sentence to solve their problem. One can guess at the reason. The syntax or structure of the sentence, which establishes the relationships between words, is frequently destroyed or changed if words are omitted. Syntax, as we saw in the error analysis above, is one source of information, which supports early reading behavior. Teachers often demand that children try to read ahead lo~ before they have the competence to benefit from this tactic; it works well with competent readers, and it could work when children are reading familiar words in new stories. However, if the child's inclination is to return to line or sentence beginning and catch up some more information to solve the troublesome word, it is doubtful whether we should insist that he adopt the more artificial strategy of reading on. "

Clay, M. (1991). *Becoming Literate: The Construction of Inner Control.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, p. 302.

Research Base of the TCRWP Reading Curriculum

The 7 Habits of Great Readers
(From: Celebration Press Reading: Good Habits, Great Readers.)

Habit/Description	Research Citation

1.   Great readers see themselves as readers.
Great readers exhibit certain behaviors:
   a. They learn the importance of books and taking care of them.
   b. They choose books that match their interest and ability.
   c. They develop stamina to read for extended periods by broadening their experiences with books (i.e. rereading them for different purposes).
	"The ability to choose books for one's self is critical because it engages students in the world of reading."
	Fresch, M. (1995). Self-selection of early literacy learners. *The Reading Teacher*, 49(3), 220-227.
	
	"Knowledge of one's preferences for topics, settings, and authors is essential in building life long readers."
	Baker, L. Dreher, M. J., & Guthrie, J. T. (2000). Why teachers should promote reading engagement. In L. Baker, and M. J. Dreher and J. T. Guthrie (Eds.), Engaging young readers (pp. 1-16). New York, NY: Guilford Publications.

2.   Great readers make sense of text.
Making sense is the ultimate goal of reading. As students learn to do the following, they become more proficient at understanding what they read.
   a. Making predictions.
   b. Asking questions.
   c. Self-monitoring.
   d. Problem-solving words.
   e. Clarifying.
   f. Summarizing.
	"The National Reading Panel determined that question generation has the strongest scientific support and "may also be used as a part of a multiple strategy instruction program."
	   National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2000b). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* (NIH Publication No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
	
	"Teaching summarizing appears to improve memory and recall of details, as well as main ideas discussed in the text."
	   Armbruster, B. B., Anderson, T.H., and Ostertag, J. (1987). Does text structure/summarization instruction facilitate learning from expository text? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22(3), 331-346.
	   Baumann, J. F. (1984). The effectiveness of a direct instruction paradigm for teaching main idea comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly,* 20(1), 93-115.

3.   Great readers use what they know.
Thinking about what they know about a topic aids readers in doing the following:
   a.   Making predictions.
   b.   Figuring out word pronunciations.
   c.   Figuring out word meanings.
   d.   Connecting to new ideas.
   e.   Making inferences.
	"Vocabulary and reading comprehension are closely linked because of the relationship between words and conceptual knowledge."
	    Beck, I. L., Perfetti, C. A. and McKeown, M. G. (1982). Effects of long-term reading vocabulary instruction on lexical access and reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 74(4), 506-521.
	
	"The ability to infer meanings not explicitly stated is a linchpin to comprehension."
	    Collins, A., Brown, I., & Larkin, K. (1980). Inferences in text understanding. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, and W. F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in teaching comprehension* (pp. 375-407). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

4.   Great readers understand how stories work.
By understanding the elements of fiction, students enhance their ability to:
   a.   Evaluate the relationships among characters.
   b.   Identify the importance of the setting.
   c.   Identify and search for the outcome of the story problem.
   d.   Make predictions about story characters.
   e.   Make predictions about story events.
   f.   Determine the author's purpose.
	"Children who are instructed in story grammar achieve higher levels of comprehension."
	    Baumann, J. E., & Bergeron, B. S. (1993). Story map instruction using children's literature: Effects on first-graders' comprehension of central narrative elements. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 25(4), 407-437.
	
	"Identifying and understand literary devices helps students create mental images when reading, an important strategy used by effective readers to support comprehension."
	    Borduin, B. J., Borduin, C. M., & Manley, C. M. (1994). The use of imagery training to improve reading comprehension of second graders. *Journal of Genetic Psychology,* 155(1), 115-118.

5.   Great readers read to learn.
Using nonfiction text features (illustrations, charts, graphs, diagrams, glossaries, indices, and so on) and nonfiction structures, in addition to running text, increases readers' ability to gain information.
   a.   Awareness of the purpose.
   b.   Awareness of the type.
   c.   Awareness of features and structures.
   d.   Gain factual information.
   e.   Set and monitor a purpose for reading.
	"In this Information Age the importance of being able to read and writing informational texts critically and well cannot be overstated. Informational literacy is central to success, and even survival, in advanced schooling, the workplace, and the community."
	Duke, N. K. (2000). 3.6 minutes a day: The scarcity of informational text in first grade. *Reading Research Quarterly, 35(3), 202-224.*
	
	"The National Reading Panel says using multiple strategies to understand finds considerable scientific support for its effectiveness as a treatment, and it is the most promising for use in classroom instruction where teachers and readers interact over text."
	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD).

	(2000b). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* (NIH Publication No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

6.   Great readers monitor and organize ideas and information.
Keeping track of information increases readers' ability to monitor their understanding as they make sense of text and recall important ideas and details from the text. The following techniques support readers in doing so:
  a. Taking notes.
  b. Using graphic organizers.
  c. Self-correcting.
  d. Self-monitoring.
  e. Visualizing.
	"Teaching students to organize the ideas that they are reading about in a systematic, visual graph benefits the ability of student to remember what they read."
	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2000b). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Reports of the sub groups: Comprehension.* (NIH Publication No. 00-4754). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
	
	"Children learn to monitor themselves to keep their correct reading on track, and when something seems to be wrong they usually search for a way to get rid of the dissonance. It is important for teachers to notice self-monitoring because the process is a general one required in all reading."
	Clay, M. M. (2001). *Change over time in children's literacy development.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

7.   Great readers think critically about books.
By thinking critically about nonfiction, students accomplish the following:
  a. Evaluate the author's sources.
  b. Evaluate the authenticity of information.
  c. Evaluate facts and opinions.
  d. Consider the purposes of the author.
  e. Consider the purposes to be used as a reader.
As students gain more strength as readers, they examine more complex genres and features of fiction and non-fiction.
  a. They become actively involved as readers.
  b. They identify different types of fiction.
  c. They respond to the themes and messages that the characters present.
Advanced readers examine texts from many perspectives, recognize bias, and support their judgments.
	"Critical literacy views readers as active participant in the reading process and invites them to move beyond passively accepting the text's message to question, examine, or dispute the power relations that exist between readers and authors."
	McLaughlin, M., & DeVoogd, G.L. (2004). *Critical literacy: Enhancing students' comprehension of text.* New York: Scholastic Inc.
	
	"For young children, the ability to fall into a book is essential for motivation and interest."
	Sipe, L.R. (2002). Talking back and taking over: Young children's expressive engagement during storybook read-alouds. *The Reading Teacher,* 55(5), 476-483.