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Reading intervention support for the older struggling reader : a desk-reference for reading interventions

Abstract

Reading interventions for the older student are a topic of discussion in school districts, especially when an increasing number of middle schools and high schools are in need of improvement in the area of reading. Because of this increase in literacy concern in the middle and high schools, there is a need to better understand areas of reading that would assist struggling adolescent readers. Research affirms the importance of including intervention assistance in the upper grades. Research indicates key areas to target: structures and features of text, decoding, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, writing and technology, as well as the incorporation of reading motivation.

READING INTERVENTION SUPPORT FOR THE OLDER STRUGGLING READER:
A DESK-REFERENCE FOR READING INTERVENTIONS

A Graduate Project

Submitted to the

Division of Literacy Education

Department of Curriculum and Instruction

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By

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Abstract

Reading interventions for the older student are a topic of discussion in school districts, especially when an increasing number of middle schools and high schools are in need of improvement in the area of reading. Because of this increase in literacy concern in the middle and high schools, there is a need to better understand areas of reading that would assist struggling adolescent readers. Research affirms the importance of including intervention assistance in the upper grades. Research indicates key areas to target: structures and features of text, decoding, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, writing and technology, as well as the incorporation of reading motivation.

Table of Contents

Introduction.....	7
Method.....	9
Review of Related Literature.....	11
Intervention Skill Focus.....	12
Structures and Features of Text.....	13
Decoding.....	18
Vocabulary.....	20
Fluency.....	23
Comprehension.....	25
Writing.....	29
Technology.....	31
Motivation.....	31
Conclusions.....	34
The Project.....	35
Desk Reference.....	37
Decoding.....	37
Motivation.....	38
Fluency.....	41
Structures and features of text.....	43
Writing and technology.....	44
Vocabulary.....	47

Comprehension.....48

Staff Development to Introduce the Desk Reference.....50

Table 1.....51

References.....54

Appendix A.....60

Appendix B.....70

Appendix C.....86

Introduction

Schools are in the midst of modifying reading programs because of the need to meet achievement requirements. Many states have made the move to strengthen elementary programs due to research reporting that interventions at an early age will prevent many students from becoming older struggling readers. Research maintains that if students are not proficient readers by the end of first grade they will more than likely not be proficient readers by the end fourth grade and will continue as struggling readers without additional reading support (Juel, 1988; Moats, 2001). Unfortunately, interventions in the elementary years do not prevent all students from becoming older struggling readers (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Salinger, 2003).

Each year data are collected on the reading performance of students in the United States by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). According to this data, there was a slight improvement in the basic reading performance at 4th grade and a slight decline in the basic reading performance at 8th grade when comparing data from 2005 and 2007 (Planty et al., 2008). NCES defines basic reading performance as the “partial mastery of fundamental skills” (Planky, et al., 2008, p. 22). According to the data, one third of 4th graders and approximately one fourth of 8th graders read below the basic performance level (Planty, et al., 2008). Although there have been gains in the last fifteen years in reading achievement, it is still disturbing to find that approximately one-third of the middle school students in the United States are reading below basic performance levels. These statistics for struggling readers are alarming and relate to research on graduation rates in the United States. In a ten-year span of data, the national high school graduation rate remained around 70% (Greene & Winters, 2005). Education Week (2006)

estimates that each year almost 1.2 million students fail to graduate from high school which means that "...every school day, 7,000 American high school students become dropouts" (Pinkus, 2006, p.1).

The purpose of this project is to identify research-based reading interventions that best assist the older reader in becoming an independent reader and to develop an effective means to disseminate the information to middle school and high school teachers in the field.

Method

The literature review used search terms “middle school” and “struggling reader” and “high school” and “struggling reader” and the combination of these terms with “interventions.” This literature review research used electronic based searches in ERIC (EBSCO) and Wilson. Several articles and books were found and reviewed for patterns of common reading components that should be targeted for reading intervention with adolescents. Common categorical areas were generated from literature, including comprehension, decoding, context clues and vocabulary building, fluency, structures and features of text, writing, and technology. Once these categories were determined, further research using ERIC (EBSCO) and Wilson utilized these component categories as search terms. Articles were then reviewed in order to compile a variety of strategies and activities that educators could use with large group instruction in the classroom or with individual students. An element in the success of reading, and included in the research reviewed, was the incorporation of reading motivation in the classroom or intervention program (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996). Gambrell et al. view motivation as a silent key to successful reading that must be incorporated throughout reading intervention.

Another consideration taken into account was an accessible resource for teachers, providing strategies that target essential components for successful reading. Because time constraints are a factor for teachers, it was important to create a project that would offer ease for the educator; a resource with a format that allows teachers to locate information easily, to flip to an idea quickly for utilization in the classroom. This notion of providing a quick flip to access information led to the development of a spiraled desk-reference,

one which would provide key intervention categories with a listing of activities and references for the educator. The references listed would include a majority of sources that can be found electronically using ERIC (EBSCO), which could be printed out by the teacher for use in the classroom. In developing the desk reference, the organization of the content was based on the number of strategies highlighted and on the overall visual design. The order of the components does not promote the order of skills and strategies to be addressed, nor does it suggest a hierarchy within the strategies and skills presented.

Review of Related Literature

Research has indicated that early reading prevention is the best solution to this alarming problem of struggling readers. Moats (2001) suggests that “reading failure begins early, takes root quickly, and affects students for life” (p. 36). She also states that once a learner begins to fall behind, it is very difficult for students to get back on the right track (Moats, 2001). However, even with the difficulties of getting back on track, if a student is unable to read at grade level by the end of 4th grade, Abbott and Berninger (1999) strongly suggest that remediation and intervention should not be discontinued. They acknowledge that early intervention is the best policy to ensure success for readers; however, some of these students may need continuing intervention after 3rd grade and possibly for the duration of high school. “Grade 4 is not too late to help struggling readers. The key question is the kind of intervention that can help these students put the pieces of the puzzle together.” (Salinger, 2003, p. 81)

Older Struggling Readers

The Carnegie Report, *Reading Next: A Vision for Action* (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004), became a catalyst for acknowledging the need for reading interventions in the upper grades. In their report, Biancarosa and Snow recommend further research on effective practices for older struggling readers to determine literacy skills that need to be addressed to make a difference at the secondary level. In research compiled by Greene and Winters (2005) on high school graduation rates in public and private schools for the class of 2002, 71% of high school students graduated with a diploma. According to this research, the class of 2002 had 3,852,077 students enrolled in 9th grade but by 12th grade this same graduating class had 2,632,182 students enrolled, with a loss of enrollment of

1,219,895. Biancarosa & Snow assert that the driving force behind a majority of these students' failure to complete school is their inability to be successful as readers. They suggest that this decline in enrollment at the secondary level can change through effective remediation – remediation that focuses on the needs of these struggling readers.

Research depicts reading as a puzzle with many intricate pieces (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; Salinger, 2003). Salinger argues that adolescent reading instruction addresses similar areas as that of young readers, but is more complex. He contends that what adds to this complexity of reading at the secondary level is the issue of affect; when students experience reading failure, whether it is with decoding, vocabulary, or fluency, it ultimately affects their comprehension of text. Fisher, Frey and Lapp contend that it is this loss of meaning that impacts a student's motivation to continue. According to Moats (2001), the difficulty with teaching older struggling readers involves a cyclical effect: if students are not able to read, they do not enjoy reading, and therefore will not practice skills necessary to become a better reader.

Intervention Skill Focus

Salinger (2003) suggests that implementing the same intervention with struggling adolescent readers in the exact same manner as interventions provided to younger struggling readers will not assist adolescents for success in reading. If skills practiced earlier in school did not help struggling students, then using the same strategies will not make a difference in the older years. Research on effective intervention for struggling adolescent readers suggests seven key areas of focus: structures and features of text, decoding, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, writing, technology to assist reading and writing skills, and motivation (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004;

Fisher, et al., 2008; Honig, 1997; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003). These seven areas of literacy instruction need to be provided in a manner that is cohesive, which allows learners to bring together different aspects of literacy into a meaningful approach to text. “Students cannot and should not bypass any critical skills necessary for fluent and meaningful reading because of their chronological age... all students need the mastering of the pertinent skills, but these must also not be the primary instruction in reading. There still must be a balance of all skills.” (Moats, 2001, p. 36-37)

Structures and Features of Text

According to the literature, readers will encounter two types of text structure while reading: story grammar, which is text structure of narrative passages, and the structure of informational text (Fisher, et al., 2008). In fact, examining the structure and features of text is an important strategy for reading and writing (Dymock, 2007; Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher & Frey, 2008; Fisher, et al., 2008; Harvey & Goudvis, 2000; Salinger, 2003). Englert and Hiebert believe both types of text, narrative and informative, warrant the examination of the features of the text before reading. They suggest that it is essential these text features are previewed in order to draw upon readers’ prior knowledge to deepen and heighten comprehension. For narrative text, these features often include the title of the book, the titles of chapters (if a chapter book), pictures and visuals, author’s note, and information about the author (Fisher & Frey). Additional features found within a narrative include characters, setting (including time and place), problems and solutions (or resolutions), actions, plot and them (Dymock). For younger texts, there is an easier analysis of story grammars that involve examining the beginning, the middle, and the end

of the story, often seeking aspects of more sophisticated elements such as characters, setting, problem and solution (Dymock).

In the research on comprehension strategy instruction for narrative text structure awareness, Dymock (2007) suggests story grammar strategies that may help the adolescent reader focus on larger text structure issues: story map, story web, story graph, analysis of episodes, and character weave. Dymock argues that the success of these different strategies is that they essentially address the story grammar by focusing on the key elements within the story of characters, time, place, problem, goal, action, and outcome. Story maps, story webs and story graphs ask the reader to conceptualize the connection of key elements within a story and to create a tangible graphic to represent those connections. Connections are also made when students are asked to analyze specific episodes within a story, or to create a character weave where different characters within a story (or across stories) are examined for such elements as physical traits, behaviors, conflicts, and decisions made.

For informational texts, text features include the title of the book, the table of contents, the titles of chapters, any headings and subheadings, captions, pictures or illustrations, graphics such as diagrams, charts, or graphs, bold and italicized text, including key vocabulary introduced within the glossary, and resources such as the index and the appendices (Fisher & Frey, 2008; Fisher, et al., 2008; Harvey, 2002; Salinger, 2003). This process of previewing text features also allows the reader to make connections with their own schemata and to activate their own metacognitive reading strategies, helping the reader to confirm what they know and don't know, and allowing them to make better sense of the text as they read. This type of previewing is common

among effective readers (Pressley, 2002). Teaching the strategy of examining the structure of the text is important in the upper grades in school (Salinger, 2003). “As students move toward increasingly difficult work in content area textbooks, they need to know how to use procedures...such as note taking, underlining, skimming, scanning, and previewing; and they need to recognize the importance of attending to ancillary aids such as titles, headings...” (Salinger, 2003, p. 84). In addition to these ancillary aids, readers can also focus on signal words to help organize their thinking of the content of text, such as first, second, then, finally, in contrast to, like, and similarly (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher & Frey, 2008).

The examination of informative text is as important as examining the structure of story form text (Salinger, 2003). However, instead of considering the beginning, middle, and ending of the story, since informational text is written with data and facts, Salinger suggests that it is important to examine the details and think how those details are organized, whether by chronological order, comparing and contrasting, or cause and effect. Englert and Heibert (1984) found that the knowledge of key words in text is critical in assisting the reader in understanding the structure of the text and in facilitating comprehension of the text. In their classic 1984 study, Englert and Heibert investigated how readers used text structure in their reading and the subsequent comprehension of that text. They found that “[c]hildren who were more in tune to the various text structures performed significantly better on a measure of reading comprehension...” (p. 71). What Englert and Hiebert found important in assisting students’ comprehension was the students’ knowledge of the types of text structures within their informational readings.

The four most common text structures found in informational texts used in their study were description, comparison, cause-effect, and problem/solution. These four structures are also common text formats found in many educational texts over the past 20 years (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Salinger, 2003). Description is an informational text structure that often appears narrative to readers in that it describes a particular phenomenon, often in a similar manner to descriptions found in narrative text. Often embedded within a descriptive text structure is the listing of characteristics or elements, sometimes in a sequencing format in chronological order.

Comparison text structure can be referred to as compare-contrast as well. This type of structure provides information about what is similar and what is different within a set of variables. Cause-effect is a type of text structure that involves an element of time or order; one event/dynamic happens first that then causes the resultant event/dynamic.

The problem/solution text structure, like the cause-effect structure, also has a sense of time within its structure. First, there is the initial problem that develops which is then solved through a single event/dynamic or series of events/dynamics. By providing readers with information about these text structures, their ability to comprehend informational texts should improve (Englert & Hiebert; Salinger).

It is important that students have an opportunity to investigate comprehension strategies in order to connect to the text structure and format, and to reflect upon the text in relation to their own experiences. Such interactions with text provide a higher level of comprehension (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Fisher, et al., 2008; Pardo, 2004; Pressley, 2002; Walker, 2005). Some ways that readers can be assisted in their reflection upon text is to engage with the text and text structure throughout their reading process (Knipper &

Duggan, 2006). This engagement can begin with previewing the text before reading. While reading, students can underline aspects of the text they find most interesting or most important. In addition, students can take notes on aspects of the text that intrigue or confuse them. These underlinings and notes can then be shared with peers and discussed.

It is most beneficial when text structures are introduced early in a student's learning. "...[T]eaching students the structure of narrative text from grade 1 provides them [students] with a foundation for comprehending more complex narrative text encountered at upper primary and high school (e.g. novels)..." (Dymock, 2007, p. 162). Dymock argues that readers need opportunities to reflect on the text as well. This time to reflect provides readers with the opportunity to address their own questions about the text. For example, if a reader does not understand something about a particular character's actions or has questions about the characters in general, that reader needs time to think about the character and to write down the questions s/he may have in a journal or on Post-It Notes®. Through such practice the reader is documenting what is known and not known, and can use these notes to discover the answers as s/he reads further. "Writing to learn engages the students, extends thinking, deepens understanding, and energizes the meaning-making process" (Knipper & Duggan, 2006, p.462). Dymock also suggests that readers need opportunities to discuss with other persons in order to clarify the meaning of the text. Such practices enable readers to be active and interactive with the text.

Graphic organizers, such as story maps, story webs and story graphs, can also help readers make sense of text structure by helping them visualize the text structure and relationships within that structure (Dymock, 2007; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson

Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005). Story maps are a type of graphic organizer that maps out the story grammar to make the parts of the story discernible. Story maps often include all components of story, showing the connection between the characters, the settings, the problem and the solution. Story webs are a graphic organizer similar to story maps, but webs often focus on a particular aspect of a story structure, such as the setting, or a particular character. Story graphs provide a visual of the acceleration and deceleration of events that occur within a story. A story graph often includes multiple events chronicled across a graph, representing the intensity or energy highs and lows found within a story.

Decoding

Decoding is an essential component in the process of reading, even for the adolescent (Honig, 1997). Decoding is the action of analyzing text and the capability of deciphering it, whether automatically or with strategies (Honig). Rasinski and Padak (2005) argue that the key to effectively decoding text is automaticity and accuracy. Automaticity is the ability to acknowledge text without the need of a strategy (Rasinski & Padak). Accuracy is decoding the text correctly (Rasinski, Padak, McKeon, Wilfong, Friedauer, & Heim, 2005). Honig (1997) contends that it is important for readers to decode text with accuracy and automaticity because "...if readers take too much time and mental effort decoding individual words, they can't attend to passage meaning" (p. 15). Rasinski and Padak (2005) concur, suggesting that when a reader takes too much time to decode text, it leads to the loss of reading fluently, which hinders the reader's ability to comprehend the text (Rasinski & Padak, 2005). Moats (2001) argues that this failure in

reading and understanding the text can increase a reader's feelings of failure and can decrease the reader's motivation to read or interest in reading.

Decoding is a necessary skill in the adolescent years (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams, Brown, & Van Zant, 2000; Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Honig, 1997; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003). Abbott and Berninger (1999) contend that even older students who have not mastered decoding strategies in the primary years may benefit from decoding intervention. Research emphasizes three major areas of decoding for intervention with struggling older readers: vowel patterns (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003), syllables (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003), and morphemic elements of prefixes, suffixes, and root words (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003). In addition to these three major areas of decoding, Fisher, Frey and Lapp (2008) also suggest using word families to help students become familiar with word patterns. By examining the onset and rime of key sets of words (such as pan, fan, can), students become familiar with word groups by rime. Fisher, Frey, and Lapp suggest that such knowledge benefits struggling readers in discerning patterns within words.

When approaching unknown words, metacognitive questioning (asking yourself what you know and don't know) is also a viable strategy (Pressley, 2002). This form of monitoring while engaging with text helps readers make sense of what they know and don't know. Pressley states that "...good readers...monitor problems they experience as they read" (p. 296). If a reader is having a problem decoding an unknown word it is important that the reader monitors this problem and asks questions actively during the

process of decoding the unknown word. Clay (1991) supports the active use of decoding strategies to help readers determine unknown words and make sense of text. Clay recommends teaching the following decoding strategies to help readers read more efficiently and purposefully: look for known chunks within unknown words, use what is already known, cover up part of the word to help decipher, think of a word that look like the unknown word, read on and then go back and reread to confirm the word choice, once the word is chosen ask if it makes sense and if it sounds right, and think about the story and reread the sentence to determine the validity of the word choice.

Vocabulary

Another intervention component for older struggling readers is increasing vocabulary knowledge. If a student is utilizing a decoding strategy, Honig (1997) argues that it must be because the unfamiliar word is not known automatically by the struggling reader. By helping students increase their vocabulary knowledge, they also increase their ability to be more automatic as a reader and more fluent as they approach words. If a reader is able to read words automatically, there is less decoding needed, which leaves more time for comprehension of the text (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Salinger, 2003).

Moats (2001) believes that for vocabulary instruction to be effective, students need to be given opportunities for daily vocabulary studies in a manner that does not emphasize the memorization of the vocabulary words. "Effective vocabulary study occurs daily and involves more than memorizing definitions...[it includes] context...root morphemes...mapping word... derivations... paraphrasing idiomatic or special uses of words...Word study should be linked to subject matter content and literature taught in class..." (Moats, p. 38-39) Bear et al. (2007) state that "...designing a word study

program that explicitly teaches students necessary skills and engages their interest and motivation to learn about how words work is a vital aspect of any literacy program” (p. 4). Bear, et al. further state that “the best way to develop fast and accurate perception of word features is to engage in meaningful reading and writing and to have multiple opportunities to examine those same words out of context” (p. 4). Some examples for word study suggested from the literature include teaching idioms (figurative language rather than literal language) and figures of speech (Bear, et al.); maintaining a vocabulary journal of vocabulary the student finds interesting with key information about the word recorded, and added to over time (Bear, et al.); examining word origins and derivations of words from Latin and Greek sources and from other languages (Moats); and teaching vocabulary through activities that address denotation (literal meaning), connotation (symbolic meaning), similes (comparing two differing terms as alike or similar), metaphors (directly connecting unrelated ideas), parts of speech (noun, verb, adjective, etc.), homographs (similar letters), homophones (similar sounds), synonyms (similar meaning), and antonyms (opposite meanings) to foster diverse ways of thinking about words (Bear, et al.; Rupley & Nichols, 2005). Daily activities can also be playful, using such strategies as hink-pinks or hinky-pinky’s where students are given clues to determine single syllable and double syllable rhyming words as answers (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004). A more proactive activity engages students in developing their own crossword puzzles to share with peers using words from their content area studies (Moats).

Rupley and Nichols (2005) note that “students rely on their background experiences to develop, expand, and refine concepts represented by the words they

encounter in speech and print” (p.243). They argue that the importance of students’ background experiences in developing word knowledge should be reflected in the teaching of vocabulary. One such instructional strategy is the concept wheel (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005) where students use their background knowledge to brainstorm what they know about a word, discuss the word’s meaning, and visually display the connection between the new word and their previous knowledge (usually presented in a circle divided into sections). Word hunts are another strategy that enables students to use their prior knowledge about words and about sight words in particular to hunt for words (and word patterns) within a graphic layout of letters (Bear et al., 2007).

“Instructional activities that visually display the words while at the same time provide students with the opportunity to compare and contrast new words to already known words can be an effective means for increasing students’ vocabulary knowledge” (p. 245). Some ways that vocabulary can be visually displayed are through the sorting and categorizing of words into meaningful connections (Bear et al., 2007), and through the examination of relationships that can be found among a group of words (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005). Word maps provide a graphic showing the connections across words both hierarchically and linearly (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005). Word family trees provide a graphic organizer format for connecting a key term to its word origins, for relating to words which share a common root, for showing words that serve a similar function, and for providing situations where the word could be used (Buehl, 2004; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004). Vocabulary webs can be created to show the connection of a target word

to other vocabulary, to a root word, and to other aspects of the target word (Bear et al., 2007; Rupley & Nichols, 2005).

Research also supports the importance of morphological knowledge through prefixes, suffixes, and root words. Students can employ these units of meaning to help identify unknown words and to make morphological connections across words (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003). Not only is it important to consider words in isolation, it is important to consider strategies that use context within a larger piece of text to help readers make sense of unknown words. The use of context clues within sentences, such as grammar functions, and across sentences, such as meaning contexts, assists in building vocabulary where the strategy helps solve unknown words (Honig, 1997).

Fluency

Fluency is an additional key component to being a successful reader. The lack of fluency often affects comprehension (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Salinger, 2003). Rasinski and Padak suggest four crucial elements of fluency: focusing on the inclusion of punctuation, using a consistent rate, adding appropriate expression, and reading smoothly.

Reading fluently results in greater time allocated to reading comprehension (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Salinger, 2003). A fluent reader automatically decodes words which allows the reader to exert more time towards the understanding of text (Pressley, 2002; Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Rasinski, et al., 2005; Salinger, 2003). Rasinski and Padak define fluency as “the ability to decode words in text effortlessly ...[and] the ability to phrase written text into appropriate and meaningful chunks...” (p.

34-35). Rasinski and Padak contend that “simply because students have had an initial encounter with fluency in the primary grades does not necessarily mean they have mastered fluent reading” (p. 35). One way for teachers to be able to determine the fluency of a reader is to simply listen to students reading. For a more formal documentation of their reading, teachers could record a student’s oral reading through a running record (Clay, 2006). In a running record, the teacher records the errors and the self corrections made by a reader over a particular piece of text, while the student reads aloud. This provides information about the accuracy of the student’s reading and the reading rate in words per minute. However, such an effort would require additional training on the part of the classroom teacher. A more feasible approach would be to allow students to record their own reading and to have them listen to their recorded reading as a way for each student to individually monitor their own fluency. Such an approach would also provide an avenue for students to intentionally practice fluency.

In order to bolster fluency development in older readers, Rasinski and Padak (2005) suggest a variety of strategies appropriate to implement in the classroom: repeated readings, passages for performance such as plays and reader’s theatres (text adapted for students’ to perform orally as a play), and inviting students to partake in poetry slams (competitive poetry presentations). Rasinski and Padak also recommend shared and guided reading in the form of “assisted or paired reading... [to aid in the] gain in fluency by reading with someone who is a more fluent reader...” (p. 39). Such a peer pairing of a more fluent reader with a less fluent reader works best when the teacher selects partnerships carefully both for fluency and for effective engagement (e.g., picking partners that will work well together). Within a paired reading context, echo reading (the

more fluent reader orally reads first followed by the less fluent reader echoing the text aloud) has been shown to be very effective in helping student hear then read text aloud in a fluent manner (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2005).

Teachers who read aloud in the classroom assist struggling readers in the area of fluency as well. Rasinski and Padak see the teacher as providing that model for reading, "...the teacher models fluent reading for students, reading a text to students with appropriate expression and speed" (p. 39). This modeling can be extended through the use of choral reading where the teacher reads aloud with the students as they follow along in real time, reading along with the teacher and using the teacher as a guide and model (Moats, 2001).

Comprehension

Comprehension is the most vital component of reading, and is also a very complicated action (Walker, 2005). Comprehension, or the understanding of text, is the purpose for reading (Salinger, 2003). Many struggling students read passages at the surface level, but do not understand what they have read. To better understand what can be done to help struggling readers, researchers look to the dynamics found within good readers.

A key component to comprehension is the internalization of comprehension strategies (Pressley, 2002). This internalization is a dialogue within the mind of the reader. This dialogue of strategies is also referred to as metacognitive comprehension strategies (Pressley). "A good reader does not just dive into a text...a good reader is clear about her or his goal...skims the text in advance... [to] activate prior knowledge..." (Pressley, 2002, p.294). While reading text, good readers monitor what they are reading,

monitor problems that may be occurring, and connect the text to their schemata (Pressley). In other words, good readers as active participants are constantly monitoring before reading, during reading, and after reading (Pressley).

What are the best procedures for instructing a monitoring process that takes place within the mind? It is important for teachers to directly and clearly teach the strategies used for comprehending text by modeling out loud (Salinger, 2003). An effective approach (to replicate how a good reader comprehends) is for instruction to take place out loud and for the teacher to model what is being thought, also referred to as *think-alouds*:

Think-alouds externalize comprehension monitoring and give students models of behaviors they [struggling readers] simply may not have acquired... the goal of the think aloud is to reveal the inner steps of reading for meaning. Teachers can use this modeling approach as they read to students for enjoyment and also as part of focused instructional sessions in which students are asked to verbalize their own thinking (Salinger, 2003, p. 84).

Fisher et al. (2008) argue that "...modeling is the primary way through which teachers can demonstrate for their students how readers can interact with texts" (p. 548). Fisher et al. also note that modeling reading is not sufficient by itself. It is necessary to implement guided reading, as well, in order to scaffold readers through various skills. When teachers meet "...with small groups of students, the teacher can provide additional prompts, cues, or questions to get the students to do the thinking" (Fisher, et al., p. 18). Moats (2001) contends that during shared and guided reading it is important for teachers to use open-ended questions "...about issues significant to students [which] are most likely to

stimulate language” (Moats, 2001, p. 39). Moats believes the stimulation of language engages readers to discuss the text and allows the reader to reflect upon the text.

Comprehension strategy instruction also needs to involve practice with story structure. In a study conducted by Fagella-Luby, Schumaker, & Deshler (2007), the use of the embedded story-structure benefited the participants in the study. Embedded story-structure included “...three strategies: ...self-questioning...story-structure analysis...and summary writing” (p. 135). Story-structure analysis involves the reader writing down specific components involved in a story such as characters, setting, problem, resolution onto a graphic organizer. A study by Boulineau, Fore, Hagan-Burke, & Burke (2004) also supports the use of story maps to increase comprehension.

A way to help student develop an awareness of text structure is to provide them with strategies that offer cues to the reader to assist with the understanding of the text. The PQ4R (Florida Online Reading Professional Development [FOR-PD], 2007), where the reader previews, questions, reads, recites, reviews, and then reflects, is one such strategy that focuses the reader’s attention on initially previewing the text to establish a purpose for reading. The reader then needs to develop a question in connection with what is occurring in the text. The 4 R’s guide the reader through the process of comprehending by reading the text, reciting key components from the text, reviewing the text, and reflecting on whether the question has been answered (FOR-PD). Another comprehension strategy that engages readers in thinking about and reflecting upon text is SQR2 (Buehl, 2004). In this strategy, the reader stops at various parts of the text (teacher determined stops or student determined stops), and questions the text, reflects on the text, and then reads on. Through this process the reader is actively engaged in negotiating and

making sense of the author's message. This strategy is most effective when used in a discussion format with other readers.

There are other instructional procedures in which the student takes the driver's seat in the use of strategies with the text. Fisher and Frey (2008) suggest that comprehension can really improve when students are provided opportunities to engage with other students and with the teacher in using strategies to make sense of text. "[S]ocial theory tells us that humans learn from the interactions they have with others" (p. 19). Pressley (2002) found that with reciprocal teaching, where the reader practices a strategy within a peer group and has the opportunity to teach that strategy to his/her peers, the members in the group are more apt to internalize the strategy and use the strategy later in their own reading. Book groups, such as literature circles, allow fellow readers "...to verbalize the content, to listen to other modes of thinking, and to hear other perspectives [which] all contribute to deepening comprehension" (Burns, 1998, p. 126). Daniels (2006) believes that the power of a book group is with the engagement of the readers, with the choices they are given, and with the responsibility they take on as discussants. Collaborative learning is an approach that is similar to reciprocal teaching and to book groups. During collaborative learning "...students talk with one another about the strategies they use as they read and can assist one another in making decisions about what to do when stuck..." (Fisher & Frey, 2008, p. 18). The critical element across these different comprehension approaches is the role of the reader as active rather than passive.

However, in order to comprehend text, decoding skills, vocabulary skills, fluency, and observing the structures and features of text must be a part of the schema of a reader.

In addition, reading interventions for struggling adolescent readers should be a balanced approach in which all skills are developed, including writing (Adams et al, 2000; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Juel, 1988; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Moats, 2001; Rief, 2006; Salinger, 2003).

Writing

Two other components included in a balanced reading program to assist struggling adolescent readers are that of writing (Adams et al, 2000; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Juel, 1988; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Moats, 2001; Rief, 2006; Salinger, 2003) and the use of technology for reading and writing skills (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Shanklin, 2008; Williams, 2005).

Writing allows a reader to put in visual form the thoughts that are in the reader's mind (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rief, 2006). This writing then will allow a reader to organize, reread, reflect, and recast information again. This writing allows the student to have ownership of the comprehension being processed. As Moats (2001) states, "Written response can greatly enhance comprehension..." (p. 38).

In a study by Adams et al. (2000), daily writing activities assisted students in the growth of writing skills. Rief (2006) adds that writing is a continuous process and that "we need to give students ample opportunities to write on a continuous basis" (p. 33). Writing opportunities not only need to occur daily, but need to be involved in and integrated into all content areas (Knipper & Duggan, 2006). "Writing to learn is an opportunity for students to recall, clarify, and question what they know about a subject and what they still wonder about..." (Knipper & Duggan, 2006, p. 462). Writing skills and connections can be developed through guided writing (Moats, 2001) and language

skill practice (Adams et al., 2000; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003). “Writing improves when students practice answering specific question types, elaborating subjects and predicates, combining simple sentences, constructing clauses, and linking sentences into organized paragraphs” (Moats, 2001, p. 39).

A beneficial practice of writing strategy instruction is the inclusion of guided writing and graphic organizers, as well as a form of writing evaluation (Salinger, 2003). Guided writing, like guided reading, places the teacher in the role of facilitator, providing prompts and helping students move forward in thinking about and developing their writing (Salinger). Moats (2001) states that “...shared and modeled writing helps them [the students] transcend the daunting challenges of generating and organizing their thoughts” (p. 39). A student may be hesitant to write on a blank piece of paper. Yet, a graphic organizer, with a visual structure providing prompts for writing, will assist the writer with the organization of thoughts and connections (Salinger, 2003). Another organizational tool is that of the inclusion of a writing evaluation tool. A writing evaluation tool “...should move the writer forward, helping him or her to grow by identifying the strengths of the process and the product, as well as the elements or conventions that need to work” (Rief, 2006, p. 34). A writing evaluation tool often includes a rubric with key phrases or questions that direct writers to think about different aspects of their writing (such as specific grammar skills, or broader organizational issues within the text). The rubric provides a format for writers to write down comments or check off variables that are present in their writing.

Written response to what the reader is reading is also an effective strategy and can enhance comprehension (Moats, 2001) and increase future writing. Written response,

whether in the form of quick-writes (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rief, 2000), responses to questions, or responses in reading-writing journals (Rief, 2000; Salinger, 2003), "...may be the seeds of ideas that lead to more thorough, polished pieces of writing..." (Rief, 2006, p. 53).

Technology

Technology, software and the Internet, are also tools for reading and writing intervention (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Williams, 2005). Williams contends that students are involved in technology daily, at school and at home. This familiarity with technology is a natural fit for the classroom and their learning. A variety of software and the use of the Internet can help connect both reading and writing skills, as well as enhance motivation to read and write. "Technology is both a facilitator and a medium of literacy. Effective adolescent literacy programs...should use technology as both an instructional tool and an instructional topic." (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004, p. 19)

Motivation

While research notes specific reading skills to target to improve reading performance in adolescent readers, reading motivation is another important factor. Motivation is often discussed in terms of how students feel about themselves and what students value in their lives (Gambrell et al., 1996). Students with high confidence in reading and who place a high value on reading are likely to be more actively engaged readers (Gambrell et al.). Often struggling readers do not feel successful as readers and do not share the same interest in or value for reading as good readers. This lack of positive feelings towards reading is often self-perpetuating and leads to an inability to recognize what they are doing well as well as a lack of motivation to read. "Many

struggling readers are not confident and believe they cannot comprehend; they make negative statements about themselves that lower their self-efficacy. [Due to]... repeated failures, struggling readers do not recognize the effective strategies that they do use” (Walker, 2005, p. 689). As a struggling reader continues through each grade with feelings of being unsuccessful, the reader will have less interest in reading (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004).

Motivation is a component that does not have specific skills to target. However, there are things that school districts can do in order to promote motivation for reading. Schools need to “promote greater student engagement and motivation... [by] building student choices into the school day... [in order] to reawaken student engagement” (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004, p. 16). Self-selection of reading materials built into the instructional day promotes reading motivation (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006).

“Highly motivated readers are self-determining and generate their own reading opportunities. They want to read and choose to read for a wide range of personal reasons...” (Gambrell et al., 1996, p. 518). Personal choices allow for an authentic connection for the purpose of reading. It is important for teachers to inform their students on how to choose the appropriate material for self-selection (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000; Shirmer & Lockman, 2001). Every reader differs in interest choice. In a study by Edmunds and Bauserman (2006), personal interest is one of the most frequently mentioned attributions of reading motivation for students. Therefore, to address a wide range of interests, it is essential for teachers to provide readers with a wide variety of materials, topics, and genres (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004), and to provide students with strategies on how to choose reading materials that will engage but not frustrate them

(Harvey & Goudvis, 2000; Schirmer & Lockman, 2001). Schirmer and Lockman contend that students need to know how to select reading materials that are both of interest to them and of the correct difficulty level for successful reading. Harvey and Goudvis (2000) suggest a series of steps for students to use when selecting materials for reading. They suggest that the student needs to check out the cover and read the title of the book, to check out the length of the book, to read the back cover and the flap of the book, and to determine if the book has a subject that is of interest. Once an interesting reading selection has been found, Schirmer and Lockman (2001) suggest that the student read the first page or the first few pages to determine if the storyline is interesting and if the text difficulty is at a level that is comfortable (where unfamiliar words are identifiable through known strategies).

Other ways to engage students in literacy are to have research projects which promote choice and interest for the students (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Harvey, 2002). Reading projects and activities that involve social interaction with peers have a strong impact on motivation in reading (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). Peer activities can include literature circles (Burns, 1998; Daniels, 2006) and book clubs (Pardo, 2004). Literature circles and book clubs are opportunities for students to gather in small groups to discuss an assigned book or a book chosen by the group.

Teachers reading aloud to students is essential to motivate reluctant readers, and provides a reading model as well. "Our students become readers when they are invited into books by adults and peers they admire and respect..." (Rief, 2000, p. 57). "When we read books aloud that kids really enjoy, they look for more books by that author or similar story lines or genres on their own" (Rief, 2000, p. 52). Rief (2000) stresses the

importance of having teachers demonstrate to students that they are readers and that as readers they really enjoy reading. Students need to see "...evidence of their teachers as readers. Students need to see us reading, and hear and see our thinking in response to that reading." (Rief, 2000, p.51)

Motivation also occurs when readers are given opportunities to share the books that they are reading. This is especially true in providing information about books to their peers which provides insights that encourage others to read (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). Edmunds and Bauserman found that students respond to recommendations from their peers. In fact, they found that when book recommendations take place during book discussions or in book reports, these recommendations entice students to choose book selections of a similar topic or written by the same author. An activity that provides a creative extension to book shares is to have students create book ads to highlight what they liked about a particular author's work (Rief, 2000).

Conclusions

The research and literature on effective approaches to assisting struggling adolescent readers support strategies that enable students to improve their understanding of decoding, fluency, vocabulary, text structures, and comprehension, and encourage the connection between these literacy areas with writing and the use of technology. And motivation is seen as critical in affecting students' efforts to stay focused and to continue. Providing teachers with access to this information in a timely and manageable way would be helpful both to the teachers' instructional plans and to the students' learning.

The Project

The development of this project grew out of my interest in developing a concise instructional resource related to assisting struggling adolescent readers that would be useful for teachers to use in their classrooms. This project is presented in two major sections: the desk reference discussion, and the professional development for the desk reference. In developing this resource, I incorporated the key tenants about reading and learning that I uncovered through the literature review. These tenants highlight the driving force behind the development of the desk reference for reading interventions.

Desk references in the classroom are tools that can assist a teacher readily and take very little space for storage. The Reading Strategy Desk-Reference is a vertical flip-book format. If the user needs an intervention in the area of decoding, for example, then the user flips the desk reference open to the page entitled *Decoding* and is able to read through a list of strategies and activities that target decoding. In order for the user to have more detailed information on the intervention activity, the user may want to refer to the reference list printed on the back of the reading strategy desk-reference in conjunction with that resource for the activity. Almost all of the activities are available for the user through ERIC (EBSCO) and are printable. There are a few references listed that are not able to be retrieved from a computer, but are common references that may be obtained from the user's own library, the district's professional library, or an area education agency.

The intervention activity ideas compiled in the desk reference were derived from the research contained in the literature review, both from research sources and from compendiums of literacy strategies found in the literature on interventions. After a review

of research on key components to target for adolescent reading intervention, these components were then researched in order to filter specific intervention activities to list in the desk reference.

The Desk Reference

The desk reference is composed of seven key literacy areas (decoding, motivation, fluency, structures and features of text, writing and technology, vocabulary, and comprehension), as well as references and resources to provide additional information for teachers interested in further investigation. The flip style of the desk reference was designed to enable easy access. The categories are in bold reference at the bottom of each page. The top-half of the component page describes the component. There are a total of eight pages with the references placed on the back of the last component. The cover and last page are printed on card stock so that the desk reference is sturdier. Each component page is printed on normal, colored typing paper so that it stands out on its own and is easier to find when choosing a component. Each page is laminated in order to preserve the print and durability of the pages. Finally, each page of the desk-reference is bound together with a plastic binding comb (see Appendix A for the specific information included on each page of the desk reference).

Each of the following section highlights the key issues and elements from each of the literacy components included in the desk reference: decoding, motivation, fluency, structures and features of text, vocabulary, comprehension, writing, and the internet. This information, in a sense, provides the rationale for the choices that were included. See Appendix A for a complete listing of the information included in the desk reference.

Decoding. Decoding is an important component for adolescent reading intervention. Instead of working with individual sounds as in the lower grades, it is more imperative to look at chunks in words at the upper grade levels. Pattern activities for decoding include teaching vowel pattern structure (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003), syllables in words (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003), prefixes, suffixes, root words (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003), and word families (Fisher, et al., 2008). Adams et al. (2000) provide a strong rationale for the importance of readers having a command of vowel patterns and morphemic knowledge: "...from fifth grade on, most students encounter about 10,000 new words a year...80 percent contain one or more prefixes or suffixes, and all contain vowel sounds..." (p. 59).

In addition to the four major categories listed above, teaching a variety of decoding strategies to assist students when they approach an unknown word is important in fostering independent reading. Clay (1991) suggested strategies to use when attempting to decode an unknown word: look for known chunks, use what you already know, think of a word that looks like that word, read on and then go back and reread, cover up part of the word, ask Does that make sense? Does it sound right? and, think about the story and then reread the sentence. These strategies were included in the decoding section as well.

Motivation. The component of motivation is an important key for the success of struggling readers. Motivation seems like an ambiguous component to teach, however there are instructional choices which assist in the support of motivation. One action to

include in the classroom is allowing students choice in reading as well as ensuring students are actively engaged (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006; Harvey, 2002; Rief, 2000; Wilhelm & Smith, 2006). In order for students to be able to make their own choices, it is essential that a variety of reading materials are present for students to select (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Moats, 2001; Rief, 2000). Material available to readers needs to include fiction, nonfiction, magazines, trade books, newspapers, poetry, fables. Students also need to have direct instruction and practice on how to choose the right material that is interesting and accessible to the reader's level of proficiency (Schirmer & Lockman, 2001). The reader must know the strategies of choosing a book of interest, such as looking at the book cover and title, reading the flap of the book, checking out the subject of the book, and checking out the length of the book.

Having the teacher read aloud and model good reading to the students not only conveys that the teacher is a motivated reader but also demonstrates the importance of reading (Rief, 2000). Through this process teachers can advertise a book, author, subject, or genre (Rief, 2000). If the teacher consistently models reading as a positive endeavor that is approached with enthusiasm, the students will take notice and will more likely take on the same views about reading.

It is important to provide opportunities for readers to discuss the material they have read with their peers. Allowing time for to advertise a book, magazine, or any type of publication is a highly motivating activity. Edmunds and Bauserman (2006) state, "...children most frequently responded that they had found out about books they wanted to read from their friends..." (p. 419), and Harvey and Goudvis (2000) also discuss the importance for peer discussions. "Opportunities for peer discussion and response build

community and enhance understanding for all kids in the class. And when kids talk about books and ideas, they learn what matters to other kids in their class..." (p. 30).

Peer interaction allows discussion allows the reader more opportunities to connect with prior knowledge and experiences (Fisher & Frey, 2008; Rief, 2000). These activities can include inquiry/research projects (Harvey, 2002; Wilhelm & Smith, 2006), literature circles (Burns, 1998; Daniels, 2006), and book clubs (Pardo, 2004).

An exciting experience for peer interaction and even for self-learning is inquiry and research projects. Students have opportunities to inquire and research on a topic of interest. Topics may be given by the teacher, or better yet, students may choose their own topic in a specified area. This allows the reader to study and research an area of interest. Journals kept by readers as they are reading may generate topics for future investigation.

Literature circles are opportunities for small groups of readers to gather together and discuss books, whether assigned or chosen by the readers. Literature circles may have assigned jobs for readers in the group such as "...discussion director...vocabulary enricher...passage picker...illustrator...quotation chooser..." (Burns, 1998, p. 125) or roles created by the students. Another possibility is a warm-up guide created by the teacher that includes vocabulary and discussion questions.

Another peer interaction activity is a book club (Pardo, 2004). The book club is very similar to a literature circle but there are not jobs in this activity. The purpose of the book club is to promote comprehension discussion on a book in an effort to create less stress surrounding the activity. Book groups are discussion groups where all participants are able to share thoughts and experiences in relationship to the book. Book clubs may

have catchy names such as Book Bistro, where students are able to bring in a small drink and or snack.

Fluency. Fluency is more than a measurement of the number of words read per minute (Raskinski, et al., 2005). Rate is important, but it is only one aspect of fluency. Fluency includes a reader reading all of the punctuation; that is, the reader takes notice of commas, periods, question marks, exclamation marks, and other punctuation (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Rasinski, et al., 2005; Salinger, 2003). Fluency does include rate of reading, however particular attention should be placed on the appropriateness of the rate in comparison to the particular text and varying the rate in relationship for what the author and text are trying to convey. Fluency focuses on expression as well. The reader needs to read with expression that matches the text. Fluency also includes a focus on the smoothness of the reading (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Salinger, 2003). If the reader is reading in a choppy manner, then meaning may be broken apart for the reader as well (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Salinger, 2003).

The classroom teacher needs to read out loud to model fluency for their students (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Rief, 2000). The teacher must remember to model the aspects of fluency appropriately to the class and may want to practice the chosen passage before reading out loud to the students to ensure proper fluency will be modeled.

Shared and guided reading may be a consideration in the classroom (Fisher, et al., 2008). During a shared reading session, the entire classroom is together with instruction occurring for a strategy or skill. During guided reading, small groups are together for a particular purpose and the teacher then focuses on the needs of that group.

Finally, other activities that can be incorporated in the classroom for fluency are opportunities for students to interact with text other than in the usual manner of each student reading the text independently. One activity is repeated reading (Rasinski & Padak, 2005), which is an opportunity for the reader to read and reread passages. Another activity is choral reading (Moats, 2001) where a group reads text together but the text may vary for the performance. A third activity is a Reader's Theatre (Daniels, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rief, 2000), which is like a play but the readers are able to use their scripts. Reader's Theatre invites the readers to be expressive, and may be performed for an audience. There are resources in order to purchase scripts based on trade books but there are also websites on the Internet that have downloadable and printable scripts to use, such as www.readinglady.com (Kump, 1997) or one may use an Internet search engine using *readers theatre free printable scripts* as a generating phrase. An additional fluency activity is echo reading (Fisher, et al., 2008). Echo reading is an event included during shared or guided reading. During echo reading the teacher reads a phrase or sentence and the student or students echo the phrase back to the teacher. This allows the teacher to model fluency for the student and the student to have an opportunity to practice reading with fluency. Poetry is another great strategy to incorporate in the classroom because not only of the cadence involved with poems but also because poems are created to read aloud to audiences (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Rasinski, et al., 2005). There are websites, such as www.gigglepoetry.com (Lansky, 2003) that have poems that can be used in the classroom.

Running records should also be included at the adolescent level (Rasinski, et al., 2005). Running records allow the teacher to not only progress monitor the reading rate

but also noting the reading of punctuation, rate, expression, and smoothness with anecdotal records. Running records can be as complex as assessing students one-by-one with a chosen passage or as simple as sitting down next to the student and having the student read a chosen passage for a minute (Clay, 1991, 2006). If a content area teacher questions whether the class text is too difficult for a student, the content teacher may choose to have the student read a section of the text aloud to the teacher while the teacher is mentally noting the number of miscues or may use tally marks on a separate page without the student being aware. By using the Clay guidelines for an easy (95-100%), instructional (90-94%), or hard text (below 90%), the teacher will be able to quickly ascertain the difficulty of the text for the student.

Structures and features of text. It is essential that classroom teachers and content area teachers take the time to instruct and advise the readers in their classrooms the structures of books and especially the features of textbooks. The features of non-fictional books include the title, table of contents, titles of chapters, headings, subheadings, captions, pictures or illustrations, graphics, diagrams, charts, graphs, bold text, italicized text, key vocabulary, index, and the appendix (Harvey, 2002; FOR-PD, 2007; Fisher & Frey, 2008; Fisher, et al., 2008). While these elements sometimes stand out, such as the certain words are highlighted or underlined, the features of fiction aren't as easily observed and need to be known by the reader: characters, setting (time and place), problem and solution, plot, theme, actions (Dymock, 2007), as well as knowing the sequence of the story which includes the beginning, middle, and ending.

Strategies and activities that focus on the structures and features of text must also be incorporated in the classroom. Classroom instruction for informational literature

should engage in activities that involve sequencing, comparing and contrasting, cause and effect relationships, problems and solutions, main idea and related details (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher, et al., 2008; Pardo, 2004). An instructional activity to survey non-fictional text features would be a textbook inventory (FOR-PD, 2007). Instruction with signal words such as first, second, then, finally, in contrast to, and similarly (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher & Frey, 2008) aids the reader with the sequence of the story as well. There are other strategies that readers may practice which assists in the reading of the passage and should be included and practiced directly in the classroom. These strategies include the previewing of the text, note taking, and underlining (Knipper & Duggan, 2006). The use of story maps, story webs, story graphs (Dymock, 2007; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005) or other sorts of graphic organizers support the reader with the organization of narrative text (Dymock, 2007; Salinger, 2003). The use of Post-It Notes® are also helpful in order for the reader to write down questions, thoughts, and reflections as the reader is reading.

Writing and technology. It is important to involve a balanced literacy approach in the classroom. Not only must we incorporate reading strategies and skills, along with motivational activities, but we must also include daily writing experiences writing (Adams et al., 2000; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Juel, 1988; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Moats, 2001; Rief, 2006; Salinger, 2003). Writing allows a reader to put in visual form the thoughts that are in the reader's mind (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rief, 2006) Writing also allows a reader to organize, reread, reflect, and recast information. Fortunately, we have the opportunity for our readers to use technology, whether in the form of typing, using organizational software, or using the Internet.

There are several activities that can be used with daily instruction. These activities include journals or a reader-writer notebook (Rief, 2000; Salinger, 2003), quick-writes (Rief, 2000), and graphic organizers (Buehl, 2004; Dymock, 2007; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005; Salinger, 2003). Journals may target specific components such as vocabulary or comprehension, or journals can be used as the reader is reading and writing to jot down thoughts occurring within the reader's mind about anything (Rief, 2000; Salinger, 2003). As the reader is reading, s/he may make notes of questions, predictions, personal connections, reactions, or responses to the characters, plot, or implications for a story. A quick-write (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rief, 2000) is generally a five to ten minute writing experience that is a stop, drop, and write about what the reader is reading with, possibly, a specific focus within the story or by going beyond the story. Graphic organizers are instructional aids that assist the reader in organizing a story or the reader's thoughts (Salinger, 2003).

A graphic organizer may be used before, during, or after the reading of the material. Familiar graphic organizers include KWL charts (what I know, what I want to know, what I learned), story maps or webs, and plot diagrams (Buehl, 2004; Dymock, 2007; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005).

Writing skills and writing connections with reading can be developed through guided writing (Moats, 2001) and language skill practice (Adams et al., 2000; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003). Guided writing involves the teacher modeling a specific writing skill during a shared writing time. Students move into smaller groups for the teacher to instruct a specific skill or strategy in need by the members of that particular group.

Finally, students continue writing independently and work on pieces using the writing process. The writing process may include the 6 Traits of Writing (NWREL, 1983). The 6 Traits of Writing can be used as an assessment to score a student's writing piece, or it can be used as an instructional tool in order to work on areas to strengthen writing. The 6 Traits of Writing look at the aspects of ideas, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions.

Other classroom activities involve the class working together as a team and provide an opportunity for the students to showcase their pieces and skills. The class may want to develop a newsletter. This newsletter may include information on school or special events, or interviews with students or faculty members. It also may showcase poetry or short stories created by the students. Another activity may be an online newsletter available via the Internet featuring a particular classroom.

Technology can be a great asset with adolescent literacy (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004). First, the Internet can be used to search for other activities that focus on a particular component, as well as finding websites that have online activities that allow students to practice skills. With the Internet, classrooms may connect with other classrooms, possibly in another state, and practice various skills through activities using letter writing via e-mail or through an inquiry/research based activity where students search the Internet for information on a research topic (Harvey, 2002). Vocabulary development can occur through the use of websites, such as www.puzzlemaker.com (Discovery Communications, Inc., 1999), and through software that assist in creating puzzles, such as crosswords that build vocabulary. The websites www.vocabulary.com (Cook & Cook, 1997) and www.vocabulary.co.il (Edelson & Richman, 2007) focus on

vocabulary building activities. Another website, www.readwritethink.org, (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 2002) is a tool for teachers and students. ReadWriteThink provides activities for further assistance in reading and language arts. There is software, such as Kidspiration® (Inspiration Software, Inc., 2008) and Inspiration® (Inspiration Software, Inc., 2006), that assist students with the organization of thoughts and in their development of research ideas through the use of graphic organizers. Software can also be used to create posters or cards or provide opportunities for students to create their own website, which can be in the form of a Webquest (Shanklin, 2008). Webquests are another way to use technology in the classroom (Shanklin, 2008). Webquests can be created by the teacher for student use as a learning activity, or by student partners or a small group in connection with an inquiry activity. There are websites that can assist teachers and students with the creation of Web-quests (by typing in web-quest on the internet).

Another interesting activity that combines journaling and the Internet are Web Logs, also known as Blogs (Williams, 2005). Blogs can be set up for students to write down thoughts on particular stories, and if allowed, to respond to other classmates' blogs (using safe guidelines for interactions). Blogs can be used to create online journals, rewrite e-mails in a different genre, create letters, and develop editorials (Williams, 2005).

Vocabulary. Vocabulary building is another important component to include in the daily life of the reader (Moats, 2001). The greater the vocabulary background for a reader, the less time a reader will need to take to decode words. There are a variety of vocabulary building activities to incorporate, such as usage of idioms, figures of speech,

connotation, denotation, similes, metaphors, parts of speech, synonyms, and antonyms (Bear et al., 2007; Rupley & Nichols, 2005) and thinking about relationships among words (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005) such as analogies and phonograms, for example hink-pinks (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004). Other activities to include are the study of Greek and Latin prefixes, suffixes, and root words (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001), as well as word origins and word derivations (Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001). Vocabulary building may also incorporate a variety of graphic organizers such as word maps (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005), concept wheels (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005), word family tree (Buehl, 2004; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004), and vocabulary webs (Rupley & Nichols, 2005). Additional vocabulary building activities include word sorting and categorizing, word hunts, working with homographs and homophones, and using vocabulary journals (Bear et al., 2007).

Technology can be useful in this area as well. There are websites that assist readers with vocabulary building exercises and many websites that offer this in a game format such as www.vocabulary.com (Cook & Cook, 1997) and www.vocabulary.co.il (Edelson & Richman, 2007). There are websites that offer students an Internet connection for poetry such as www.gigglepoetry.com (Lansky, 2003) as well as sites that focus on a variety of reading and language arts activities such as www.readwritethink.org (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 2002).

Comprehension. Comprehension strategies may vary, but most importantly the strategies need to be directly and explicitly taught (Salinger, 2003). Comprehension

strategies can vary from questioning the text, to think out louds, to purposeful groups, to graphic organizers, as well as metacognitive strategies (Salinger, 2003).

One comprehension strategy to include in the classroom involves the questioning of the text, either directly by the teacher, by a reading partner, or by the reader. One type of questioning is called open-ended questions (Moats, 2001). This type of question requires connections and interpretations. Open-ended questions should be involved just as much as explicit questions, which are questions directly related to the text (Moats).

Direct and explicit instruction with metacognitive strategies is important in classroom instruction because such strategies encourage readers as they read to question and to connect with the text. Metacognitive strategies include self-questioning techniques, such as the think aloud strategy (Walker, 2005) and self-monitoring techniques (Fisher, et al., 2008; Pressley, 2002). Self-questioning techniques are questions the reader should be asking as they are reading. These questions include, but are not limited to: What must I do? What's my plan? Does that make sense? Did it fit? (Walker, 2005). Self-monitoring techniques are strategies for the reader to be actively engaged with the text as s/he is reading. These strategies include activating prior knowledge, creating inferences, summarizing, predicting, clarifying, questioning, visualizing, monitoring, synthesizing, evaluating, and connecting (Fisher, et al., 2008; Pressley, 2002).

Purposeful groups also elicit comprehension connections to text. Purposeful groups such as book clubs, discussion groups, informational study groups, literature circles (Burns, 1998; Daniels, 2006) and book bistros invite readers to discuss and reflect on books being read. The discussion and listening opportunities open doors for peers to

share their connections with the text, which also can assist readers in discussing those portions of the text that are not fully understood.

Graphic organizers are useful with the organization of a story's sequence and allow the reader a different opportunity in a visual format to understand the text being read (Dymock, 2007; Salinger, 2003). Graphic organizers for comprehension may include, but are not limited to, story maps, story webs, and story pyramids (Buehl, 2004; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004), as well as anticipatory guides, graphic outlines, inquiry charts, KWL charts, learning logs, and interactive reading guides (Buehl, 2004).

Staff Development to Introduce the Desk Reference

To introduce the desk reference to classroom teachers at the middle school and high school levels, a one day professional staff development session has been developed. This professional staff development consists of a Power Point presentation (see Appendix B) highlighting the research supporting the areas targeted in the desk reference reading interventions for adolescents, an opportunity for teachers to explore the desk-reference, and a question and answer segment on the desk reference and its content. The session will conclude with the distribution of a survey asking teachers to respond to question prompts on the use of the desk reference (see Appendix C).

The table below provides an overview of the schedule for the staff development session. The teachers will be asked to come to the staff development with questions they have about working with struggling readers in their classroom. The presentation is introduced with high school graduation statistics suggesting the need for reading intervention in the adolescent years as well as research supporting that *It's Never too Late to Remediate* (Abbott & Berninger, 1999). As the session progresses, teachers will be

encouraged to include their questions regarding information shared. The first hour and a half will focus on presenting information about literacy and the literacy components highlighted in the desk reference from the literature review. Teachers will be encouraged during this portion of the presentation to add information from their classrooms regarding these components. After a 15 minute break, the second half of the morning session (one hour and fifteen minutes) will involve the presentation of strategies that are effective in addressing the components of literacy presented in the first part of the morning session. Teachers will, again, be encouraged to discuss and share their experiences and questions as we discuss the strategies presented.

Table 1 - Timeline for the Staff Development Session

<i>Time</i>	<i>Activity</i>
8:00-9:30	Power Point Presentation-Research on Reading Components
9:30-9:45	Break
9:45-11:00	Power Point Presentation-Reading Component Strategies
11:00-12:00	Lunch Break
12:00-1:00	Reading Strategy Desk-Reference Overview
1:00-1:15	Break
1:15-2:15	Reading Strategy Desk-Reference Exploration and Discussion
2:15-3:00	Question-Answer

After a lunch break, the presentation continues with the reading areas that are important to include in adolescent reading intervention along with various strategies and activities that connect with those components. The afternoon session will begin with a

one-hour session introducing the reading strategy desk reference. This overview will include discussions of each of the components of the reference and the corresponding strategies. After a 15 minute break, the presentation culminates with a focus on the strategies, activities, and references contained in the desk reference as well as a demonstration on the use of the desk reference in the classroom (see Appendix A). Each component of the desk reference is explored with the participants. The teachers will be provided an hour to explore the desk reference with their colleagues and to discuss how they can use the reference in their own classroom. Teachers will be provided opportunities to address their questions from their classrooms in relation to the desk reference support. Teachers will be encouraged to walk through the desk reference with colleagues who share similar students who are struggling with reading and to discuss ways in which they can use the

A survey, Staff Strategy Survey (see Appendix C), will be provided to the professional development participants. Within the survey participants are asked which strategies on the desk-reference are familiar, if they feel they could assist another staff member in using this reference, and if they would like to have additional assistance in learning about the strategies contained on the desk-reference (see Appendix B). To culminate the day's presentation, the last hour of the session invites participants to ask questions about the desk-reference to clarify how to use the desk-reference or how to retrieve references in connection with the desk-reference. Participants will share how they plan to use the desk-reference and strategies in their classrooms. The last 15 minutes of the session the participants will be asked to complete the survey. They will have the option of writing in their name or not writing in their name, to maintain anonymity in

their responses. At the close of the session I will provide my e-mail address and a phone contact to the participants to provide support for any questions that should arise on the use or explanation of activities.

Three months after the workshop, I will hold a follow-up discussion meeting with the participants. The purpose of this follow-up session is to address any questions or concerns the participants may have, to provide the participants an opportunity to share with each other what has been successful in the classroom, and to provide the teachers with additional information on strategies. There are strategies that are listed in the desk-reference that may be unfamiliar to some teachers, which will be noted on the survey collected at the initial session. At this follow-up session, I will provide more information on those strategies that were highlighted as unfamiliar by the teachers.

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Appendix A

Reading Strategies Desk Reference:

A Desk Reference for Middle School and High School Teachers

Decoding

Introduction:

Decoding skills and strategies are essential for a reader. In order for a reader to understand text, the text must be able to be decoded automatically and accurately. If a reader is unable to decode a word, phrase, understanding of a word, etc., not only is comprehension affected but so is the confidence and motivation of the reader. Automaticity and accuracy are key performances to assist a reader with the comprehension of text.

Strategies:

- Teach syllables in a word/syllable structure (Moats, 2001)
- Teach vowel pattern structure (Moats, 2001)
- Prefixes, suffixes, rootwords (Adams, Brown, & Van Zant, 2000; Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; Moats, 2001)
- Word families (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008)
- Teach decoding strategies (Clay, 1991)
 - Look for known chunks
 - Use what you already know
 - Think of a word that looks like that word
 - Read on, then go back and reread
 - Cover up part of the word
 - Ask, Does that make sense? Does it sound right?
 - Think about the story and then reread the sentence

Motivation

Introduction:

A reader's motivation to read is a silent key in the success with reading. Students with high confidence in reading and who place a high value on reading are likely to be more actively engaged readers (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996). As a struggling reader continues through each grade with feelings of being unsuccessful, the struggling reader will have less interest in reading (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004). Therefore, it is essential to positively motivate the reader.

Strategies:

- Student choices (Harvey, 2002; Rief, 2000; Wilhelm & Smith, 2006)
- A balanced choice of reading materials (Moats, 2001; Rief, 2000) fiction, non-fiction, magazines, newspapers, poetry, fables, etc.
- Interaction with peers (Fisher & Frey, 2008; Rief, 2000)
- Book ads-teachers and students advertise books they have read (Rief, 2000)
- Reading aloud to students (Rief, 2000)
- Teacher is a motivated reader and models for students (Rief, 2000)
- Literature circles (Burns, 1998; Daniels, 2006)
- Book clubs (Pardo, 2004), book bistros
- Inquiry/research based projects (Harvey, 2002; Wilhelm & Smith, 2006)
- Students need to have the skill of finding "just right books" (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000; Schirmer & Lockman, 2001): Read back cover, read flap, read first page and/or first few pages to see if the storyline is interesting and if text is not too difficult but just right, read table of contents, check out title, check out length, look at pictures or the features of the text, look at cover, check out author, check out subject, check out genre. Also, is the book recommended by a teacher or peer?

Fluency

Introduction:

Reading fluently assists in the amount of time the reader allocates for the comprehension of the text. Crucial elements of fluency include a reader reading all of the punctuation, having a nice rate (not too fast, not too slow, just right for the purpose of the sentence), adding appropriate expression in order to add interest, and reading with smoothness (not reading in a robotic sense, i.e. choppy).

Strategies:

- Reader's Theatre (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004) – Websites are available on the Internet to obtain downloadable scripts (use a search engine with *readers theatre free printable scripts* as the terms) www.readinglady.com (Kump, 1997)
- Reading aloud to students to model how a good fluent reader reads (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Rief, 2000)
- Repeated readings (Rasinski & Padak, 2005)
- Choral Reading (Moats, 2001)
- Echo Reading (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008)
- Shared and Guided Reading (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; Rasinski & Padak, 2005)
- Poetry (Rasinski & Padak, 2005)
- Running Records—measure and track progression of reading rate- words per minute (WPM), as well as accuracy of reading (Clay, 2006; Rasinski, Padak, McKeon, Wilfong, Friedauer, & Heim, 2005)

Structures and Features of Text

Introduction:

Previewing text, whether fiction or non-fiction, allows a reader to look at different components, or rather the makeup of the text which not only assists in the organization of the information for the reader but also allows the reader to draw upon schema and prior knowledge before actually engaging with the text.

Strategies:

- Non-fictional text elements: Title, table of contents, titles of chapters, headings, subheadings, captions, pictures or illustrations, graphics/diagrams/charts/graphs, bold text, italicized text, key vocabulary, index, appendix (Fisher & Frey, 2008; Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; FOR-PD, 2007; Harvey, 2002)
- Fictional text elements: Characters, setting: time & place, problem & solution (resolution), plot, theme, actions (Dymock, 2007). Beginning, middle, ending
- Find time for activities that involve sequencing (series of items in chronological order), compare/contrast (likeness/difference), cause/effect, problem/solution, main idea and related details, textbook inventory (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; FOR-PD, 2007; Pardo, 2004)
- Signal words: first, second, then, finally, in contrast to, like, similarly (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher & Frey, 2008)
- Strategies for readers: previewing, note taking, underlining (Knipper & Duggan, 2006)
- Use Post-It Notes® to write down questions, thoughts, reflections, relation to known thoughts, etc.
- Use story maps, story webs, story graphs (Dymock, 2007; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)

Writing & Technology

Introduction:

In order to assist a reader, a balanced literacy approach is important. That is, not only must we incorporate reading strategies and skills, along with motivational techniques, but we must also include writing activities in the daily life of the reader. Writing allows a reader to put in visual form the thoughts that are tumbling in the reader's mind. Writing also allows a reader to organize, reread, and recast information. Fortunately, we have the opportunity for our readers to use technology, whether in the form of software or the Internet.

Strategies:

- Software:
 - Kidspiration® (Inspiration Software, 2008)
 - Inspiration® (Inspiration Software, 2006)
- Websites on the Internet: use a search engine for a particular target area such as “vocabulary building activities”
- Puzzle making websites and software such as www.puzzlemaker.com (Discovery Communications, 1999)
- 6 Traits of Writing (NWREL, 1983)
- Internet connection with another classroom, possibly in another state with a purpose, possibly inquiry/research based
- Web-quests (Shanklin, 2008)
- Creations: website, posters, cards, blogs (Web Logs), online journals, rewrite e-mails in a different genre, letters, editorials (Williams, 2005)
- Online classroom letter
- Classroom newsletter with class choosing name of newsletter, such as “Chatterbox”, etc.
- Daily writing activities (Adams, Brown, & Van Zant, 2000)
- Build writing skills through guided writing (Moats, 2001)

- Graphic organizers (Buehl, 2004; Dymock, 2007; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005) such as story maps, concept maps, Frayer model (Buehl, 2004) and semantic webbing, story pyramid, KWL chart (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004)
- Quick-writes (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rief, 2000)
- Poetry website www.gigglepoetry.com (Lansky, 2003)
- Reading and language arts website www.readwritethink.org (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 2002)
- Journals/Reader's-Writer's Notebook (Moats, 2001; Rief, 2000)-Questions, predictions, personal connections, reactions, responses to the characters, plot, implications

Vocabulary

Introduction:

Decoding and vocabulary building are interrelated. If a reader is utilizing a decoding strategy, it must be because the unfamiliar word is not known automatically by the struggling reader (Honig, 1997). If a decoding strategy does not aid in the discovery of the unknown word, then the reader may need to skip the unknown word and use the context surrounding the unknown word to figure it out. As well, the more vocabulary building activities involved with readers, the more opportunities with the building of word schema for the reader.

Strategies:

- Word sorting/categorizing (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2007)
- Word hunts (Bear et al., 2007)
- Homographs and homophones (Bear et al., 2007)
- Vocabulary journals (Bear et al., 2007)
- Context clues (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008)
- Teach how language can change meaning: idioms and figures of speech. Also, denotation, connotation, similes, metaphors, parts of speech, synonyms & antonyms (Bear et al., 2007; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)
- Prefixes, suffixes, root words (Greek & Latin) (Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; Moats, 2001)
- Daily vocabulary activities (Moats, 2001) such as phonograms like hink-pinks or hinky-pinkys (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004) or crosswords which can be self-created using vocabulary from all subject areas students are experiencing
- Word origins and word derivations (Moats, 2001)
- Word maps (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)
- Concept wheels (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)
- Word family tree (Buehl, 2004; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004)
- Word/Vocabulary/Root Word webs (Bear et al., 2007; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)
- Relationship among words (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)

- Websites:
 - www.vocabulary.com (Cook & Cook, 1997)
 - www.vocabulary.co.il (Edelson & Richman, 2007)

Comprehension

Introduction:

Comprehension, or the understanding of the text, is the purpose of reading. If the reader doesn't know what the words are and cannot understand the text, why read it?

Comprehension strategies, in fact any and all reading strategies, must be directly and explicitly taught (Salinger, 2003). It is important that this direct and explicit instruction contain comprehension strategies and involve the structures of stories both in narrative and expository text.

Strategies:

- PQ4R: Preview, Question, Read, Recite, Review, Reflect (FOR-PD, 2007) or SQR2: Stop, Question, Reflect, Read on
- Think aloud strategy (Walker, 2005)
- Story maps, story pyramids, story web (Buehl, 2004; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004)
- Collaborative learning (Fisher & Frey, 2008)
- Open-ended questioning (Moats, 2001)
- Access and experience with all genres (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004)
- Shared and Guided Reading (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008)
- Activating prior knowledge, inferences, summarizing, predicting, clarifying, questioning, visualizing, monitoring, synthesizing, evaluating, and connecting (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008)
- Picture books for strategy instruction (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; Harvey & Goudvis, 2000)
- Strategies to incorporate and practice: Pre-read text, reread text, topic sentences, topic paragraphs, inferences, interpret text, paraphrase text, reflect, question as reading, evaluate text, monitor problems as reading, be actively engaged with text, summarizing (Pressley, 2002)

- Self-questioning as reading (Walker, 2005):
 - What must I do?
 - What's my plan?
 - Does that make sense?
 - Did it fit?
- Reciprocal teaching of text (Pressley, 2002)—student(s) teach other students or class what was involved in text read
- Activity guides (Buehl, 2004): Anticipatory guide, sequential round table alphabet, chapter tours, different perspective graphic outline, inquiry chart, interactive reading guide, KWL chart (what I know, what I want to know, what I learned), learning log, semantic feature analysis, story mapping, structure note-taking,. Also, graphic organizers such as a Venn diagram (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004)
- Teach making connections to text (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000):
 - Text-to-Text
 - Text-to-Self
 - Text-to-World
- Purposeful groups: Book clubs, discussion groups, informational study groups (Harvey & Goudvis, 2002), book bistros, and literature circles (Burns, 1998; Daniels, 2006)
- Website: <http://forpd.ucf.edu/strategies/archive.html>

Appendix B

Professional Development Outline

1 Reading Intervention Support for the Older Struggling Reader

2 Our older readers

- US Dept. of Education Statistics, 2007
 - 33% of 4th graders are below basic reading level(Planty, Hussar, Snyder, Provasnik, Kena, Dinkes, KewalRamani, & Kemp, 2008)
 - 26% of 8th graders are below basic reading level (Planty et al., 2008)

3 Graduation Rate

- Remains around 70% (Greene & Winters, 2005)
- 1.2 million students fail to graduate (Education Week, 2006)

4 Is it too late for older students?

- Interventions in the elementary years do not prevent all students from becoming a struggling reader (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Salinger, 2003)
- “Grade 4 is not too late to help struggling readers. The key question is the kind of intervention that can help these students put the pieces of the puzzle together” (Salinger, 2003, p.81)

5 The Older Struggling Reader

- Adolescent reading instruction is not different than the reading process for young readers; adolescent reading instruction becomes more complex in similar areas: decoding, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension—coupled with motivation due to years of failure

6 Cyclical Effect

- According to Moats (2001), reading for older struggling reader can become a

cyclical effect: if a student is not able to read, they do not enjoy reading, and therefore will not practice more of the skills they need, which snowballs into more deficits in reading skills

7 How?

- Salinger (2003) conveys that doing the same intervention in the exact same manner will not assist struggling readers for the success in reading

8 What?

- Research discloses key areas to focus, as well as higher level approaches
- Areas to target: decoding, vocabulary enhancing, fluency, comprehension (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2008; Honig, 1997; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003)

9 Which?

- “Students cannot and should not bypass any critical skills necessary for fluent and meaningful reading because of their chronological age...all students need the mastering of the pertinent skills, but these must also not be the primary instruction in reading. There must be a balance of all skills” (Moats, 2001, p. 36-37)

10 Structures & Features of Text

- Previewing text allows a reader to look at different components of the text and not only assists in the organization of the information for the reader but also allows the reader to draw upon schema and prior knowledge before actually reading the text

11 Structures & Features of Text

- Story Grammar
 - Fictional (Dymock, 2007).

- Beginning, Middle, Ending
- Characters
- Setting: time & place
- Plot
- Theme
- Actions
- Problem
- Solution (Resolution)
- Non-fictional (Informational)
 - Chronological
 - Cause/Effect
 - Compare/Contrast

12 Structures & Features of Text

□ Story Features

- Fictional
 - Title
 - Titles of Chapters
 - Pictures or illustrations
- Non-fictional (Informational) (Fisher & Frey, 2008; Fisher, et al., 2008; Florida Online Reading Professional Development (FOR-PD), 2007; Harvey, 2002)
 - Title
 - Table of Contents
 - Headings & Subheadings

- Captions
- Pictures or illustrations
- Graphics
 - ❖ Diagrams
 - ❖ Charts
 - ❖ Graphs

13 Structures & Features of Text

- Non-fictional (Informational) story features (cont.)
 - Bold & italicized text
 - Key vocabulary
 - Index
 - Appendices

14 Structures and Features Activities and Strategies

- Fictional text structure and feature strategies and activities
 - Use story maps, story webs, story graphs (Dymock, 2007; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rupley & Nichols, 2005; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004)
 - Signal words: first, second, then, finally, in contrast to, like, similarly (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher & Frey, 2008)
 - Strategies for readers: previewing, note taking, underlining (Knipper & Duggan, 2006)
 - Use Post-It Notes® to write down questions, thoughts, reflections, relation to known thoughts

15 Structures and Features Activities and Strategies

- Non-fictional (Informational) text structure and feature strategies and activities
 - Find time for activities that involve sequencing (series of items in chronological order), compare/contrast (likeness/difference), cause/effect, problem/solution, main idea and related details, textbook inventory (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher, et al., 2008; FOR-PD, 2007; Pardo, 2004; Salinger, 2003)
 - Signal words: first, second, then, finally, in contrast to, like, similarly (Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Fisher & Frey, 2008)
 - Strategies for readers: previewing, note taking, underlining (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Salinger, 2003)
 - Use Post-It Notes® to write down questions, thoughts, reflections, relationship to known thoughts

16 Decoding

- Decoding is the action of analyzing text and the capability of deciphering it, whether automatically or with strategies (Honig, 1997).
- Research in the area of decoding for adolescent struggling readers emphasizes
 - vowel patterns (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003)
 - syllables in a word (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003)
 - prefixes, suffixes, and root words (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003)

17 Decoding Strategies and Activities

- Teach syllables in a word/syllable structure (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003)
- Teach vowel pattern structure (Moats, 2001)
- Prefixes, suffixes, root words (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001; Salinger, 2003)
- Word families (Fisher, et al., 2008)

18 Decoding Strategies and Activities

- Teach decoding strategies (Clay, 1991):
 - Look for known chunks
 - Use what you already know
 - Think of a word that looks like that word
 - Read on, then go back and reread
 - Cover up part of the word
 - Ask, “Does that make sense?” “Does it sound right?”
 - Think about the story and then reread the sentence

19 Vocabulary

- If a reader is using a decoding strategy, then the word must be unfamiliar. In order to assist automaticity of word, we need to build vocabulary in the schema of readers.
- Students need to be given opportunity for daily vocabulary studies in a manner that does not emphasize the memorization of the vocabulary words (Moats, 2001)

20 Vocabulary Activities & Strategies

- Word sorting (Bear et al., 2007)

- Word hunts (Bear et al., 2007)
- Homographs and homophones (Bear et al., 2007)
- Vocabulary journals (Bear et al., 2007)
- Context clues (Fisher, et al., 2008)
- Word origins and word derivations (Moats, 2001)

21 Vocabulary Activities & Strategies

- Teach how language can change meaning: Idioms and figures of speech. Also, denotation, connotation, similes, metaphors, parts of speech, synonyms & antonyms (Bear et al., 2007; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)
- Prefixes, suffixes, root words (Greek & Latin) (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; Adams et al., 2000; Bear et al., 2007; Fisher, et al., 2008; Moats, 2001)
- Word maps (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)
- Concept Wheels (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)

22 Vocabulary Activities & Strategies

- Daily vocabulary activities (Moats, 2001) such as phonograms like hink-pinks or hinky-pinkys (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004) or crosswords which can be self-created using vocabulary from all subject areas students are experiencing
- Word family tree (Buehl, 2004; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004)
- Word/Vocabulary/Root word webs (Bear et al., 2007; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)

23 Vocabulary Activities & Strategies

- Relationships among words (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rupley & Nichols, 2005)

Websites:

- www.vocabulary.com (Cook & Cook, 1997)
- www.vocabulary.co.il (Edelson & Richman, 2007)

24 Fluency

- Reading fluently assess in the amount of time allocated for comprehension.
- A fluent reader is able to automatically decode words in order to assert time for understanding text because the reader has grouped words and understood the meaning of the text (Pressley, 2002; Salinger, 2003)

25 Fluency Activities & Strategies

- Reader's Theatre (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Rief, 2000) – there are websites available on the Internet to obtain downloadable scripts (use a search engine for “readers theatre free printable scripts”) – www.readinglady.com (Kump, 1997)

26 Fluency Activities & Strategies

- Reading aloud to students to model how a good fluent reader reads (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Rief, 2000)
- Repeated readings (Rasinski & Padak, 2005)
- Choral Reading (Moats, 2001)
- Echo Reading (Fisher, et al., 2008)
- Shared and Guided Reading (Fisher, et al., 2008)
- Poetry (Rasinski & Padak, 2005; Rasinski, et al., 2005)
- Running Records—Measure and track progression of reading rate—WPM (words per minute) (Rasinski, et al., 2005)

27 Comprehension

- Complicated action (Walker, 2005)
- Internalization of comprehension strategies (Pressley, 2002)
- Extremely important for teachers to directly and clearly teach the strategies used for comprehending text by modeling (Salinger, 2003)

28 Comprehension-Good Readers

- Good readers (Pressley, 2002, p. 296):
 - Monitor as they read
 - Monitor problems
 - Active participants
 - Relate ideas
- Prior knowledge
- Construct images

29 Comprehension Activities & Strategies

- PQ4R: Preview, Question, Read, Recite, Review, Reflect (FOR-PD, 2007) or SQR2: Stop, Question, Reflect, Read-on
- Think aloud strategy (Walker, 2005)
- Story maps, story pyramids, story web (Buehl, 2004; Jackson Land & Norton, 2004)
- Collaborative learning (Fisher & Frey, 2008)
- Open-ended questioning (Moats, 2001)

30 Comprehension Activities & Strategies

- Access and experience with all genres (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004)
- Shared and guided reading (Fisher, et al., 2008)
- Activating prior knowledge, inferences, summarizing, predicting, clarifying, questioning, visualizing, monitoring, synthesizing, evaluating, and connecting (Fisher, et al., 2008)
- Picture books for strategy instruction (Fisher, et al., 2008; Harvey & Goudvis, 2000)

31 Comprehension Activities & Strategies

- Strategies to incorporate and practice: Pre-read text, reread text, topic sentences, topic paragraphs, inferences, interpret text, paraphrase text, reflect, question as reading, evaluate text, monitor problems as reading, be actively engaged with text, summarizing (Pressley, 2002)
- Self-questioning as reading (Walker, 2005):
 - What must I do? What's my plan
 - Does that make sense? Did it fit?

32 Comprehension Activities & Strategies

- Reciprocal teaching of text (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Pressley, 2002) student(s) teach other students or class what was involved in text read
- Activity guides (Buehl, 2004): Anticipatory guide, sequential round table alphabet, chapter tours, different perspective graphic outline, inquiry chart, interactive reading guide, KWL chart (What I Know, What I Want to Know, What I

Learned), learning log, semantic feature analysis, story mapping, structure note-taking

33 Comprehension Activities & Strategies

- Graphic organizers such as Venn Diagram (Jackson Land & Norton, 2004; Salinger, 2003)
- Teach making connections to text (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000)
 - Text-to-text
 - Text-to-self
 - Text-to-world
- Purposeful Groups: Book Clubs, Discussion Groups, Informational Study Groups (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000) Book Bistros, and Literature Circles (Burns, 1998; Daniels, 2006)

34 Connections to Reading

- Writing (Adams et al, 2000; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Juel, 1988; Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Moats, 2001; Rief, 2006; Salinger, 2003)
- Technology (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Shanklin, 2008; Williams, 2005)
- Motivation

35 Writing & Technology

- Writing allows a reader to put in visual form the thoughts that are in the reader's mind (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rief, 2006).
- Allows a reader to organize, reread, reflect, and recast information
- Technology is a tool to connect reading, writing, and motivation

36 Writing & Technology Activities & Strategies

- Software:
 - Kidspiration® (Inspiration Software, 2008)
 - Inspiration® (Inspiration Software, 2006)
- Websites on the Internet: use a search engine for a particular target area such as “vocabulary building activities” or check out www.vocabulary.com (Cook & Cook, 1997) and www.vocabulary.co.il (Edelson & Richman, 2007)
- Reading and Language Arts website: www.readwritethink.org (International Reading Association and National Council of Teachers of English, 2002)
- Puzzle making websites and software such as www.puzzlemaker.com (Discovery Communications, 1999)

37 Writing & Technology Activities & Strategies

- Connection with another classroom, possibly in another state with a purpose, possibly inquiry/research based
- Webquests (Shanklin, 2008)
- Creations: website, posters, cards, blogs (Web Logs), online journals, rewrite e-mails in a different genre, letters, editorials (Williams, 2005)
- Build writing skills through guided writing (Moats, 2001)

38 Writing & Technology Activities & Strategies

- Online Classroom Newsletter
- Classroom newsletter with class choosing name of newsletter
- Graphic Organizers such as KWL charts, Story Maps (Dymock, 2007; Salinger, 2003)
- Quick-Writes (Knipper & Duggan, 2006; Rief, 2000)

- 6 Traits of Writing (NWREL, 1983)

39 Writing & Technology Activities & Strategies

- Poetry website www.gigglepoetry.com (Lansky, 2003)
- Reading and language arts website www.readwritethink.org (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 2002)
- Journals/Reader's-Writer's Notebook (Moats, 2001; Rief, 2000; Salinger, 2003)
questions, predictions, personal connections, reactions, responses to the characters, plot, implications

40 Motivation

- Students with high confidence in reading and who place a high value on reading are likely to be more actively engaged readers (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996)
- As a struggling reader continues through each grade with feelings of being unsuccessful, the struggling reader will have less interest in reading (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004)

41 Motivation Activities & Strategies

- Student Choices (Harvey, 2002; Rief, 2000; Wilhem & Smith, 2006)
- A balanced choice and wide variety of reading materials (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Moats, 2001; Rief, 2000) fiction, nonfiction, magazines, newspapers, poetry, fables
- Interaction with peers (Fisher & Frey, 2008; Rief, 2000)
- Reading aloud to students (Rief, 2000)

42 Motivation Activities & Strategies

- Book ads-teachers and students advertise books they have read (Rief, 2000)
- Teacher is a motivated reader and models for students (Rief, 2000)
- Literature Circles (Burns, 1998; Daniels, 2006)
- Book Clubs (Pardo, 2004); Book Bistros
- Inquiry/Research based projects (Harvey, 2002; Wilhelm & Smith, 2006)
- Students need to have the skill of finding “just right books” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000; Schirmer & Lockman, 2001): Read back cover, read flap, read first page and/or first few pages to see if the storyline is interesting and if text is not too difficult but just right, read table of contents, check out title, check out length, look at pictures or the features of the text, look at cover, check out author, check out subject, check out genre. Also, is the book recommended by a teacher or peer?

43 The Desk Reference

- Flip-style
- Laminated
- Components
- Strategies and Activities
- References and Resources
 - Most found on ERIC (EBSCO) and can be downloaded and/or printed

44 References

Appendix C
Staff Strategy Survey

Name of Staff Member:
Building:
Which strategies listed in the Reading Strategy Desk-Reference (Kleinschmidt, 2009) are you very familiar with?
Which strategies listed in the Reading Strategy Desk-Reference (Kleinschmidt, 2009) with which you are not familiar?
Which strategies listed in the Reading Strategy Desk Reference (Kleinschmidt, 2009) are you able to assist another staff member with trying in their classroom?
Which strategies listed in the Reading Strategy Desk Reference (Kleinschmidt, 2009) will you need some assistance with to implement in your classroom?