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Creating a Culture of Literacy: Strengthening the Core of Secondary Reading Instruction

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Creating a Culture of Literacy: Strengthening the Core of Secondary Reading Instruction

A White Paper Prepared For:

Capitol Region Education Council (CREC)

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Introduction

In the past decade, with few exceptions, tiered intervention has become commonplace for working with struggling readers in K-3 (Allington, 2011; Brozo, 2011). If a proliferation of literature is a measure of its acceptance, then schools across the country have implemented some combination of the core principles of *Response to Intervention* (RTI) into any variety of models that puts students' academic needs at the apex of the district mission. At the same time, formalized approaches to tiered intervention for secondary schools continue to be a rare occurrence (Brozo, 2010; 2011; Carnegie, 2010; IRA, 2012; NASSP, 2005; Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012).

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to articulate a plan to provide high quality literacy instruction in secondary content area classes that will yield the highest impact on student learning while addressing the needs of the lowest-performing students whose literacy needs cannot be ignored (Brozo, 2009). This will necessitate a restructuring of the three-tiered format within which a systems approach for school improvement embeds a well-defined professional learning plan, and strong collaboration among content area teachers, reading professionals, and special educators to collaborate on the delivery of differentiated, cross-curricular instructional supports.

Rationale

Research for students in grades K-3 suggests that intervention is more effective at that level than for older students in grades 4-12 (Brozo, 2009; Lipson &Wixson, Reed, Wexler & Vaugh, 2012). Replication of the three-tiered model, currently used in the primary grades is neither an appropriate, nor a practical solution for secondary schools, whose culture, climate, and

schedules vary greatly from the elementary school level (Brozo, 2009; IRA, 2009; IRA, 2012; Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012).

The term "early identification" no longer applies for secondary readers (Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012, p. 3), while a shift in emphasis from prevention to remediation begs a revision of the structural paradigm of the existing SRBI model (Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012, p. 2). At the same time, SRBI called for the "restructuring [of CT's] secondary schools" (CSDE, 2008, p. i), which implies that a philosophical shift needs to occur for addressing the needs of "students with intractable reading impairments" (Reed, Wexler, and Vaughn, 2012, p. 3).

Ideally, students acquire the foundational skills, including decoding and print skills, the recognition of high frequency words, and fluency during the basic level of literacy instruction. Subsequently, they move along the trajectory at the intermediate level to attain skill in fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, and text structure, before advancing to the disciplinary phase, which presumes mastery of underlying skills (Buehl, 2011; IRA, 2012;). However, because literacy development is not a linear process for many students, teachers at the middle and secondary levels often find themselves ill-prepared to manage the literacy needs of students who require more reading support (2011; 2012). The assumption that all students have acquired the brick-and-mortar skills for negotiating and navigating the complex demands of "fill-in-the-discipline" academic texts is to ignore the social, emotional, and learning needs of students who have not developed foundational literacy skills. Therefore, a focus on the causal relationship between decoding, vocabulary and comprehension, and a course of action that considers older, diverse, struggling learners needs to include components of literacy instruction that were not previously mastered.

The Challenge of the CT Core Standards

The inception of the CT Core Standards ([NGA & CCSSO], 2010) has presented an added dimension of complexity to the task of raising student literacy achievement and has simultaneously influenced both student learning and the professional learning of educators (Wendt, 2013). A recent nationwide study (n = 3,000) of the implementation of the Common Core State Standards (aka CT Core Standards) found that most teachers feel ill-prepared to implement the new literacy standards, especially with high-needs students (National Center for Literacy Education, 2014). On a scale of 1-5 in which teachers were asked to rank their understanding of the standards, 55% ranked themselves as "not prepared." Further, less than 25% felt confident in their abilities to work effectively with English learners, students with disabilities, and academically-at-risk students.

Inherent within the Connecticut Core ELA Standards are literacy standards for history/social studies, science, and technical subjects for grades 6–12. The Connecticut Core ELA Standards also articulate literacy anchor standards that serve as the basis for curriculum in all content areas in grades 6-12. It is therefore an expectation that students read increasingly complex texts in all content areas, which presumes the internalization of foundational skills, and to extract, understand, and write about central ideas and multitudinous themes, particularly in math, social studies, and science. The qualitative and quantitative aspects of complex text, including word and sentence length, multi-level meanings of words, literary devices, and text structure, call for deliberate, systematic, and strategic instruction of vocabulary (NGA & CCSSO, 2010, Appendix A, p. 35, 51). Ultimately, the responsibility for making text accessible to students no longer resides exclusively with English Language Arts, special education, and/or reading teachers.

Every teacher, regardless of subject, is a teacher of reading (Buehl, 2011; Cummins, 2013; Daniels & Zemelman, 2014; Donahue, 2003; IRA, 2015; Massey & Heafner, 2004; Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz; Tovani, 2004). The demand to be literate in the 21st century extends into every discipline, and its meaning is expanding. Teachers must be prepared to scaffold instruction for those students who have continually exhibited academic difficulties, particularly in conceptual terminology and academic vocabulary, which may include differentiating content and process as well as product (Tomlinson, 2001).

Traditional content area literacy, in which each teacher is the master of his or her domain, frequently dismisses the idea of an integrated approach to the teaching and learning of academic content (Damico, Baildon, Exter, & Guo, 2010). This age-old construct of compartmentalized instruction perpetuates the idea of instructional silos and missed opportunities to make explicit and meaningful connections among the disciplines. However, *disciplinary literacy*, which goes beyond mere student recitation of content learned, invites and encourages students to practice the lexicon of the discipline while learning the content (2010).

Generating questions and problem-solving scientific dilemmas through the lens of a mathematician, scientist, engineer, writer, artist, musician, and technology specialist engenders authentic apprenticeship as students begin to read, write, and think in the discipline (IRA, 2015; Vacca, Vacca & Mraz, 2014). In order to promote college and career readiness, students acquire content information by assuming the stance of discipline-specific professions. The integration of rigorous content with culturally relevant pedagogy *and* the CT Core Standards allows students to develop the habits of mind while engaging in the discourse practices of the discipline (Manderino & Wickens, 2014). Disciplinary literacy is the capacity to read content-specific, informational text "with an insider perspective," (Buehl, 2011, p. 10). This presumes the

internalization of the content through literacy instruction that leads students along a three-phase continuum through which students begin at a basic level, progress through intermediate phases of understanding, and evolve to the point of disciplinary literacy (Buehl, 2011). To support this development, effective school programming should provide opportunities for content teachers and resource personnel, including reading teachers, speech and language pathologists, and special education teachers to collaborate on the design of research-based literacy lessons that scaffolds instruction for students with diverse needs (IRA, 2012).

The CT Core Standards states that "instruction in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language is a shared responsibility in students' literacy development" (NGA & CCSSO, 2010, p. 4). To that end, collaboration among the content area teachers, the English Language Arts (ELA) teachers, and reading specialists is essential for helping students acquire mastery over the content in a discipline-specific field (IRA, 2012; IRA, 2015; Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012). Units of study can provide meaningful integration of content standards and the processes by which students acquire learning (ILA, 2015). ELA teachers and reading specialists can help teachers by providing best practices for differentiation of content to ease the planning through interactive and meaningful lessons (Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012; ILA, 2015).

Reimagining Secondary Instruction and Intervention as a Systems Approach

A systems approach for school improvement, adapted for use in grades 7-12, and anchored in International Readings Association's (IRA) position on adolescent literacy (2012), the Standards for Reading Professionals (IRA, 2010), and the Content Literacy Continuum (Ehren, Deshler, & Graner (2010), preserves the core features of the SRBI/RTI tiered framework, while providing logistic and curricular adaptations to accommodate proficient students *and* those who with exigent needs. Although fluidity within the individual tiers might

occur, an overall balanced and coordinated construct includes well-defined parameters to ensure an equitable distribution of the workload for teachers (2010; Brozo, 2010). Ehren, Deshler, and Graner (2010) refer to the metaphor that "a chain is only as strong as its weakest link" (p. 320) in which they emphasize the need for a clear conception of content teachers' roles, responsibilities, and curricular goals to preclude the traditional overreliance on certain resource personnel.

Professional Learning

As teachers and administrators begin to think about restructuring programs for intervention, high quality professional learning will need to consider current policy, student assessment data, and teachers' voices (Risko & Vogt, 2016). Collaboration among content area teachers whose expertise includes a deep knowledge of their discipline, but whose limited understanding of literacy pedagogy may preclude adeptness for scaffolding literacy instruction for students who require intensive support and reading and special education teachers is essential (Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012; IRA, 2012; IRA, 2015). Decisions about the content and scope of professional learning should align with professional standards for learning (e.g. Learning Forward - https://learningforward.org/) and consider the evolving needs of the teachers (Risko & Vogt, 2016).

The importance of high quality professional development cannot be minimized in a systems approach for school reform (IRA, 2012; IRA, 2015). Carving out time for collaboration and consulting within stringent time schedules will no doubt present a challenge for teachers and administrators. However, the prospect that a powerful merge between resource and content area educators can facilitate a greater surge in academic achievement when students' basic literacy needs are prioritized is a vision that promotes a culture of literacy.

Using Student Assessment Data

Existing student assessment data frequently provide information about students who require mild or intensive intervention. Multidisciplinary school leadership teams, comprised of administrators, content area teachers, resource personnel, speech and language pathologists, and reading specialists should come to consensus about decisions regarding the use of existing data, including school, state, and/or district-mandated assessments, or a universal screening to identify students who are not reading on grade level (Ehren, Desher, & Graner, 2010; Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012). Researchers caution that over-testing can be counterproductive as a means of identification, particularly because most lower-performing students have already been assessed and reassessed since the primary grades (2012). In some cases, the lowest-performing students will require an additional assessment (or two) to pinpoint specific areas of weakness. However, while collection of student assessment data at the primary level is an ongoing process, assessment data for students at the secondary level has most likely accumulated for years; thus, additional diagnoses may not be necessary, provided that districts have developed robust K-6 assessment systems, and are clearly communicating student progress in the transition from elementary school to middle school, and middle school to high school (Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn, 2012).

While a comprehensive battery of literacy-based assessments and screens may not be necessary at the secondary level, school districts may benefit from shorter, efficient assessments of word recognition for students who require assistance decoding of multisyllabic words such as the Slosson Oral Reading Test (SORT, 2002). With a reliability of over .98, the SORT is a norm-referenced instrument to obtain a quick measure of word recognition for regular education and special needs students in grades kindergarten through grade 12. Digital and online resources also provide free access to current material across a variety of contexts and content areas, and Lexile

ranges to accommodate students' discrete needs. Additionally, the Service Educational Regional

Center (SERC) consortium (of Connecticut) provides a comprehensive offering of secondary

assessments to address the needs students who require further evaluation (SERC, 2012). Use this

link to access a complete list of assessments that available at the secondary level -

http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/pdf/curriculum/cali/secondary_assessments_4-9-12.pdf.

Tier 1 Literacy Supports

Tier 1 is the critically important foundation *upon which the other two tiers are dependent*

(CSDE, 2008; Ehren, Deshler, & Graner, 2010). Tier 1 literacy instruction should serve as the

foundation for curriculum and lesson planning and be used to support all students. Tier 1 literacy

support is the quintessential model for core academic programming, and includes best practices

for differentiating content, process, and product (Tomlinson, 2011). Core competencies address

the content standards of the discipline through multimodal approaches and digital technologies,

certain platforms for social and multimedia, a broad range of print and electronic materials (IRA,

2012), research-based strategies, and culturally-responsive pedagogy. Instructional delivery may

include a combination of whole, small group, or individualized instruction, which may require

teacher modification of process and product, depending on the need of the student(s). (IRA,

2012).

A baseline expectation for all secondary content teachers is that they possess the

pedagogical skills necessary to design and implement Tier 1 literacy support. In Tier 1, teachers

show students how to assume responsibility for their own learning through self-monitoring

(Ehren, Deshler, & Graner, 2010; IRA, 2012; Reed, Wexler, and Vaughn, 2012). Differentiated

instruction in Tier 1 capitalizes on the use of graphic organizers, structured outlines, study

guides, and visual tools for navigating text and distilling central ideas. Students learn to grapple

with text structure for deepening comprehension, and create charts for organizing, summarizing, and synthesizing important ideas in preparation for writing for a variety of audiences. They learn to use morphemic analysis (the study of prefixes, suffixes, and roots) to identify and deconstruct academic multisyllabic vocabulary (2012). Guided discourse provides a platform to practice oral communication, which is frequently neglected at the secondary level (2012). School leadership teams should ensure that teachers who are unfamiliar with ways to differentiate literacy-based instruction are provided support through ongoing consultation with resource personnel in making content accessible for students who may require additional reading guidance within Tier 1.

Within baseline Tier 1 expectations, all content teachers should be expected to use Curriculum-Based Assessments (CBA) and/or Common Formative Assessments (CFA) to measure the extent to which students can read proficiently for the purpose of demonstrating mastery of content-based objectives. Ultimately, the purpose of these benchmark assessments is to document ongoing student performance, and to identify those students who are not attaining benchmark. Reed, Wexler, & Vaughn (2012) recommend that teachers and the literacy leadership team meet once per quarter to review assessment data for students in Tier 1, and to plan for those students who are not meeting academic expectations. Those students not meeting academic expectation are candidates for Tier 2 or Tier 3 intervention.

A Division of Labor

An important assumption for the structure to be operational is the acknowledgment that content area teachers have expertise in their discipline and vast knowledge about their domains and *should not be marginalized by the expectation that they become reading interventionists* (Buehl, 2011; Gunning, 2018, IRA, 2012; Reed, Wexler, and Vaughn, 2012). Wendt (2013) affirmed the divide between *literacy learning* and *content learning*, and the assumption that

academic learning presumes the mastery of basic literacy skills. Therefore, the teaching of basic

decoding is within the scope of responsibilities for reading specialists and interventionists

(Gunning, 2018, IRA, 2012; IRA, 2015).

Leveraging the work of the reading specialists to provide intervention in the foundational

skills, and then coordinating instruction with teachers of content-specific disciplines, performing

arts, and technical subjects to design effective lessons to meet the needs of students in Tiers 2

and 3, requires a division of labor (Buehl, 2010; Gunning, 2018, IRA, 2015; Piercy &

Piercy). Ongoing collaboration and consultation of leadership teams to identify best practices for

differentiating content and process diminishes the workload. Clarification of roles is integral to

successful implementation of secondary RTI frameworks to diminish the potential for tier-

overload or overburdening one teacher with the lion's share of the responsibility in working with

students most in need (CSDE, 2015; Ehren, Desher, & Graner, 2010; IRA, 2015). With this

criteria in mind, we present strategies for differentiating instruction to support the struggling

student within a 50-minute period, along with a procedural plan for implementation and

formative assessment.

Mediating Intervention through the Scaffolded Instruction

The *Scaffolded Reading Experience* (SRE) provides teachers with a framework for

teaching comprehension through content area text using instructional strategies at the three

phases of reading (Massey & Heafner, 2004). Inherent within the framework for helping students

construct meaning before, during, and after reading, the instructional scaffold draws from

Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), the province between what a student

can do independently and the level of proficiency that he or she can attain through expert

guidance. As a teaching tool, the SRE includes selected strategies to support student

comprehension of complex informational text as he or she strives to become an independent learner.

In Section II we present a resource of content area strategies to support literacy instruction for all students at the secondary level. These strategies, aligned with CT Core Standards, cut across all content areas, and provide content teachers with options for scaffolding lessons before, during, and after reading. However, it is important to remember that the reading process is iterative, and students may need to traverse the phases of reading and revisit the text multiple times as they interact and construct meaning from text (Massey & Heafner, 2004).

Table 1 provides a listing of research-based strategies, followed by a description of the strategy, and a procedure for implementation comprised of modeling, guided practice, and application. We hope that the secondary teacher will find these strategies useful in his or her practice.

Section II.

Instructional strategies to support literacy instruction for all students at the secondary level.

Table 1
Instructional Scaffold for Strategies

Common Core Standard	Strategies	Before	During	After
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.1 Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it; cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text. (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 35,39).	**1. Close Reading Procedure** Procedures can vary, but the components of rereading and discussion are essential to the construction of meaning.	√	√	√
	2. Text Dependent Questions (TDQ) Questions pertaining to each anchor standard are presented.		√	√
	3. Question the Author (Q-t-A) Students pose question to get at the heart of the author's intent and determine if the author has clarified essential ideas.		√	√
	4. Strategy/Study Guides – used to scaffold and make content area text accessible to students	√	√	√
	5. Annotating/Coding the Text.		√	√
	6. Admit Slips – strategy to set purposes for learning	√		
	7. Exit Slips – strategy to demonstrate understanding of the content.			√
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.2 Determine central ideas or themes and summarize the key supporting details and ideas. (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 35,39).	**8. R.A.F. T.** (role of the writer, audience, format, topic). A strategy that encourages student writing from the lens of the topic, person, or object about which student is writing.			√
	9. Sketch-to-Stretch – a strategy that encourages the student to sketch information just learned, and to engage in discussion with a partner to affirm the learning before the teacher intervenes.			√
CCSS.CCRA.RL.3 Analyze how and why individuals, events, and ideas develop and interact over the course of the text (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 35).	**10. Character Change Map** This strategy helps students trace the development of the character from the beginning to the end of the story by identifying character traits and citing evidence.	√	√	√
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.4: Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 35,39).	**11. Knowledge Rating** – a strategy to determine if students understand academic vocabulary in advance of the topic of study	√		
	12. Concept of Definition A framework for organizing conceptual information in the	√	√	√

		Before	During	After
	process of defining a word. Information is organized semantically: the general category in which the concept belongs, properties of the concept, and examples. Can be used before, during, or after reading.			
	13. Semantic Feature Analysis A grid is used to help students analyze similarities and differences among the related concepts. A topic is selected, words related to that category are written across the top of the grid, and features shared by the words are listed with a "+" or "-."			√
CCSS.CCRA.L. Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases by using context clues, analyzing meaningful word parts, and consulting general and specialized reference materials, as appropriate. (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 51).	**14. Morphemic Analysis – the study of prefixes suffixes and roots** Morphemic Analysis is the cross between word study and word analysis. A list of common prefixes, suffixes, and roots is provided for use across content area text.	May be useful at any phase of the reading.		
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.5: Analyze the structure of texts, including howspecific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g. a section, chapter, scene, relate to one another) and the whole (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 35,39).	**15. THIEVES:** A strategy to discern the essential ideas in content area text through a preview of the external text features title within the text or article.	√		
	16. Text Structures: Description, Sequence, Problem/Solution, Compare/Contrast, Cause/Effect **Text Features:** Table of contents, captions, sidebars, glossary, boldface print, etc.		√	√
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.6: Assess how point of view or purpose shapes the content and style of a text (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 35,39).	**17. Somebody/Wanted/But/So/And** A framework for summarizing literary text and for making			√

		Before	During	After
	characters' points of view explicitly understood.			
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.7: Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 35,39).	**18. Close Reading of a Visual Image** Using a picture of a piece of art or photograph to obtain the meaning and to study the context of the visual image.	√	√	√
CCSS.CCRA.RI.8: Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, including the validity of the reasoning as well as the relevance and sufficiency of the evidence. (making text-to-text connections)(NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 39).	**19. Discussion Web** A graphic organizer that requires students to examine both sides of an issue, draw conclusions through think-pair-share, and generate a piece of writing in which **opinions** are anchored through evidence from the text			√
Fluency: Read with sufficient accuracy and fluency to support comprehension (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 17).	**20. Pointed Reading (Beers, 2003).** A respective strategy for repeated reading that allows for student choice for determining the parts of a text that he rereads to build fluency.	√	√	√
Know and apply grade level phonics and word analysis skills in decoding words (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 17).	**21. Phonics and Word Recognition** A list of the common phonograms used for word building is provided	√	√	√
*Foundational Skills		√	√	√

*Foundational Skills. The reader will note that foundational skills, presumed to have been mastered at the elementary level, is not included within the Common Core at the secondary level. However, research has shown (and documented within the first several pages of this report) that the reality is that a high percentage of secondary students continue to struggle with decoding. Therefore, we have included a portion of the Foundational Standards as they relate to anticipated areas of student difficulties to provide teachers with resources for addressing issues of decoding and oral reading fluency. (see page 73-75).

Strategies Aligned with Anchor Standard 1

1. Close Reading CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.1

Description.

By definition, *close reading* implies the deliberate and strategic focus on the meanings of individual words as they relate to the passage of a text, the flow of the sentences in a passage, how the central ideas interconnect to the whole to garner the underlying meaning, and the implication that the text will be read several times. (Coleman & Pimentel, 2012). Close reading

presumes the internalization of the foundational skills of decoding to focus on the deeper meaning of text (Waters, 2014). Internal text structures, the exactness of the author's word choices, the implicit and the explicit themes, and the ways in which the reader makes intertextual connections within the passage and across texts helps the reader to construct his personal worldview. Fisher and Frey (2012) refer to these situated features as the "deep structures" (p. 179) of text that undergird the concept of close reading. Although Table 2 summarizes the features of close reading, it is by no means is it an exhaustive list.

Table 2
Components for Close Reading Lesson. Adapted from Fisher & Frey, 2012, p. 181-187

1. **Short passages** (2-3 paragraphs up to two pages) to teach skills that students will use independently for navigating longer texts. May consist of short or shortened text that will be read and reread several times.

2. **Complex Text:** Taking into account the qualitative, quantitative and the reader and task considerations for the readability of a passage; may go beyond the independent reading level of the students, requiring teacher modeling of fluent oral reading.

3. **Limited Frontloading:** Provide textual and illustrative definitions of unknown words on an as-needed basis.

4. **Rereading:** Students reread the text multiple times to build on existing comprehension and meaning. Each successive reading beyond the initial read provides expanded understanding of the passage. Students may find it helpful to rate their understanding of the text from 1-10 during successive reading beyond the first, and discuss how their understanding deepens as a result of repeated reading (Beers, 2003).

5. **Text-Dependent Questions (TDQ)/Linking the Question to the Standard from the CCSS:** Responding to questions about the big ideas in the text requires students to cite evidence from the text for their thinking. See Table 3 for TDQs that may serve as question stems.

6. **Discourse:** Conversation emanates from sharing out responses to text-dependent questions.

7. **Annotation:** "Reading with a pencil." Students use a combination of coding, underlining, circling, post-it and margin notes directly on the text. Teacher circulates to identify patterns of confusion or erroneous understandings, which provide teaching points for clarification.

Modeling.

Close reading is an iterative process in which the text is read several times as students gain meaning during each of the readings of the passage or text. The teacher reads the passage during the first read so that students hear a model of fluent reading. If necessary, the teacher provides words and definitions of the most challenging vocabulary in advance for selected words that are critical to students' overall understanding of the passage. After the first read, the teacher models the construction of the "gist" of the passage, with help from the students.

Guided Practice.

Students re-read either individually or with a partner to clarify understanding of the central ideas while *coding the text or "reading with a pencil." The teacher facilitates "share-out" so that students can validate their responses.

*Coding-the-text activity is provided in this resource.

Independent Practice.

Subsequent readings of the passage focus on the word choices of the author as they relate to Tier 2 – academic vocabulary or Tier 3 – discipline-specific vocabulary. Following a TDQ activity, students discuss responses to clarify areas of confusion. This activity is intended for use with the entire class so that all students have access to the procedure.

Follow-Up Activity.

For subsequent lessons, the teacher may identify a theme for the class, and provide several leveled or Lexile-appropriate text for use by students who have been grouped by skill within the class so that all students are able to participate in thematic discussion. Current themes covering a range of topics in science, news events, economics, sports, and global issues can easily be obtained through student and teacher-friendly web-based programs with free access.

2. Text-Dependent Questions (TDQ)

Description.

Text-dependent questions (TDQ) require close reading of the passage in which the answer is not within the reader's schema, or explicitly mentioned in the text (Fisher & Frey, 2012). In this after-reading activity, the reader must distill the important from the unimportant information in bridging the literal to the inferential level of understanding in going beyond factual recollection of information from the passage, and cite evidence from the text to support a claim (2012). The purpose of TDQs is to build students' understanding of the main ideas of the text through

strategic, purposeful, and coherent questioning (Student Achievement Partners, 2013). A useful link for creating additional text-dependent questions follows:
http://achievethecore.org/category/1158/ela-literacy-text-dependent-questions

Modeling.

The teacher uses the language of the standard as a starting point for developing a TDQ in helping students to make inferences as they think critically about text. Following the first read of a passage used for close reading, the teacher poses a generic TDQ, aligned with CCSS.RI.RL.1, "What is the text (or author) really saying?" "Cite evidence to support your claim," and invites students to help her make logical inferences about the passage while thinking about the impact of the event on the main character so far.

Guided Practice.

For each type of TDQ, the teacher guides students through the process of responding to the question and revisiting the text to cite evidence and details for their response or claim. Other possible text-dependent questions may include question stems from Table 3, but the reader should note that such recommendations should not be restricted to the examples provided, and teachers should take care to craft questions specific to the unique needs of the text and context of the lesson for which they are intended.

Independent Practice.

Students work in partners or in collaborative groups of three to respond to 3-5 questions in which they have cited evidence for their assertions or claims. The teacher encourages group discussion and circulates to ensure that students acknowledge the importance of going back to the text to prove or disprove a fact, theory, trait, or opinion.

Table 3
Text Dependent Questions

Standard	Text Dependent Question
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.2	What is the most important information in the passage? (What is the central idea? the main idea? Use evidence from the passage to support your response. Explain how the information pertaining to (solving for X, photosynthesis, the preamble to the constitution, literary allusions, etc.) helps you understand the concept. Use evidence from the passage to support your response. Questions become progressively probing to enhance students' understanding of the central idea: In the story, "Thank you, Ma'am," what do you know about the woman in the story? (possible responses: that she wasn't rich, and that she had a strong sense of right and wrong)

Standard	Text Dependent Question
	How do you know that the woman faced struggles in her life?" Use evidence from the passage to support your response. (She said that she did things that she wasn't proud of; her home was small and you could hear people in the hallway; she used canned milk. Food is frequently an indicator of economic status of characters in literary text).
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.3	Read the text again. Select three sentences that show that the (character) is (feeling: humiliated, regretful, enthusiastic) that the character's actions show that s/he is (unlawful, impulsive, talented, etc.) Cite evidence for your claim.
CCSS.CRA.RL.RI.4	How does the writer use different words to convey meaning? What does the word acolyte mean in the sentence, "The priest told the *acolyte* that if he were going to draw cats, then he should leave the church." Use evidence from the text to support your answer. What does the author mean by the phrase _____? How does this meaning apply to (character or idea)? Use details from the text to support your response. Select two sentences from the text that helped you understand the meaning of the word "_____" or phrase "_____." Which words in the sentence contributed to your understanding of the meaning of the words or phrase?
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.5	What is the purpose of the word in italics on page 35? (geology) How does the sub-title help you understand different types of rocks? (social studies) How does the sidebar on page 56 help you understand the three branches of our government? (math) How does the "call-out" box on page 80 help you understand the difference between vertical and horizontal asymptotes? (general science) How do mammals compare with reptiles?
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.6	What is the writer's opinion on the subject? Cite details from the text to support your claim. From whose point of view was the story written? How do you know?
CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.7	Graph: Using the graph on page 76, at what time of the day do most people go to the grocery store? Using the graph on the impact of social media, have the number of people using social media increased or decreased since 2013? What types of social media are the most popular? Table: According to annual financial statement for Amazon in the following graph, have sales increased or decreased in the past 5 years? By how much? *Close Reading of a Visual Image* Looking at ¼ (½,¾) of the visual image, what do you think the illustration represents? (As a class lesson, the image is exposed one quadrant at a time). Looking at the visual image in its entirety, what do you is happening? (pay close attention to the expressions on the faces of the characters, their clothing, objects they are holding, lighting in the foreground, background, the time of day, the season, the locale of the painting, the setting, past, present, future, historical context). What is the tone of the piece of art? Cite details from the painting to support your claim (Daniels & Steineke, 2011).
CCSS.CRA.RI.8 Anchor standard 8 refers to reading for information (RI).	Compare the annual financial statements from Amazon and Google with the article on "Big Business." Which company has had the most growth in the past 5 years? (Analyze information (print, digital, graphics) across multiple texts and sources)

Standard	Text Dependent Question
	Which company would you rather work for? Why? Use evidence from the graphs and the articles to support your reasoning. Synthesize information across texts and multiple media formats Evaluate arguments for validity and relevance. Examine the statistics on charts from __, ___, ___. Examine the chart on bullying to answer the following questions: In the past year, what percent of students reported incidents of bullying on school property as compared with being bullied electronically (email, chat room, instant messaging, website, texting). Is bullying higher among males or females? Do you believe the statistics represented by the chart? What makes you trust or disbelieve the data? How has your knowledge bullying impacted your actions? Use evidence from your sources to support your response. What reasons does the author provide to support _____ in the text?
CCSS.RL.RI.9	Compare annual financial statements from Amazon and Google with an article on "Big Business." Which company has had the most growth in the past 5 years? (Analyze information (print, digital, graphics) across multiple texts and sources) Which company would you rather work for? Why? Use evidence from the graphs and the articles to support your reasoning.

3. Question the Author (Q-t-A)

Description.

Although Question the Author (Q-t-A) (Beck et al, 1997) is a comprehension strategy that predates close reading, the use of constant questioning by the reader during and after reading demonstrates its usefulness as a close reading strategy, particularly because it shows students how to use active reading strategies in trying to discern the intent of the author. As they read, students continually employ a series of queries: (Beck et al, 1997, p.34).

1. What does the author mean here?
2. Did the author explain this [the concept, phenomenon] clearly?
3. Does this make sense with what the author told us [about the character, event, concept] before?
4. Does the author tell us why [the concept, event, the character, something] happened?
5. Why do you think the author tells us this now?

The purpose of engaging in active questioning is to deepen comprehension, to identify the point at which meaning breaks down, and to think metacognitively about the strategies-at-hand for remediating the situation. As students persist in questioning [the author] when they encounter confusing and complex text, then the likelihood of refining their understanding of a passages diminishes because students see themselves as critical analysts, rather than unsuspecting consumers of text. As they assume the perspective of the writer in attempting to discern the author's message, they attain clarity of content and process, while realizing that a misinterpretation is not necessarily the fault of the reader. The strategy teaches students to ask questions when confused, acknowledges that the author may well be the source of the confusion, and provides remedies for making sense of the text— regardless.

Modeling.

In advance of the lesson, the teacher has examined a complex text, which may be the introduction of a text, or an abbreviated passage consisting of approximately 200 – 250 words for the anticipated areas that could compromise comprehension during reading. The teacher considers the qualitative, quantitative and reader-task aspects of the text when determining possible obstacles for student comprehension and separates the text into manageable segments through several stopping points that will be earmarked for discussion. Pauses in reading may not always align with the natural junctures of the story; the teacher anticipates the problem-areas, and plans effective and strategic questions that will require students to grapple with the text in meaningful and interactive format.

Teacher reads the passage aloud, stopping at several pre-determined junctures to pose queries pertaining to the author's message, lesson, or intent, which align with first anchor standard of the CCSS. "What does the author mean?" The author says, "_____," but what does it mean?" Teacher follows up initial queries with more probing questions to enable students to make inter-connections between the ideas of the text. See queries introduced in modeling. "What do we know so far about Clem?" Teacher offers a quote from the text, and then asks students if the quote matches what the author said previously. Teacher encourages students to discuss the parts of the text that are confusing, and to assume the stance of the author as they work together to distill the essential ideas and clarify the author's intent. Teacher may need to model the strategy again for those students who are having difficulty in making inferences or in responding to the queries intended for this strategy.

Guided Practice.

After dividing the class into groups of 3-4, the teacher distributes several different passages so that students have a choice on the topic or passage to practice the Q-t-A strategy. As they work in partnerships and engage in discussion similar to the teacher-led discussion during the modeling portion of the lesson, teacher makes the queries accessible to students. Students are encouraged to "get the author's message," or to "question the author" when parts are confusing. Teacher circulates and provides help when needed.

Independent Practice.

Now that students have had an opportunity to engage in teacher-led discussion of complex text, and also work in partnerships in a Q-t-A activity, they will should be prepared to interact with the text using the similar prompts in written form. The following graphic organizer can help students think critically about the author's message, and if the message aligned with the direct quote from the text as they make connections between and among the ideas presented in the text.

Table 4
Questioning the Author (Q-t-A) Adapted from Beck et al, 1997

A direct quote from the text.	But what does the text mean?	Does it make sense with what the author told us previously?	Did the author explain it clearly?
How has the author resolved the problem in a way that we can understand? My lingering questions:			

4. Strategy/Study Guides

Description.

There are many different types of reading guides, also referred to as study or strategy guides. Whichever the term, this special type of graphic organizer is referred to by Vacca, Vacca, and Mraz (2011) as a "road map" (p.137) for helping students organize and remember content information at the start of the study of a new topic in science, social studies, math, or English—in short, the content and technical subjects. Students respond to different questions and perform the specially designed activities to aid in comprehension before the actual reading of the text, and is best used by the teacher in launching a new topic of study.

Study guides are not merely end-of-chapter questions, which frequently confuse the reader. They are intentionally well-designed tools to emphasize important information and help students perceive the nuances and relationships between and among pieces of information. This integrated and interactive approach to learning content and literary material requires the learner to take an active role in the acquisition of the information (Wood, Lapp, Flood, & Taylor, 2008). Strategy guides provide authentic opportunities for students to participate in close reading activities designed to build understanding of content in the content areas and technical subjects.

The *Interactive Reading Guide* provides a hybrid format for students to work independently, in partners, and in whole-group format when the teacher anticipates that some of the content will present difficulty. Working in cooperative, paired, and individual mode, students work at their own pace, as the teacher circulates, monitors progress and understanding, and provides assistance as needed.

Table 5
Sample of an *Interactive Reading Guide*, *adapted* in format and content from Wood, Lapp, Flood, Taylor (2008)

Chapter 6: Mexico

◯ = **individual**   ◯◯ **groups**

◯◯ = **pairs**   ● = **whole class**
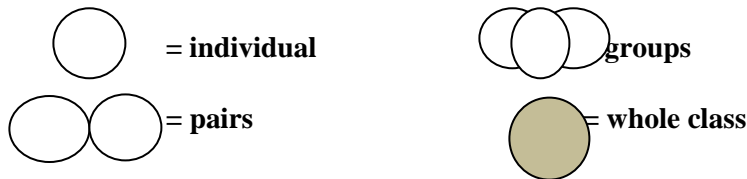
◯ In your group, write down everything you know about the topics related to Mexico. Then you will share your knowledge with the rest of the class.

Mexico — history, art, products, food, geography
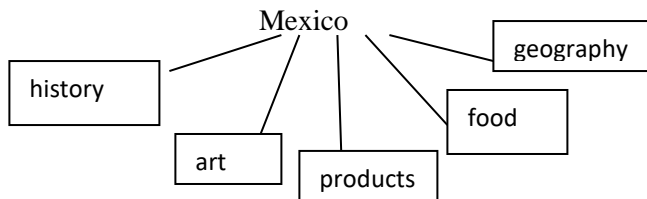
2. ◯ Read page 137 and write down the important information about the landform regions of Mexico.

◯◯ Share this information with your partner.

3. ● Read and learn everything you can about the history of Mexico. Post your learning on the board to share with the class.

4. ◯◯ Take turns reading the sections under the history of Mexico. Summarize the information to your partner in your own words.

5. ◯   Read about Mexico's climate on page 140. When would you like to visit
                Mexico?

6. ⬭⬭   What does it mean when a volcano is *dormant*? With your partner

                discuss Mexico's dormant volcano on page 147.

7. ⬭⬭   What is the *Ring of Fire* in Mexico on page 150?

8. ◯   After reading the chapter, write what you learned about

                each of these topics: *history, cities,* and *geography.*

Modeling.

In advance of the Interactive Reading Guide, the teacher identifies groups of 3-4 students for
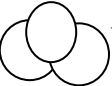collaborative work within the class. The teacher explains that this is a close reading activity
designed to help them interact with the text, and explains that they will work together in groups,
in partnerships, or independently, as the study guide indicates.

Teacher models the completion of the first few items on the strategy guide by referring students
to the legend, which shows the symbols for independent, paired, group or entire class activity.

Guided Practice.

As students work to complete each section, the teacher circulates to further identify the parts of
the text (or guide) that are posing difficulty, and subsequently the pacing, discussion, follow-up
instruction, and intervention for those students who may require explicit reinforcement. The
completion of the guide may require varying amounts of class time, and the teacher will need to
be mindful of those students exhibiting difficulty. However, the scaffold for the strategy guide is
the different modes for the completion of the activity, and the teacher will be able to easily
determine those who require additional support.

Independent Practice.

After several items have been completed through guided practice, students can work according to
the modes of learning to complete the activity independently. The teacher provides additional
support to students who require reinforcement.

The resource used for this example, *Guiding Readers Through Text: Strategy Guides for the New Times,* (Wood, Lapp, Flood, & Taylor, 2008), includes a great many types of strategy guides for implementation in grades 7-12, across disciplines, abilities, skill areas, formats for instruction, and modes of thinking.

For example, the *Anticipation Guide* provides challenging theme statements with which students agree or disagree in advance of the study of the topic. In this way, students are introduced to the topic and have an opportunity to think about what they know before reading the requisite assignment, and the teacher can easily identify students who may not have background knowledge in the topic so that she can provide instructional support.

After reading the text, students are asked if their opinions have changed, as a result of new information acquired. An example of an *Anticipation Guide* on the topic of Japanese Internment follows, in which students are asked whether they agree or disagree before and after reading the text. For each response, they are required to cite evidence for their opinion.

Table 6
Anticipation Guide

Before Reading		Theme Statement	After Reading	
Agree	Disagree	1. During WWII, all Japanese people living in the United States came from Japan.	Agree	Disagree
		2. Congress passed legislation that all Japanese people living in the United States had to leave their homes to be relocated to Canada until the war was over. _____		
		3. During the era of WWII, the United States justified the action to incarcerate the Japanese by stating that they weren't sure who was Japanese-American and who may have been Japanese spies.		
		4. To this day, the United States has not issued a formal apology for imprisoning Japanese-Americans.		

5. Annotating/Coding the Text

Description.

Coding the text is simply using one of a variety of symbols to connect directly with the text as a during reading activity. Annotating the text consists of jotting down one's thoughts to explain the code (Buel, 2011). Cummins (2013) wrote that coding the text "encourages students to focus on thinking about their own thinking" (p. 118), and is not new pedagogy. Using a code to synthesize important information and distilling the essential ideas from the bevvy of detail helps to obtain a deeper meaning of the text. However, experts caution teachers about having students over-coding the text, (2012), which is tantamount to a "mindless fill-in-the-blank activity," (p. 119) for students, resulting in a surface-level understanding of the text.

Instead, Cummins' recommend that students not only write down the code on a post-it note, but write a thought or two of explanation of annotation to how their thinking pertains to the most important information in the text. Daniels and Steineke (2011) offer a list of text codes for student use which can be retrieved at http://www.heinemann.com/shared/companionresources/e03087/47_textcodes.pdf.

Additionally, they recommend that student create their own codes for remembering and sharing new information. (or even make up their own symbol), Students have been annotating the text using any combination of a variety of symbols including the following:

Table 7
Text Codes – adapted from Daniels & Steineke (2011)

Text Code	When To Use	Student's Annotation
√	A familiar piece of information that you knew previously or something that you easily predicted because there were many clues in the text to the outcome.	Write how you knew this bit of information.
⊘	A piece of information that is contrary to what you already knew about the topic. I previously thought . . .	Write the conflicting piece of information for comparison later on.
?	I have question(s) about this information. I am wondering if . . .	Write your question(s).
!	I didn't know that! That information is cool, V.G. (very good) or not cool.	Write which piece of information surprised you.
★	Information that you think it important enough to remember.	Write down the piece of information.
👁	Now I get it! It all makes sense!	What exactly do you "get?"
🔗	I can connect this information to something else that I read . . . I can connect this information to something in my life . . . or something in the world	What is the connection?
B	This information makes me bored. I can hardly hold my head up.	What information is making you bored?

Modeling.

The teacher tells students that they will be having a conversation with the text using symbols, and that they will have an opportunity to create their own symbols for "reading with a pencil." Teacher models the use of symbols and her thinking about a topic using a short passage (no more than 250 words) that is projected on the whiteboard, chart paper, or accessible to all students. Depending on the level of the group, the teacher may begin with a couple of symbols, and gradually increase her use of the symbols, always providing justification for the symbol. An example follows:

The "flehmen" response of the horse looks much like a person's laugh.

Have you ever seen a horse "whinny?" Have you ever wondered about it? Horses make an amusing face to figure out if you smell badly! He is directing the air toward special olfactory glands in the horse's nasal passage. When he curls his lip and tilts his head in a certain upward direction, he is just trying to send the scent toward the glands. He is not laughing! He is trying to figure out if you have a bad scent. This is called the flehmen response, and is more common in male horses than in females.

Teacher's coding of the text:

Guided Practice.

! Wow! I thought that horses were laughing when they whinnied!

? Now, I am wondering if "whinnying" is more common when they are "meeting" someone for the first time, and if they will "whinny" each time they meet that person?

Following the mini-lesson, students practice using symbols using another, either selected by the teacher, or one of their own choosing.

Independent Practice.

Using another shortened passage, students have an opportunity to interact with the text using a combination of pre-determined symbols or create a symbol of their own to show their interaction. The purpose is to enhance student understanding of the essential ideas of the text, not to use as many post-it notes as possible! The ultimate goal of interacting with text through is to deepen student comprehension of a topic or subject.

6. Admit Slips

Description.

Also referred to as a "writing-to-learn strategy," (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011), Admit Slips not only allow students to respond to what they are learning, but they can also set purposes for the continuation of student learning. Generated by students themselves, the exercise frequently helps students to prepare for building on previous learning while linking to prior learning from the previous day. The purpose of the admit slips is not necessarily to write what the student hopes to learn; rather to demonstrate evidence that the student has acquired previous content learning in order to move forward. For example, one teacher sets aside the first five minutes in a social studies class for students to sketch the learning of the previous day: the three branches of government, including some notes about the "check and balance" system. Students then discuss this information in cooperative groups for another 5-7 minutes under the watchful eye of the teacher. "Tickets of admission" (p.137) allow the teacher to gauge if students have done the assigned reading in advance of the class, and can continue to develop the topic accordingly.

Modeling.

Admit Slips bridge acquired and new content learning across all subjects, while establishing clear expectations for the new lesson by holding students accountable for the previous day's learning. As a before class activity, Admit Slips encourage students to remember the content, participate in group discussion, and increase oral and written communication skills, while the teacher makes notes on those requiring additional support. Whether math, English, science, social studies, or technical subjects, having students tell what they know, and then engage in discourse about a topic covered previously helps them to organize, learn, and remember important information.

Guided Practice.

Possible scenarios for the implementation of Admit Slips:

1. **Science:** Yesterday we discussed the impact of water droplets in earth's atmosphere. Take five minutes to tell what causes a rainbow. Then you will discuss this in your groups at your table.
2. **Social Studies:** Yesterday we discussed the concept of "supply and demand" as two important factors that influence the market. In your own words, take five minutes explain the concept of "supply and demand" and identify two recent examples in which the demand increased when the price went down, which caused optimal price for the item. Then you will discuss this concept with your group and compare your examples with your partners' responses.
3. **English:** We have completed James Hurst's short story, *The Scarlet Ibis*, in which death is a motif throughout the text that foreshadows the death of the character, Doodle. Take five minutes to write down how the author showed foreshadowing in the setting, narration, or dialogue.

7. Exit Slips
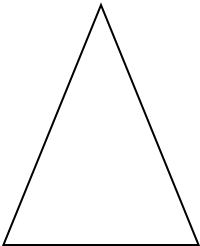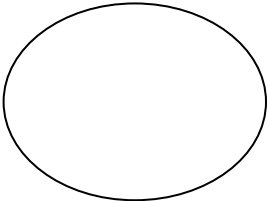
Description.

Exit Slips, generated by students at the conclusion of the class, provide some insight into the ways in which students have processed the content learning, and can provide the teacher with a focus for the next lesson (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011). In some cases, teachers can perceive the difficulties that students encounter as they work through an academic problem, and plan for ways to address the challenges that students experience. Students write about problems encountered with homework assignments, or their confusion about a topic previously covered in class, and students feel free to voice frustrations or enjoyment of the class. Exit Slips can be a trust-building tool between the teacher and students (2011).

The modeling, guided practice, and application components have been omitted because the procedure resembles the procedure for Admit Slips.

Aside from general admissions of struggles with a class, an example of an exit slip is provided in Table 8. (See Table 8 Exit Slip).

Table 8
Exit Slip

Exit Slip	
Name: _____	**Name of Concept _____**

I understand this concept. It "squares" with my thinking.

Three points I will remember tomorrow, and maybe even the next day.

This is what is circling in my head and I am a little confused.

This makes me wiggle around and I am a little concerned.

8. *Role, Audience, Format, Topic* (R.A.F.T.) (Allen, 2004). CCSS.CRA.RL.RI.2

Description.

The R.A.F.T approach is a structured way to summarize content information learned that requires the writer to assume the stance of the writer as he demonstrates his understanding of a content area topic. In R.A.F.T. writing, the student focuses on four main tasks:

R.   *Role of the writer:* Writing in the discipline of the topic of study, the student may (or may not) assume the perspective of a sports figure, celebrity, historian, mathematician, literary critic, scientist, artist, or even an inanimate object (think science). Frequently, writing from the lens of the topic itself provides a way for the student to become invested in the topic (Allen, 2004; Gunning, 2018). Vacca, Vacca & Mraz (2011) argue the importance for students to develop the disciplinary context for becoming situated within the topic, which positions them to be motivated and engaged in the writing.

A   *Audience:* Student determines the audience for his piece of writing. Gunning (2018) stated that writing for the teacher's eyes could tend to dissuade the student's interest, but writing for another audience (for example, Congress, United Nations, classmates, parents, the mayor, the principal, sportscasters, etc.) would entice the student to be motivated to do the task.

F   *Format:* The writing can take the form of a letter, an argument, a narrative, a letter to the editor, a journal entry, a speech, or which type of communication would be best suited for the task.

T   *Topic:* The student begins the topic with a call to action: demanding the manager at BEST BUY to provide full reimbursement following a computer malfunction of a recent purchase, pleading the zoning committee to put a light at the intersection of a busy corner that has recently been the scene of many car accidents, requesting a local bakery to donate 400 cupcakes to the school football team for new uniforms, convincing a local banker to invest in a new app invention that is destined to make millions.

Modeling.

The teacher and students choose a topic on which to write, and the teacher facilitates the writing, encouraging students to participate in the writing as they have ideas. For example, a colonist might write a secret letter to one of the members of the Sons of Liberty to say that he has heard about the impending "Tea Party" and that he is willing to dress up like an Indian to show solidarity with the colonists in protesting the strong-armed tactics of the British Government. In science: student assumes the stance of carbon dioxide in explaining its potential effect on global warming. Or perhaps the student assumes the perspective of the Fibonacci theory in explaining its relevance to nature. At this early stage, the writing should be completed as a collaborative

activity. The success of this strategy relies heavily on the modeling of the teacher, and the scaffolding to ensure that students understand the task.

Guided Practice.

Students brainstorm with partners to select topics on which to write. They write with a partner on a mutually-agreed upon topic, and exchange the finished drafts with their peers, who provide critique and feedback. Teacher may employ this step until students demonstrate that they are ready to undertake the strategy independently.

Independent Practice

The goal of the strategy is for students to use the strategy independently. After providing many opportunities for students to participate in RAFT writing in collaborative groups and in partnerships, teacher and students come to consensus about attempting this strategy independently. Naturally, this decision will arise from a discussion with the student, who will write based on a topic of his own choosing.

9. *Sketch-to-Stretch* (Zemelman, Daniels, & Hyde, 2012)

Description.

This simple strategy invites students to draw or sketch information that he has just learned, and then fill in phrases or domain-specific vocabulary to demonstrate understanding of concepts, of content-specific vocabulary, and how ideas are semantically related to one another. After completing the sketch, students share with partners about the connections and inferences they have made. As they share, students attempt to use phrases and academic vocabulary to add to their illustration. Finally, the teacher enters the scene after listening to student discussion around the concepts, and provides clarification through her own sketches, illustrations, graphic organizers, or videos, when students have acquired erroneous information or have questions about what they have learned.

Modeling.

After a study on the formation of the three types of rocks, (igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic) a science teacher models how to sketch the three types of rocks, give examples, and tell how the rocks were formed. She provides a rough sketch of sandstone, and explains the layers within.

Guided Practice.

Students use highlighters, markers, crayons, and/or colored pencils to sketch the three types of rocks. Then they share out their illustrations with partners. As they do, they attempt to use the domain specific of the discipline in conversation, and later on they write the words in strategic places on the sketches.

Independent Practice.

The teacher circulates to monitor student understanding. This creates an opportunity to identify students who appear to be experiencing difficulty in the retention of the concept. She makes note of areas to focus on for clarification and makes a mental note to clarify student misunderstanding of the rock cycle or other conceptual information.

10. Character Change Map. CCSS.CCRA.RL.3

Description.

Aligned with Standard 3, the following Character Change Map may be a useful tool as an after reading strategy in helping to scaffold instruction for the student who has difficulties constructing meaning from a narrative, and in identifying details pertaining to central ideas.

Table 9
Character Change Map

Character at beginning of story (What kind of person was he or she?)		What life-changing events occurred?	Character Traits at end of the story (What kind of person did he or she turn out to be?)	
Character Trait	Evidence	Why? What were the events that facilitated change?	New Trait	What happened to cause the change in the character/

Modeling.

Students who struggle may require a procedural implementation for completing graphic organizers. Using the template as a model, the teacher reviews the narrative, and shows the student how to complete the organizer by identifying the character traits of the main or secondary character, and work to find the evidence within the text. Next, they discuss the events that caused the character to change his behavior, and the teacher scaffolds the learning so that the student is well-positioned to provide textual evidence to support the claim that the character has changed. Finally, they discuss how the character has changed, and review the text once again to determine evidence for the claims. The completion of each of the sections employs a to-with-and by approach so that the student might be able to complete the graphic organizer when they reached the third section of the format.

Guided Practice.

Either the student or the teacher selects another narrative in which the character evolved and changed; this time the student attempts completion of the graphic organizer independently, as the teacher provides assistance as needed.

Independent Practice.

The student completes the organizer independently. If he exhibits difficulty, teacher provides support.

Next Steps.

The teacher shows the student how to write an essay on the character changes of the main character in the story.

<center>**The Importance of Anchor Standard 4 – The *Vocabulary* Standard**</center>

Vocabulary Instruction and Comprehension

The purpose of vocabulary instruction is to improve comprehension.

Children from professional families know more than three times as many words as their economically poorer counterparts (Hart & Risley, 1995). Thus, language progression is neither automatic, nor guaranteed simply because the student is promoted to the next grade. In 2014-2015, nearly 40% of ELs in CT were at the high school level. The need for students to engage in discourse about what they are learning is critically important for those for whom comprehension is difficult. Buehl (2011) warned that struggling readers who are challenged by the decoding of multisyllabic words will similarly find comprehension tasks difficult because of limited vocabulary. Vacca, Vacca, and Mraz (2011) stated that good comprehension presumes wide vocabulary, and that student knowledge of technical, domain-specific, or content area vocabulary is critically important for students to read and think in the disciplines.

Limited vocabulary will not necessarily impede student progress at the primary level because most the words that students encounter are familiar and are within their receptive vocabulary (Gunning, 2014). However, the demands for reading and learning from more content-laden texts from third grade on pose critical challenges for the older struggling reader and require systematic instruction so that they are well-positioned for success (2014). Too often vocabulary instruction is relegated to rote learning practices that require students to look up words in the dictionary, memorize the definitions, and construct sentences for the academic or content-specific word (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011).

Assign-and-tell practices are not only contradictory to current research, but are antithetical to the shift to contextualized and meaningful content area instruction, resulting in a fragmented to learning for those most in need. ELs and students identified for intervention require explicit modeling from the teacher, differentiation of the task, and scaffolded support, to grow into the next phase of literacy. As teachers attempt to leverage science, technology and math instruction with the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in the core curriculum, designing effective instruction to meet the needs of older struggling readers poses another challenge.

Academic vocabulary has been referred to as the "brick and mortar" of language (Dutro & Moran, 2003, cited by Gunning, 2014), and systematic instruction in vocabulary is needed for all students to grapple with the everyday tasks associated with reading, writing, thinking, and discussing. Students whose primary language is not English should instructed in the language that they will need to use in order to fulfill the requirements of the task.

Strategies Aligned with CCSS.CCRA.RL.RI.4

11. Knowledge Rating

Description.

Aligning with Standard 4, the *Knowledge Rating* is a pre-reading activity that provides students the opportunity to rate their knowledge of domain specific (Tier 3) vocabulary in advance of the topic (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011). In this way, the teacher can determine which words will require explicit frontloading, which words can be defined in the process of studying the topic, and the words that can be defined after the study of the topic. Not every word needs to be given the same level of importance, particularly if the student is familiar with the vocabulary (2011). The strategy is simple: Presented with a list of words, students rate their understanding of the word on a scale of 1-4 (from low to high). The strategy can be used for any content-specific vocabulary across subject areas. Naturally, ratings with a one or two would require explicit teaching of vocabulary.

Vacca, Vacca, and Mraz (2011) and Gunning (2018) advocate for using more than one strategy when working with struggling diverse readers and English Learners in domain specific subjects. Preteaching or frontloading dense domain specific vocabulary will help students to acquire the necessary vocabulary to navigate the challenges of the discipline. Therefore, using graphic organizers and visual aids to convey the meaning may be essential for student ownership.

Knowledge Rating Activity for High School Geometry Class

1. I never heard of the word.
2. I have heard of the word but I cannot define it and I cannot use it in a sentence.
3. I am familiar with the word and I think that I can define it.
4. I know the word and can use it in a sentence. (demonstrate my understanding of it)

Table 10
Knowledge Rating of Mathematical Terms

Rate your understanding of each of the following words from 1-4.

Tier 3 Vocabulary	1. I have never heard of the word	2. I have heard of the word but I cannot define it.	3. I am familiar with the word and I think that I can define it.	4. I know the word and demonstrate my understanding of it.
concave		x		
convex		x		
congruent			x	
equilateral			x	
centroid	x			
isoseles				x
function		x		
cosine		x		
bisector		x		

Table 11
Knowledge Rating of Literary Devices in an English Class

Tier 3 Vocabulary	1. I have never heard of the word	2. I have heard of the word but I cannot define it.	3. I am familiar with the word and I think that I can define it.	4. I know the word and can use it in a sentence
				x
Allusion				x
Bias				x
Assonance			x	
Flashback			x	
Hyperbole			x	
Imagery			x	
Irony/Satire			x	
Metaphor				
Personification		x		
Onomatopoeia			x	

Modeling.

After distributing the list of vocabulary words, have students rate their understanding. For words with ratings of (1) or (2), teachers should provide multiple opportunities for the student to grasp unfamiliar concepts through additional research-based vocabulary strategies. Additional

strategies designed to have students take charge of their learning include *Concept of Definition* and ***Semantic Feature Analysis***, described below.

12. Concept of Definition

(This section originally appeared in *Building Struggling Students Higher Level Literacy: Practical Ideas, Powerful Solution,* Collins & Gunning, Eds, 2010, p. 250-252). Reprinted with permission from ILA because this section is the author's original intellectual property)

Description.

A vocabulary strategy that empowers students to take charge of their vocabulary, concept of Definition (CD; Schwartz & Raphael, 1988, as cited in Vacca & Vacca, 1999), is both a process and organizational framework used to illustrate unfamiliar concepts, resulting in a user-friendly definition that is easily understood by the student. The vocabulary word to be defined is placed at the center of the graphic organizer; spaces for identifying the classification, properties, examples, and meaningful comparisons of the new term are categorized under the headings of "What is it?" "What is it like?" and "Examples." Critical to the process is the component of modeling so that students can actively participate in the meaning-making activity while learning how to perform the strategy independently.

The goal of the CD word map is for students to internalize the process of constructing definitions for unfamiliar vocabulary words and to provide them with a strategy for vocabulary acquisition that can be used independently for figuring out unfamiliar words. Though modeling is initially time-consuming, the strategy offers students a method to work through the process of defining unfamiliar words that can be generalized to the content areas of math, science, and social studies. In teaching the CD as a process for learning new vocabulary, students learn a steretagy for uncovering the hidden meanings of words, thereby heightening their conceptual awareness of nontechnical vocabulary. The process of crafting definitions stimulates critical thinking as students evaluate the merit of the synonyms and antonyms that they encounter in choosing words to define.

Vacca and Vacca (2008) caution against misusing the CD word map strategy by having students create definitions for entire lists of words, which is no more efficient than the mundane and antiquated task of writing sentences for vocabulary words.

Modeling.

For this section we have opted to draw from our own experience in using this strategy with middle school students. Karen (first author) distributed copies of an excerpt from "Me Against the World," (Shakur, 1998), and directed students to underline unfamiliar words which they identified as unfamiliar. See the sample CD map below for collaborative definition for the word "essence."

Guided Practice.

The classroom teacher and I divided the class into groups of no more than 3-4, giving each group two dictionaries and two thesauruses. After placing the selected word in the center of the word map, I directed students to find the definition for the word in the dictionary. Students read the definition and the following conversation occurred:

Student 1: [reading from the dictionary] The most significant element. I don't get it.

Teacher: Which word tells you what the term is? Which word is the noun?

Student 1:   Er . . .um . . . element?

Teacher: Yes. What's an element?

Student 1:   I know At least I think I know, but I can't explain.

Student 2:   [reading from the definition in the dictionary]. It says here that an element is a

               basic substance. The core of something. I guess that means what it is made of.

Teacher: Yes. So if an element is the fundamental part of something, then it refers to its

               qualities or attributes—its essence—the very substance of something. You might

               refer to the essence of a food.

Student 3:   You mean like the when the tiniest crumbs of a chocolate or vanilla cupcake still

               have the flavor of chocolate or vanilla?

Teacher: [nodding]. Something like that. Or the essence of someone's character.

Student 4:   Like John Canty's essence was that he was despicable in *The Prince and the*

               Pauper.

Teacher: Exactly. So what shall I write in this box [pointing to the first box under the

               category, What is it like?]

Student 1:   You should write the stuff that something is made of . . . the soul of something.

Student 2:   The basis of something.

Student 5:   The part of something that makes it what it is.

We completed the graphic organizer by identifying examples of essence. Students extended their thinking about the meaning of the word "essence" by linking the definition to John Canty's

character in *The Prince and the Pauper.* All students were familiar with Emeril, the well-known chef who developed an essence used to enhance flavor in meal preparation; thus essence became one of the examples. By the third example, students concluded that if John Canty's character was the essence of violence, then the *essence* of the character of Martin Luther King, Jr was integrity. As we worked to complete the CD word map, they realized that they understood the meaning of the phrase the most important element, which I wrote as the superordinate category above the focus word of *essence.*

Lastly, I showed the students how to construct a student-friendly definition of the word essence by transferring the fragmented information from the graphic organizer to a written paragraph. Transferring the language from the graphic organizer to a written paragraph, collaborative, definition for the word essence read as follows:

> Essence is the most important element. It is the basis, the quality, or the soul of something. It is the stuff of something, and it is the something that makes it what it is, like the smallest part of something. Examples of essence are the spice that Emeril puts into food. The essence of someone's character could be John Canty's violent nature in The Prince and the Pauper. The essence of Martin Luther King, Jr was his integrity.

Independent Practice.

Students select an unfamiliar word from another passage that posed difficulty, and worked to construct a word map of the definition.

Table 12
Concept of Definition Map
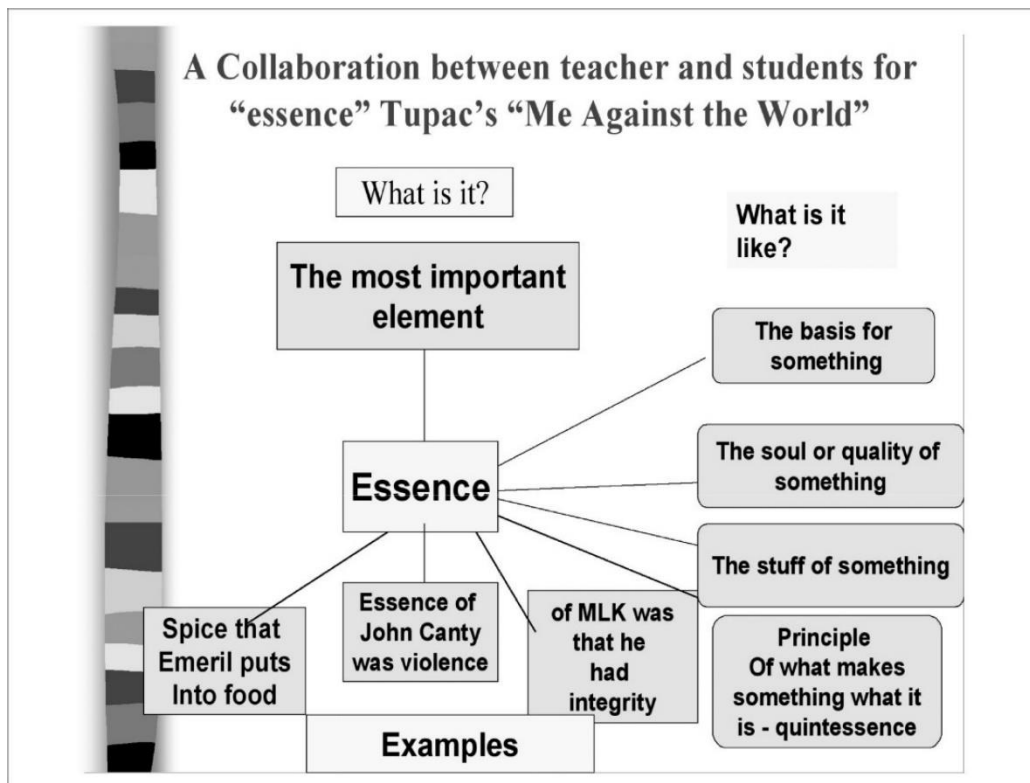
13. Semantic Feature Analysis

(This section originally appeared in *Building Struggling Students Higher Level Literacy: Practical Ideas, Powerful Solution,* Collins & Gunning, Eds, 2010, p. 246-247. Reprinted with permission.)

Description.

Semantic Feature Analysis (SFA; Vacca & Vacca, 1999) was used to help students build vocabulary through semantically similar definitions of previously known words. In SFA, the dictionary and thesaurus are used once again to in-crease word awareness of synonyms and antonyms in relationship to the char-acteristics of a person, determined through a character's actions in a story.

Characters, events, concepts, or terminology inherent in content area text are compared and contrasted in the SFA strategy (Vacca & Vacca, 1999), which requires the student to examine the similarities and differences of individual features that are written at the top of a grid. Items to be analyzed are written on the left side of the grid. Students conclude whether a concept or character il-lustrates the written feature and indicate their choice by placing either a "yes" or "no" or a plus or minus symbol in each square of the grid to indicate agreement or disagreement, as demonstrated in Figure 9.7. The strategy provides an excel-lent basis for establishing talking points within small- or large-group discussion and can easily be adapted for writing a comparison essay of the concepts and features of a topic. Finally, it is an interactive vocabulary strategy where the teacher can introduce new terminology through connections to familiar words.

Modeling. Once again using the graphic novel version of *The Prince and the Pauper* (Clemens, 2005), I asked students to list the names of the main characters in the story, which I wrote down on the left side of the grid. Then I asked the students to list a character trait for each of the characters. After talking about the actions and behaviors of the characters in partnerships, I encouraged the students to publicly share their discussions, whereupon they came to consensus in identifying an attribute that was correlated with the character's behavior and placed one in each of the boxes at the top of the grid. They agreed that John Canty was cruel not only because he beat his wife and his son, but because he also killed the gentle priest. I put the word *cruel* at the top of the grid and proceeded in a similar way until the students chose character traits for each of the characters based upon the character's actions in the story. All attributes were written at the top of the grid.

Guided practice—Day 1. I wanted the students to acquire additional synonyms for the mundane vocabulary words that had already been listed on the grid so I again divided the class into groups of four and distributed thesauruses and dictionaries in a procedure similar to the one used for the CD activity (Schwartz & Raphael, 1985, as cited in Vacca & Vacca, 1999). This time I in-structed them to find a synonym for *cruel*, a term that would enable the reader to visualize the extent of John Canty's miserable character. They determined that the word *bloodthirsty* was a synonym for the word *cruel*, so both words were placed in the same box on the grid. Now both words could be referenced for meaning; one familiar term paired with one new vocabulary word. Next, I asked the students to find a synonym for the word *noble*, which generated a list of other words including

moral, *aristocratic*, and *virtuous*. Students selected the word *honorable* to be placed next to the word *noble* on the grid. We proceeded in this fashion until students were able to select synonyms on their own. The completed grid included at least two synonyms in each box that the students would be able to reference and use interchangeably.

Guided practice—Day 2. After synonyms were listed for each character trait, I continued by having the students determine whether each character possessed the trait that had been established for another.

The students concluded that none of the main characters, including Tom Canty, the Prince, Miles Hendon, the whipping boy, or Father Andrew was cruel or bloodthirsty. Determinations were coded using the plus sign to indicate that John Canty was *bloodthirsty* and *cruel*, and minus signs to indicate that these traits could not be attributed to the other characters in the story. I followed this procedure until the students were able to carry out the procedure independently.

Independent Practice. Once students understood the process, I directed them to complete the grid by requiring them to cite evidence for their assertions. They alternated between arguing respectfully within their groups, conceding when they could not prove their statements, and coming to consensus in establishing the presence or absence of an attribute. I circulated within the groups to ensure meaningful participation and to eavesdrop on student conversations.

Application. The students were already familiar with the concepts of comparison and contrast so I told them to think of the SFA as a format for analyzing the characters and events through writing. Directing their attention to the first feature written on the grid, I facilitated a discussion of the ways that John Canty proved that he was *cruel* or *bloodthirsty:*

Teacher: How did John Canty show his cruelty?

Student 1:   He killed Father Andrew.

Teacher: He certainly did. What else did he do?

Student 2:   He beat up his son when he came home with nothing in his pocket or any food to eat. He wanted him to steal.

Teacher: What do you want me to write?

Student 1:   There were several examples of John Canty's cruelty in the *Prince and the Pauper*.

Student 2:   When his son came home without food or money his father beat him.

Student 3:   Don't forget that he killed Father Andrew.

Teacher: So, what shall I write?

Student 3:   Write down that Father Andrew died from the blow that he received from John

               Canty.

Teacher: [*after scribing the sentences*] How shall we show the transition from our statement that

                   John Canty is cruel to the pieces of evidence that proved what kind of person he was?

Student 3:   We could say, First of all.

Teacher: Yes, we could. Nice work.

Table 13
Semantic Feature Analysis for the *Prince and the Pauper*

	cruel/ bloodthirsty	honorable/ noble	generous/ magnanimous	kind/ sympathetic	teacher/ enlightened
John Canty	+	-	-	-	-
Tom Canty	-	+	+	+	+
Prince	-	+	+	+	-
Miles Hendon	-	+	+	+	-
Humphrey "Whipping Boy"	-	+	+	+	-
Father Andrews	-	+	+	+	+

14. Morphemic Analysis: Essential to the Teaching of Foundational Skills in Content Area Vocabulary

A morpheme is the smallest unit of meanings of a word, and comprise multisyllabic words, including compound words and words having Latin and Greek prefixes, many of which are found in the domain-specific areas of science, technology, engineering, and math. For example, the domain-specific science term *telescope* consists of two morphemes: *tele,* which means far-seeing, and *scope*, referring to an instrument for viewing. In similar fashion, the content-specific math term, *quadratic*, is comprised of two morphemes: *quad* refers to a square or a group of four things, and *ic* means *the condition of.* Morphemic analysis is the study of prefixes, suffixes, and root words. High quality instruction in morphemic analysis yields enhances vocabulary and comprehension in all students (Gunning, 2014). Goodwin and Perkins (2015) offer a morphological instructional strategy for use at the secondary level to support student acquisition of unfamiliar academic and content area (also known as domain-specific or tier 3) vocabulary for use with math and science texts, which aligns with the Anchor Standard 4: "determining or clarifying meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases by using context clues, analyzing word parts, and consulting general and specialized reference materials, as appropriate" (p. 51).

Utilizing the principles of effective vocabulary instruction, the instructional process begins with the deconstruction of a multisyllabic word through an analysis of morphemes (meaningful parts) that comprise the word, which has been extracted from a text. Students learn how to "break the

word down" (Goodwin and Perkins, 2015, p. 510) using their knowledge of affixes and roots to construct a definition, and then apply the word in context. Morphological instruction not only helps students acquire a strategy for discovering word meanings, but also fortifies them with a process for figuring out the meanings of unfamiliar words in a transference of this strategy to other contexts across the disciplines. Table 10 shows common prefixes, suffixes, and roots across the disciplines, but is not an exhaustive list.

Table 14
Common Prefixes, Suffixes, and Roots used in the English Language

Root or Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
a, an	not, without	atheist, anarchy, anonymous apathy, aphasia, anemia, anathema	Latin
ab	away from	absent, abduction, aberrant, abstemious, abhor	Latin
ambul	to walk	ambulatory, amble, ambulance, somnambulist, amble	Latin
ante	before	anteroom, antebellum, antedate antecedent, antediluvian	Latin
anti, ant	against, opposite	antisocial, antiseptic, antithesis, antibody, antichrist, antinomies, antifreeze, antipathy, antigen, antibiotic	Old English
audi	to hear	audience, auditory, audible, auditorium, audiovisual, audition	Latin
be	thoroughly	bedecked, besmirch, besprinkled	German
auto	self	automobile, automatic, autograph, autonomous, autoimmune	French
bene	good, well,	benefactor, beneficial, benevolent, benediction, beneficiary, benefit	Latin
cede, ceed, cess	to go, to yield	succeed, proceed, precede, recede, secession, exceed, succession	French/Latin

Root or Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
chron	time	chronology, chronic, chronicle chronometer, anachronism	Latinized form of Greek khrono-, comb. form of khronos "time, a defined time, a lifetime, a season, a while," which is of uncertain origin.
cide, cis	to kill, to cut	fratricide, suicide, incision, excision, circumcision	French and Latin
circum	around	circumnavigate, circumflex, circumstance, circumcision, circumference, circumorbital, circumlocution, circumvent, circumscribe, circulatory	Latin
clud, clus claus	to close	include, exclude, clause, claustrophobia, enclose, exclusive, reclusive, conclude	Latin
con, com	with, together	convene, compress, contemporary, converge, compact, confluence, concatenate, conjoin, combine	Latin
contra, counter	against, opposite	contradict, counteract, contravene, contrary, counterspy, contrapuntal	Latin
cred	to believe	credo, credible, credence, credit, credential, credulity, incredulous	Latin
cycl	circle, wheel	bicycle, cyclical, cycle, encliclical	Greek
de	from, down, away, off	detach, deploy, derange, deodorize, devoid, deflate, degenerate, deice	Latin/Old French
dei, div	God, god	divinity, divine, deity, divination, deify	Latin (meaning "lamb of God")
demo	people	democracy, demagogue, epidemic	Greek
dia	through, across, between	diameter, diagonal, dialogue dialect, dialectic, diagnosis, diachronic	Greek

Root or Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
dict	speak	predict, verdict, malediction, dictionary, dictate, dictum, diction, indict	Latin
dis, dys, dif	away, not, negative	dismiss, differ, disallow, disperse, dissuade, disconnect, dysfunction, disproportion, disrespect, distemper, distaste, disarray, dyslexia	Old English/French
duc, duct	to lead, pull, course or direction	produce, abduct, product, transducer, viaduct, aqueduct, induct, deduct, reduce, induce	Latin
dyn, dyna	power (powerful)	dynamic, dynamometer, heterodyne, dynamite, dynamo, dynasty	Greek
ecto	outside, external	ectomorph, ectoderm, ectoplasm, ectopic, ectothermal	Greek
endo	inside, withing	endotoxin, endoscope, endogenous	Greek
equi	equal	equidistant, equilateral, equilibrium, equinox, equitable, equation, equator	Latin
e, ex	out of, away, from	emit, expulsion, exhale, exit, express, exclusive, enervate, exceed, explosion	Latin
exter, extra	outside of	external, extrinsic, exterior extraordinary, extrabiblical extracurricular, extrapolate, extraneous	Latin
flu, flux	flow	effluence, influence, effluvium, fluctuate, confluence, reflux, influx	Latin
flect, flex	to bend or curve	flexible, reflection, deflect, circumflex	Latin
graph, gram	to write or writer	polygraph, grammar, biography, graphite, telegram, autograph, lithograph, historiography, graphic	Greek

Root or Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
hemi	half	hemisphere, hemiplegia hemipteran, hemihedral, hemiplegic, hemicycles.	Greek
hetero	other	heterodox, heterogeneous, heterosexual, heterodyne	Greek
homo	same	homogenized, homosexual, homonym, homophone	Greek
hyper	over, above	hyperactive, hypertensive, hyperbolic, hypersensitive, hyperventilate, hyperkinetic	Greek
hypo	below, less than	hypotension, hypodermic, hypoglycemia, hypoallergenic	Greek
in, im	not	inviolate, innocuous, intractable, innocent, impregnable, impossible	Latin
infra	beneath, below	infrared, infrastructure	Latin
inter, intro	between	international, intercept, intermission, interoffice, internal, intermittent, introvert, introduce	Latin
intra	within, into	intranet, intracranial, intravenous	Latin
jac, ject	to throw	reject, eject, project, trajectory, interject, dejected, inject, ejaculate	Latin
mal	bad, badly	malformation, maladjusted, dismal, malady, malcontent, malfeasance, maleficent	Latin/French
mega	great, million	megaphone, megalomaniac, megabyte, megalopolis	Greek/Old English
meso	middle	mesomorph, mesoamerica, mesosphere	Greek

Root or Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
meta	beyond, change, after	metaphor, metamorphosis, metabolism, metahistorical, metainformation	Greek
meter	measure	perimeter, micrometer, ammeter, multimeter, altimeter	Greek
micro	small	microscope, microprocessor, microfiche, micrometer, micrograph	Greek
mis	bad, badly	misinform, misinterpret, mispronounce, misnomer, mistake, misogynist	Latin/Germanic
mit, miss	to send	transmit, permit, missile, missionary, remit, admit, missive, mission	Latin
morph	shape	polymorphic, morpheme, amorphous	Greek
multi	many	multitude, multipartite, multiply, multipurpose	Latin
neo	new	neologism, neonate, neoclassic, neophyte	Greek
non	not	nonferrous, nonabrasive, nondescript	Latin
omni	all	omnipotent, omnivorous, omniscient	Latin
para	beside near, issuing from, against, contrary to	paraprofessional, paramedic, paraphrase, parachute	Greek
per	through, intensive	permit, perspire, perforate, persuade	Latin
peri	around, enclosing	periscope, perimeter, perigee, periodontal	Greek
phon	sound	telephone, phonics, phonograph, phonetic, homophone, microphone	sound
photo	light	photograph, photosynthesis, photon	Greek

Root or Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
poly	many	polytheist, polygon, polygamy, polymorphous	Greek
port	to carry	porter, portable, report, transportation, deport, import, export	Latin
re	back, again	report, realign, retract, revise, regain	Latin
retro	backwards	retrorocket, retrospect, retrogression, retroactive	Latin
sanct	holy	sanctify, sanctuary, sanction, sanctimonious, sacrosanct	Latin
scrib, script	to write	inscription, prescribe, proscribe, manuscript, conscript, scribble, scribe	Latin
sect, sec	cut	intersect, transect, dissect, secant, section	Latin
semi	half	semifinal, semiconscious, semiannual, semimonthly, semicircle	Latin Greek (hemi)
spect	to look, to see	inspect, spectator, circumspect, retrospect, prospect, spectacle	Latin
sub	under, below, close to	submerge, submarine, substandard, subnormal, subvert	Latin
super, supra	above, over	superior, suprarenal, superscript, supernatural, supercede	Latin
syn	together, with	synthesis, synchronous, syndicate	Greek
tele	distance, from afar, far off	television, telephone, telegraph, telemetry	Greek
theo, the	God	theology, theist, polytheist	Greek

Root or Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
therm, thermo	heat	thermal, thermometer, thermocouple, thermodynamic, thermoelectric	Greek
tract	to drag, draw, pull	attract, tractor, traction, extract, retract, protract, detract, subtract, contract, intractable	Latin
trans	across	transoceanic, transmit, transport, transducer	Latin
un	not	uncooked, unharmed, unintended	Old English/Old German
veh, vect	to carry	vector, vehicle, convection, vehement, convector	Latin
vert, vers	to turn, a line in writing, turned toward one	convert, revert, advertise, versatile, vertigo, invert, reversion, extravert, introvert	Latin
vita	life	vital, vitality, vitamins, revitalize	Latin

Number Prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
mono, uni	one	monopoly, monotype, monologue, mononucleosis, monorail, monotheist, unilateral, universal, unity, unanimous, uniform	mono
bi, di	two	divide, diverge, diglycerides, bifurcate, biweekly, bivalve, biannual	Latin (bi) Greek (di)
tri	three	triangle, trinity, trilateral, triumvirate, tribune, trilogy	Latin/Greek
quat, quad	four, crouch	quadrangle, quadruplets	(quat) German (quad) Latin

Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
quint, penta	five	quintet, quintuplets, pentagon, pentane, pentameter	(quint) Latin (penta) Greek
hexa, ses, sex	six	hexagon, hexameter, sestet, sextuplets	Greek
sept	seven	septet, septennial September (September was the 7th month on the old Roman calendar)	Latin
oct	eight	octopus, octagon, octogenarian, octave October	Greek
novem	nine	November was the 9th month on the old Roman calendar	Latin
non	nine	nonagon, nonagenarian	Greek
deca	ten	decimal, decade, decalogue, decimate (December was the 10th month on the old Roman calendar)	Greek
cent	hundred	centennial, century, centipede, centimeter	French/Latin/Italian
mill, kilo	thousand	millennium, kilobyte, kiloton	Latin – (mil) French – (kilo)
mega	great/ million	megabyte, megaton, megaflop	Greek
giga	billion/giant	gigabyte, gigaflop	Greek
tera	trillion/monster	terabyte, teraflop	Greek
milli	thousandth	millisecond, milligram, millivolt	Latin

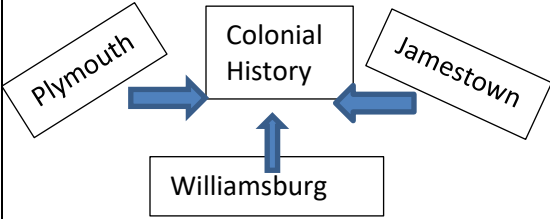| Prefix	Meaning	Examples	Etymology/Origin
micro	Millionth/small	microgram, microvolt	Greek
nano	billionth, dwarf	nanosecond, nanobucks	Greek/Latin
pico	trillionth/little bit	picofarad, picocurie	Old Spanish/Latin
femto	quadrillionth/fifteen	femtosecond	Danish/Norwegian

15. *THIEVES* - Aligns with CCSS.CCRA.RI.5 – Text Structure

Description.

Many students struggle with informational text by attempting to read at the beginning without giving a thought about reviewing the information strategically (Cummins, 2013). *Thieves* is a prereading strategy to help students gather the main ideas from content area materials by previewing the text features of a chapter or article, including sub-headings, boldface vocabulary, sidebars, in advance of reading the text (Cummins, 2013). Cummins described *Thieves* an acronym and a metaphor of a thief as he attempts to carry away something that does not belong to him; in using the *Thieves* strategy, students delve into the external text features of the chapter of article, and distill the most essential information, which then becomes the framework for deeper and richer learning. Pausing and summarizing throughout the strategy enables a gist that grows into a summary by systematically reviewing each section of the text. The strategy is actually a structured overview of the content so that students are able to glean information about the topic before reading the pages of the text. See Table 11 for a description of the acronym.

Table 15
Thieves Adapted from Cummins (2013)

T-H-I-E-V-E-S – the acronym	Questions to Ask Yourself	What Student Does
T – Title or Topic	• The title or topic of the chapter or article. What do you already know about the topic, and • What do you suppose the chapter will be about? • What do you think the author wants to tell you?	Jot down an idea or two. Think about what you already know about the topic. Draw a sketch about what you think the topic will include. Share your sketch with a partner.
H - Headings	• What are the sub-headings in the chapter?	Put the title of the topic in the center of a sheet of paper.

T-H-I-E-V-E-S – the acronym	Questions to Ask Yourself	What Student Does
	• What kind of information do you think you will read about based on the sub-headings? • How do the sub-headings relate to one another and the whole chapter in its entirety?	Around the topic list the other topics. You will see a semantic map take shape.
I - Introduction	Read the introduction to determine a sense of what they author will tell you.	• Does the introduction go along with the sub-headings in the rest of the chapter? • Or do you there is conflicting information between the introduction and the sub-headings? • What do you know so far? Write it down.
E – Every first sentence in each section	Read every first sentence in each section.	How does this new gathering of information build on to what you already know about the topic?
V – Visuals and Vocabulary	• Which visuals help you understand the content of the chapter? How do they help you understand the text? • Review the vocabulary words in boldface? • Look at the captions under the visuals. • Note sidebars, charts, graphics, cutaways, • Are there additional vocabulary words in the captions under the illustrations and graphics or maps?	• What new information can you add to your notes? • Which vocabulary is important to the understanding of the topic? • How did the visuals understand help to carry the author's message?
E – End of article or end of chapter questions	• If the article does not have questions, then read the last paragraph or two of the article. • How does the author conclude his discussion on the topic?	• What questions do you think the teacher will ask? • What are YOUR questions?
S - Summarizing	Thinking about all the information that you have skimmed, what do you think are the central ideas of the chapter?	• Are you ready to read the chapter? • Can you fill in any new information? • Did the writer do a good job of conveying the essential ideas of the text?

Modeling

In advance: Teacher creates a Thieves Bookmark for students and distributes it so that students have an organizational framework for proceeding and following the teacher. Teacher begins by

asking students how they begin to read informational text. Teacher explains the concept of previewing with the use of a text to which all students have access so that they can follow along. Text should be written at students' instructional level. Teacher models the art of previewing the *title* and each sub-***heading***, employing think-alouds to show the thought processes during the preview. Teacher says, "By reviewing the headings, subheadings, the sidebars, illustrations, captions, graphs, tables, and cutaways in a text, you can take away important information that you can use to predict the content that you will read about later on. After reading the *introduction,* teacher thinks-aloud the information as it relates to the headings discussed previously. Teacher reads ***every first sentence***, encouraging students to add to their fund of content knowledge by discussing with a partner and with the rest of the class. Teacher pays attention to the **visuals and vocabulary,** so frequently neglected during the reading of a text chapter, but which contribute to the layers of meaning that they author tries to convey. After reading the end of chapter questions or paragraph, teacher says, "Can you tell what the author wanted to say?" "How the author feels about his or her topic?" "How does the author feel about his topic? "How can you tell?"

Guided Practice.

Teacher divides the class into groups of 3-4 students in a revisit of the strategy, this time done in collaboration with the students using the same text or another article or chapter. Teacher encourages students to use post-it notes to glean information using the *Thieves Strategy Guide.* (Table 11). Teacher takes students through the Title, the Introduction, every sentence in each section, the headings (and sub-headings), the visuals and vocabulary, etc, except that she stops to have students collaborate with her as she encourages participation. Students jot down information using post-it notes, which they later share with partners and with the rest of the class.

Independent Practice

Students can select another short chapter of their own, or the teacher provides another article at the students' instructional level while students work in partners to complete the Thieves strategy on another topic. Teacher circulates, providing coaching when necessary until all the steps have been covered.

16. Text Structures
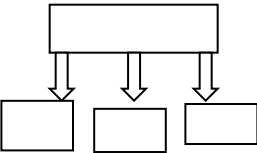
Description.

Text structure refers to ways in which content area text is organized. Perceiving the layout of text and knowing how the text is formatted can help the reader understand the relationships between and among information in a text (Gunning, 2018; Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011). The distinction between *internal text structure* and *external text structure* is important for students as they

preview, set purposes for reading, and demonstrate understanding of the content presented. *Internal text structure* refers to the organization or the layout of the text. The reader must read to understand how the ideas are presented in order to discern the relationships among the ideas in the text. *External text structure* refers to the table of contents, headings, sub-headings, boldface print, illustrations, captions, sidebars, cutaways, glossary, tables, charts, graphs, and other visuals included in the text.
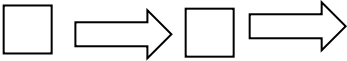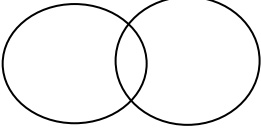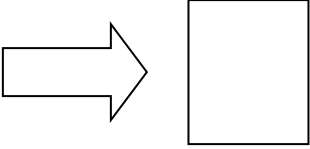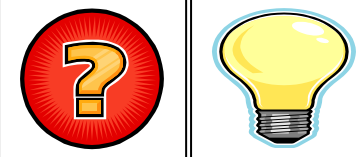
Although there are many different text structures or patterns, the five most common expository text structures are: *sequence, description, problem-solution, cause-effect,* and *compare-contrast.* Content area text is frequently difficult for many students to process because the varying structures and patterns can change from page to page, and even from paragraph to paragraph, particularly in content area text (Vacca & Vacca, 2008). However, explicit teaching of text structure has been shown to lead to improved comprehension of content area text (Cummins, 2013; Gunning, 2018; Vacca & Vacca, 2008). Table 14 aligns the specific text structure with the particular graphic organizer represented by the pattern, and includes transition words to help students determine the precise pattern.

Table 16
Five Common Text Structure Patterns in Informational Text and Transition Words

Text Pattern	Definition	Key Words
Description	Use language to help the reader form images or visual process.	Descriptive details – words like on, over, beyond, within, descriptive adjectives
Sequence	Present ideas or events in the order in which they happen.	First, second, before, after, finally, then, next, earlier, later, last
Comparison/Contrast	Discuss two ideas, events, or phenomena, showing how they are similar and different.	While, yet, but rather, most, either, like and unlike, same as, opposed to, as well as, likewise, on the other hand, although, the same similarly, opposites

Cause and Effect	Provide explanations or reasons for phenomena.	Because, since, thus, so that if . . then, therefore, nevertheless, due to, this led to, as a result, then . . so, for this reason, on account of, consequently.
Problem/Solution	Identify problems and pose solutions.	Purpose, conclude a solution, the problem or the question, research shows, the evidence is a reason for the statement.

Modeling. Teacher models how to identify the text structure in the following paragraph, which is projected on the whiteboard (or enlarged) to which everyone has access. Teacher underlines phrases pertaining to the reasons for the increase in the American economy in the years after WWII: The reason for the surge was because of an increase in government spending for highways, houses, and automobiles. The effects for the increase in the economy led to an increase in the population, in an increase in the number of people living in the suburbs.

The United States Economy after WWII

In the period following World War II, America saw a large increase in its economy from 1945 until the early 1970's. This era has been referred to as the *Golden Age of Capitalism*. The reason for the surge in the economy was most likely due to an increase in government spending, particularly after the Korean War in the early 50's, when highway and housing construction increased, which caused a rise in suburban living in which 18,000,000 people moved out of the city. At the same time the automobile industry gained momentum. During this time the gross national product (GNP) had grown more than seven times the rate of inflation. Family income grew as much in the decade after World War II as it had grown from 1900 - 1950. Annual family income, which averaged to be $2,000 per family during the early 40s, increased to approximately $8,000 by 1965. As income rose, population similarly increased, and poverty declined. In 1950, 30% of people in American lived in poverty, but by 1960 that statistic decreased to 22%.

However, in 1971, with the dissolution of the *Bretton Woods Monetary System, the oil crisis in 1973, and the stock market crash of 1973 and 1974, the United States entered a long recession, which lasted well into 1975.

*The Bretton Woods Monetary System, established in 1944, setting the gold standard by which the allied nations created their national monetary policy.

Effect: Surge in Economy
GNP grew
Auto industry increased
Annual family income increased
population increased
So the main idea is that the American economy increased during the decade after WWII. This text structure is cause/effect

Then a recession happened in the early 70's (Effect)
Cause: no more gold standard oil crisis and stock market crash

The United States Economy after WWII

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*The Bretton Woods Monetary System, established in 1944, setting the gold standard by which the allied nations created their national monetary policy.

Cause/Effect:
cause: increase in government spending
effect: increase in econom from 1945

This entire paragraph is cause and effect because there were several effects due to

Guided Practice.

Selecting another paragraph from a content area text that is projected on the whiteboard, the teacher collaborates with students in the identification of other text structures, reminding students to review the various graphic organizers for text structure, and the corresponding transition words that serve as cues to the type of text structure within the text.

Independent Practice.

Teacher selects a passage from the content area text and students work in partners or groups of three to identify the text structure(s) within the text. Students share out how they were able to identify the text structure, and if or how the structure helped them understand the meaning of the passage.

17. *Somebody/Wanted/But/So/* - Aligns with Anchor Standard 6 for Point of View

Description.
For students who have difficulty summarizing main and secondary characters' *point of view*, the Somebody/Wanted/But/So/And Framework (Adapted from Beers, 2003) helps clarify key features of literary text while highlighting character traits of the main characters. The paragraph frame provides a structure for summarizing the text through the points of view of the main and secondary characters. We recommend using a very familiar text, something that has already been read by the students. In this way teachers can delve directly into the modeling of the strategy. The purpose of using a very familiar story to show *point of view* is to provide easy access to the strategy so that the student can generalize implementation, and transfer the learning in grappling with more complex literary text. Use of a child's fairy tale to demonstrate the procedure is not

intended to oversimply the procedure or offend the audience. The choice of text would naturally be at the discretion of the teacher.

Modeling

Using the familiar *Three Little Pigs* as a model, (as shown in Table 15), the teacher models think-aloud summary statements from the point of view of the first and second little pigs, so that students can easily perceive the thought process of the teacher in the construction of a summary statement for each of the characters in the story. The scaffolding of the summary statements from the perspectives of the first and second little pigs is sufficient for students to be able to work in partners to complete the table from the point of view of the wolf.

Guided Practice.

Students work in partners to summarize a previously-read literary text from the point of view of the main characters. The greater the number of main characters in the text, the greater the number the points of view, which can also provide the grist for a meaty conversation.

Independent Practice.

Using a narrative from the student's own selection (or teacher's selection), students create their own point of view summaries.

Table 17
Somebody/Wanted/But/So/And to Summarize Point of View (from Waters, 2014, p. 17 adapted from Beers, 2003)

Scaffold	Somebody	wanted	but	so	and
Teacher modeling	The lazy first little pig	to spend his time having fun so he quickly built his house out of straw	the house wasn't strong enough	the big bad wolf huffed and puffed and blew the house down	the first little pig went to live with the second little pig.
Teacher modeling	The lazy second little pig	to spend his time having fun so he quickly built his house out of sticks	the house still wasn't strong to keep the big bad wolf away	the wolf huffed and puffed and blew the house down	both the first and second little pigs went to live with the third little pig
Collaboration between teacher and students	The hard-working third little pig	to live a safe and peaceful life so he built his	his brothers came a-knocking because they were afraid of	he let them in	They waited for the big bad wolf.

		house out of bricks	the big bad wolf		
Students complete in partnerships	The wolf	to eat the three little pigs	the pigs put a pot of boiling water on the *hearth of the fire place	the wolf went roaring from the house	he never bothered them again.

18. *Close Reading of a Visual Image* – Aligns with Anchor Standard 7. Adapted from Daniels & Steineke (2011).

Description.

The language for Anchor Standard states, "integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media formats" (NGA & CCSO, 2010, p. 10). The strategy focuses on the interpretation of a visual image: either a piece of art or a photograph.

In advance of the lesson, the teacher has divided an image into four sections. However, each section of the image is covered. Initially, the image is projected onto the whiteboard in its entirety for approximately 60 seconds. Teacher exposes one-fourth of the image at a time in one-minute intervals so that students can focus on one section of the image before having another view of the entire picture. The use of Powerpoint lends itself nicely to this activity. See Table 16.

The purpose of the visual image activity is to encourage students to participate in a close reading (and discussion) of a piece of art or photograph to determine its meaning. Students are asked to pay attention the details of the work: the shadows, the foreground, and background.

Teacher asks:

- Who are the characters?
- What do the expressions on the characters' faces tell you? What is the relationship of the characters? Do they *have* a relationship? What is happening in the photograph?
- What objects are the characters holding?
- What is going on in the background?
- Where are they?
- What is the time period?
- What is the time of day that the scene is happening? What is the season?
- What is the overall the tone and the mood of the image?

Students obtain a deeper meaning of the visual image when they view it in sections; ideally, the image reflects the content they are studying.

Modeling.

Teacher asks students if they have ever heard the phrase, "A picture is worth a thousand words." She explains that many historic moments are captured in photographs and in art. She goes on to say that they will have an opportunity to interpret a photograph and discuss its meaning, the photographer's intent, why it was taken, and that they will have an opportunity to interpret and evaluate the content of it.

The teacher projects the entire image on the whiteboard for one minute. Then she projects one quadrant at a time for 60 seconds, beginning with the lower left quadrant, proceeding with the upper left, upper right, and finally, the lower right-hand corner until each quadrant has been viewed for one minute. (As one quadrant of the picture is exposed, the other is covered).

One blank sheet of paper, folded in quarters, is distributed to students for this activity. As each of the quadrants of the photograph is exposed, students write or sketch on the matching quadrant on their own piece of paper.
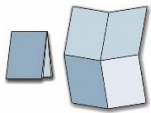
Guided Practice.

1. As each quadrant is exposed, teacher encourages students to write what they see:
    What are the characters doing?
    What are they holding?
    What do the expressions on their faces tell you?
    What is the time period? the time of day, the setting . . .
    What are their feelings? What is the tone and mood of the art . . .
    What is the relationship between characters (or among characters)?
    What the characters are doing? How do they feel?
    What is the setting of the picture? Where are they?
    What are the smells? The sounds? Is it quiet or noisy?

    For each quadrant the teacher repeats the prompts to encourage students to write or to sketch for students whose learning needs require differentiation.

Independent Practice.

1. After all four quadrants have been exposed, teacher allows the picture to remain for another full minute to allow students to finish their note-taking and to derive full meaning of the photograph.

2. Teacher asks students to a) give the picture or photograph a title, and b) draw conclusions about the image.

3. Students share out their titles as teacher jots them down for everyone to view. Students discuss their titles and conclusions with a partner. If the image has a formal title, teacher shares it with students and allows students to make comparisons between the two.

Below is an authentic lesson contributed by special education teacher Tanya Leonard and library media specialist Lori Ellis (2014) from Middlebrook Middle School in Wilton, CT. Adapted and printed with permission from the authors.

Background: Students have read Martin Luther King's "I have a Dream" speech, have discussed the essential ideas, and have acquired a context and background for the Civil Rights Movement. They have listened to some protest songs of the 60's, are familiar with Brown vs. Board of Education ruling of 1954, and have read about the 1955 Montgomery Bus Boycott, which are considered to be the catalysts for the Civil Rights Movement. They have seen the documentary *"Brother Outsider"* (2002) about Bayard Rustin, longtime civil rights and peace activists who organized the 1963 March on Washington. They are ready to draw conclusions about a visual image entitled, *Sit-In at the Lunch Counter,* a photograph taken at Woolworth's in May of 1963, which was staged as a protest by a university professor and his students.

Student Learning Objectives:
- Students will analyze and interpret a primary source document.
- Students will determine the importance of an image and explain how an image can tell a story, share an idea, or create change.
- Students will cite why an author, illustrator, or photographer uses images and describe how that image can cause a change in how others perceive a person of a different race or how it can start a movement of change.

Materials and Resources:
- Image of "Lunch Counter Sit-In" projected on whiteboard, in quadrants, to whole class
- Sheet of paper is distributed to students. Students fold it into fourths and use ¼ of the paper at a time for documenting their insights during the viewing of the image.

Introduction:
The teacher projects a picture of the 9th grade school fundraising activity. Teacher asks: what can a picture tell one about an event? How does it change the story? Why do people take pictures? The teacher explains that they will analyze an important picture taken in 1963.

Students will discuss why people of different races came together to make a change. In this way students gain a better understanding of how people felt and how people of a different race were being treated at this time. Students discover that pictures taken at this time helped to shape the Civil Rights Movement. The class discusses the importance of photographs for this time period.

Modeling:
Teacher projects the entire picture (#5) for a full minute. Then she projects the first quadrant and asks students what they think is happening? What period in our nation's history does the picture reflect? What are the expressions on the faces of the people in the photograph? What are they holding? What does this suggest? Where is the setting of the photograph? She follows the same procedure for quadrant #2, 3, and 4.

The teacher projects Quadrant 1 of the photo and uses a think-aloud while eliciting students' responses. The think-aloud is used to note what is being seen, what the teacher thinks is happening, what emotions are evident, and what predictions can be made based upon the photo. Students complete their note taking sheet to use as a guide for the next three Quadrants.

Teacher follows same procedure while exposing the scenes in quadrants 2, 3, and 4.

Guided Practice: The teacher projects Quadrant 2 of the photo. Teacher directs students to turn and talk with a partner to fill in Quadrant 2 on their note taking sheet by writing down what is happening in the photograph. What time period in our nation's history does the photograph convey? What is happening? What are people holding in their hands? What are the expressions on their faces? What objects are in the foreground? The background? Is everyone in the photograph involved? What is happening? The students share out with whole class.

Independent Practice: The teacher projects Quadrant 3 and asks students to "think-pair-share" responses on their note taking sheet. She repeats the questions used in Guided Practice. They follow the same "think-pair-share" procedure for Quadrant 4.

This routine draws on the idea of newspaper-type headlines as a vehicle for summing up and capturing the essence of an event, idea, concept, topic, etc. Teacher asks:

Teacher asks: *If you were to write a headline for this topic or issue right now that captured the most important aspect that should be remembered, what would that headline be?*

"Heroes at the Counter"

A second question involves probing how students' ideas of what is most important and central to the topic being explored have changed over time:

Teacher asks: Why do you think it was important for people to use images to start a movement during this volatile time in American's history?

Teacher distributes a copy of the news article that accompanied this photograph that was taken at Woolworth's Department Store in Jackson, Mississippi in May of 1963, and students review it in preparation for a closer reading of the article for the next day. News article can be retrieved at http://www.jacksonfreepress.com/news/2013/may/23/real-violence-50-years-ago-woolworth/

Table 18

Projecting a Visual Image One Quadrant at a Time
Adapted from Daniels & Steineke (2011)

Step 1: Show the image for 60 seconds as students interpret and evaluate it closely and carefully.

Teacher asks: What do you see?
Who are the people?
What are the expressions on their faces?
What is happening?
What are the people wearing?
What time period in our nation's history does this image depict?

Teacher asks: What do you see?
Who are the people?
What are the characters doing?
What is happening?
What are the expressions on their faces?
What are the people wearing?
What time period in our nation's history does this image depict?
What is the setting? Where is the event happening?
What time of day?
What season?

Teacher asks: What do you see now?
What are the people doing?
What do the expressions tell you?
What is happening?
What are they wearing?
What time period in our nation's
history does this image depict?
What is the setting? Where is the
event happening?
What time of day?
What season of the year is this?
What do you see in the foreground?
What do you see in the background?

Teacher asks: How does this last
picture provide clarification?
What do you see now? What are
the people doing?
What do the expressions tell you?
What is happening?
What are they wearing?
What time period in our nation's
history does this image depict?
What is the setting? Where is the
event happening?
What time of day?
What season of the year is this?
What do you see in the foreground?
What do you see in the background?

Now give the photograph a title. Then discuss your insights and conclusions with your partner.

Table 19
Responses from Students in Visual Image Activity: Heroes at the Lunch Counter

QUADRANT 1	QUADRANT 2
What do you see? What is the setting? What are the people holding? What are the expressions on their faces? What time of day is it? What time period is the setting for this photograph? What are they looking at? Why?	**What do you see?** A crowd of men are smiling and smoking. There is one African American woman who looks sad. There also seems to be an old drink fountain and posters in the background.
What do you think is happening? Men are talking and gathering as a group. They may be a group of friends? There is one man that is older than the other men in the crowd. They can be at a donut shop gathering together.	**What do you think is happening?** The men are being social and have gathered together and are happy to be there. I would think the group is gathering together for a happy occasion or lunch, but the African American women looks upset so I question if something is not going well?
What emotions are evident? The men look interested in what the man is pouring into the bottom part of the picture. They look happy to be together.	**What emotions are evident?** The men are happy and laughing. The African American women is sad but it is hard to figure out why.
Make a prediction or ask a question. The men are at a function? Maybe celebrating?	**Make a prediction or ask a question**. They are possibly at a store? Why are the men happy and the women is sad?

QUADRANT 3	QUADRANT 4
What do you see? There is one white male and one white women sitting at a counter. They have liquid on their heads.	**What do you see?** A counter from an old dinner or donut shop. A woman is holding her head.
What do you think is happening? It is becoming clear that the white male in quadrant 1 is pouring what could be milk shakes over the people sitting at a counter. The white men have gathered to tease or make fun of them. The large crowd of men that are	**What do you think is happening?** There are three people sitting at a donut shop being harassed by a large crowd of men.
	What emotions are evident? The white men are happy about abusing the people sitting at the counter. The African American woman

gathered are happy they are mistreating this man and women at the counter. **What emotions are evident?** SADNESS. The women is turned away and looks like she is talking to the African American woman, maybe to support her? **Make a prediction or ask a question**. Why are the white men in the crowd happy? The white man and women are supporting the African American woman. What are the thoughts going through the men gathered?	and her friends are upset on the way they are being treated. They seem to **Make a prediction or ask a question**. Why would a large group of white men be bullying an African American woman and her friends? Did they fight back? Did they leave? Where did this happen? Pictures were an important part of communication at this time. They helped people around the country see what was happening. It made an impact on what was really happening.

19. *Discussion Web* – Aligns with Standard 8

(This section originally appeared in *Building Struggling Students Higher Level Literacy: Practical Ideas, Powerful Solution,* Collins & Gunning, Eds, 2010, p. 246-247. Reprinted with permission.)

Description

The discussion web (DW) adapted from Alvermann (1991) is both a framework for thinking and writing and a cooperative learning procedure for evaluating alternative viewpoints in coming to consensus about an issue, a question, or a scenario related to a piece of fiction or nonfiction. Discussion Web is the precursor to argument writing. In discussion web students have opportunities to grapple with issues of morality and societal mores while questioning personal beliefs in an interactive format that encourages the burgeoning of students' ideas and dissenting opinions. As a graphic aid, the completed DW is a tool that represents multiple perspectives on an issue.

In DW, I posed a question that required students to evaluate the pros and cons of an issue through group discussion. Students read the text using sticky notes to identify the metacognitive strategies (R = reminds me of, T-S = Text to Self, T-T = Text to Text, T-W = Text to World, ? = question, G = gist, E = evidence, BK = Background Knowledge, P = prediction), while forming opinions about the issue, linking new information to background knowledge, discussing their perceptions with a partner, and writing down their thoughts on the DW graphic organizer. Students formed groups of four to arrive at consensus on the issue at hand through discussion and respectful argumentation that could be substantiated through textual evidence and connected to personal experience and background knowledge.

Reporters from each group stated the conclusions that evolved as a result of the consensus-building activity. My role became that of facilitator or scribe and mediator in converting oral conclusions to written statements on a master chart or transparency.

A follow-up to the procedure involved a response-to-literature activity to encourage students to retain their individual voices and safeguard opinion through extended writing, even after partner and group conversations had disbanded. We displayed student work on the bulletin board so that individual thinking could be celebrated and published.

Modeling. I began the lesson by asking the students if boys should play with dolls. Reactions from both the boys and the girls were strong and instantaneous, and in some cases unprintable within the parameters of a scholarly text: "Miss, you've got to be kidding. That's whacked!" I smiled and asked them to keep an open mind as I distributed the text *William's Doll* (Zolotow, 1972), a simple piece of prose about a boy's desire to have a doll, and his father who responded by giving him trains, basketballs, and tools. Ultimately the grandmother, who sees
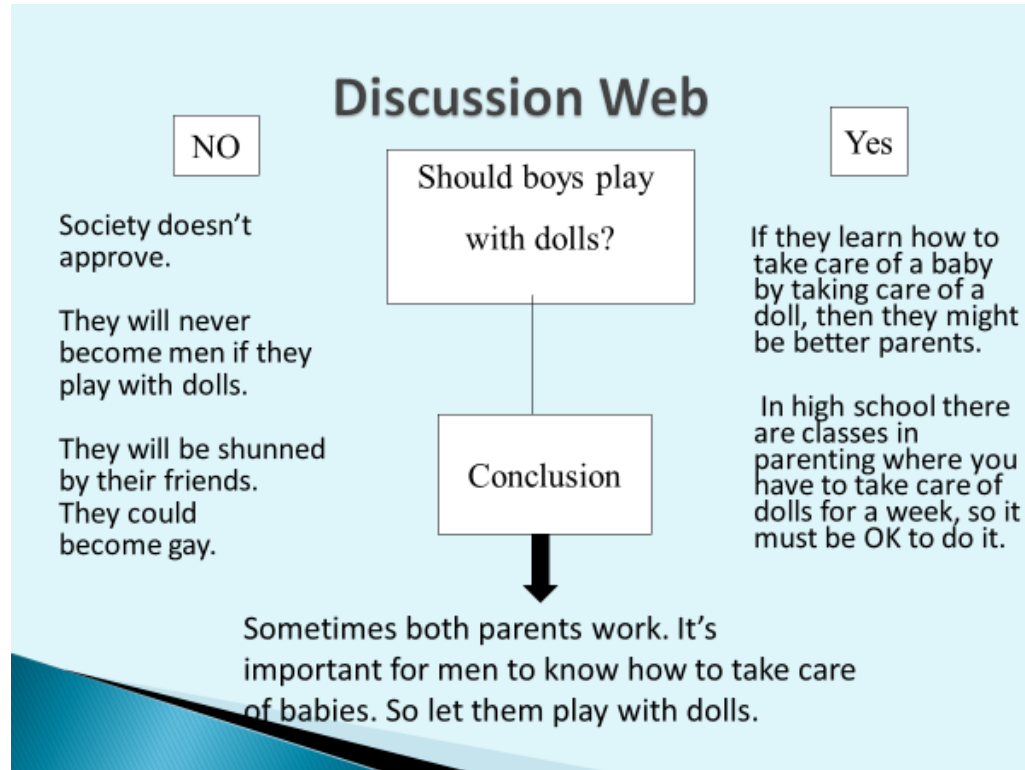
the value in preparing William for his eventual role as a father, gives her grand-son a doll, despite the father's protestations that William is going to become a "sissy."

Guided Practice. Following the reading of the text I posed the question once more: Should boys play with dolls? I directed them to talk in partners, which was an established routine by this time in our work together, and to write down both the pros and cons of having boys play with dolls on the DW graphic organizer provided.

The next step was to form groups of four and to continue the discussion using the same question, this time coming to consensus on the issue. Upon completion of this next step we came together as a group and constructed a collaborative response that considered both sides to the question (see Figure 9.5). Through group discussion and textual support, the students concluded (albeit, with reservations) that boys should be allowed to play with dolls. I posed an-other question to them following the completion of the collaborative discussion web: "Was the grandmother right in giving William a doll?"

Independent Practice. The next day I asked the students to use their previously completed DW graphic organizers to construct individual written responses to the following prompt: What was the father's response to William's grandmother upon learning that she bought William a doll? In extending the DW activity into writing, a context was provided for students' own voices to be heard be-cause the task required them to elaborate and make judgments about the theme, an objective aligned with current NAEP content strands and skills. Thus, regardless of the discussion that occurred during the consensus-building activity of the previous day, students were encouraged to assume individual positions in taking the conversation between William's grandmother and her son to the next level. See Table 18.

Table 20
Discussion Web

Discussion Web

NO

Yes

Should boys play with dolls?

Society doesn't approve.

They will never become men if they play with dolls.

They will be shunned by their friends. They could become gay.

If they learn how to take care of a baby by taking care of a doll, then they might be better parents.

In high school there are classes in parenting where you have to take care of dolls for a week, so it must be OK to do it.

Conclusion

Sometimes both parents work. It's important for men to know how to take care of babies. So let them play with dolls.

20. *Pointed Reading* - Aligns with Foundational Standard for Fluency.

Description.

(This section originally appeared in *Building Struggling Students Higher Level Literacy: Practical Ideas, Powerful Solution,* Collins & Gunning, Eds, 2010, p. 246-247. Reprinted with permission.)

Pointed Reading (PR; Beers, 2003), is a deceptively simple fluency strategy that can be compared with the simpler version of the shared reading approach (Holdaway, 1979) that has enormous implications for building fluency and comprehension at the secondary level. Fluency not only refers to the "ability to the ability to read accurately and quickly" (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2003, p. 22), but also implies intact efficient decoding skills that enable the reader to derive meaning by making connections between the content of the text and back-ground knowledge.

A finite amount of text is read three times, and the procedure works in this way:

1st Read: A short or shortened text is projected on the screen so that it is accessible to all students. Teacher provides a model of oral reading fluency, using appropriate expression and intonation as students follow along on their personal copies of the text.

2nd Read: Students follow along as the teacher reads the text a second time, this time highlighting six or seven phrases with which they resonate or connect. (Students love using highlighters, particularly the scented kind.)

3rd Read: Students read aloud with the teacher when they come to the portion of the text that they highlighted during the teacher's second read.

In using PR in the middle school classroom, Pointed Reading worked especially well with hip-hop prose, because the byplay between individual expressive interpretation and student selection of the phrases created a suspenseful and positive dynamic within the classroom. Citomer and Cirelli (2004) revised and edited many of the traditional "old school" suggestive lyrics of the hip-hop artists, and students don't even miss the profanity for an opportunity to rap in class building oral reading fluency.

During recitation, students wondered how many of their peers had selected the same phrases, resulting in a choral response, or if they would be reading alone during the third reading of the text. The strategy was particularly effective as a closure activity for comprehension lessons because the component of oral recitation gave students an opportunity to assimilate the oral and physical behaviors of their favorite rap artists and discover their literary voices. Following the third read, we encouraged individual students to read aloud the part(s) of the text that resonated with them and discuss the reasons for selecting a particular phrase.

Modeling. Teacher selects a piece of prose that is slightly above students' decodability level. Using hip-hop prose works well for this activity, which can also be used for a close reading activity. First reading: The teacher models by reading aloud the text while the students listen and follow along on their own copies.

Guided Practice. Second reading: Students select and highlight six or more phrases with which they connect personally as the teacher reads the text a second time.

Independent Practice. Third reading: Students chorally read aloud the portion of the text that they highlighted during the teacher's second reading of the text.

A Word About Foundational Skills in Literacy

We recognize that a great many students at the secondary levels may not have demonstrated mastery of the basic phonics skills. For that reason, we have included the six syllable types and the 37 most common rimes or phonograms, from which hundreds of words are built. By inserting these resources at the end of a white paper on effective strategies at the secondary level we certainly did not intend to send the message that the most fundamental literacy skills are non-essential at this level.

On the contrary, some students with diverse needs may only require targeted instruction in syllabication for a limited period of time. For others, additional reinforcement might also include further evaluation through informal or formal phonics or word recognition assessments to identify areas of decoding that warrant attention. Application of discrete skills through the practice of reading connected, relevant, and engaging text is recommended for helping the struggling secondary reader become fluid in problem-solving difficult text, on his way to fluency.

21. Phonics and Word Recognition – Aligns with Reading Foundations (RF)

Students who have not yet acquired the rudiments of print or phonics skills will require intensive instruction that can only be provided by the reading specialist or special educator. Additionally, a discussion of rudimentary phonics instruction is beyond the scope of this resource. However, a list of the six syllable types is provided (See table 19).

Additionally, a list of the most common phonograms (also referred to as rimes) from which word building emanates, is also provided (See table 20). Students who are still struggling with the common syllable types will require structured literacy instruction.

Students who struggle with decoding may find it helpful to begin with the common phonogram or rime and add various beginning consonant and ending sounds or change the vowel to make additional words. Gunning (2018) recommends *making words,* a strategy that uses the phonogram as the basis from which other words are built. For example, start with the phonogram "ack."

- Add a "t" to make "tack."
- Substitute a "p" to make "pack."
- Substitute "r" for "p" to make "rack."
- Add a "t" to make "track."
- Substitute "i" for "a" to make "trick."
- Substitute "u" for "i" to make "truck."
- Substitute "e" for "u" to make "trek."
- Start again using another basic phonogram.

Table 21
The Six Syllable Types (adapted from Haskins, 2006). Used with permission.

	Syllable Type	V = vowel C= consonant	Example
C	closed	VC [short]	at, but, van, mat, ham
O	open	V	he, we, hi, va/ca (as in va/ca/tion) mo (as in mo/tion)
V	*vowel team is The overarching term for digraphs and diphthongs	VV [digraphs = talkers and diphthongs = whiners]	[vowel digraphs]: (ai) rain, (oa) boat, (ea) seat, (ue) glue [vowel diphthongs]: (ow) cow, (au) haul, (au) out, (oy) toy
E	silent e	vce	ate, bite, white, race, rose, ruse, twice, came, breeze
R	**r-controlled	vr	sir, for, car, fur, her
S	final stable syllable	cle, le, tion, cious	stumble, action, delicious

The acronym for remembering the six syllable types is "covers." (Margie Gillis, personal communication, 2006).

**Story for using the r-control sounds: A little girl had a curl, and her mother cut the curl off and put it into a jar. Then she had: A j<u>ar</u> f<u>or</u> h<u>er</u> g<u>ir</u>l's c<u>ur</u>l. Halloran (2010)

Table 22.
Common Phonograms (Rimes) for Word Building

Phonics Instruction – Primary
(High Priority Rimes)

-ack	-all	-ain	-ake	-ame	-an
-ank	-ap	-ash	-at	-ate	-aw
-ear	-ell	-est	-ice	-ick	-ide
-ight	-ill	-in	-ine	-ing	-ink
-ip	-ir	-ump	-unk	-or	-ug

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Many resources were used and reused during the writing of this paper. However, some resources are worthy for recommendation and mention, particularly as districts are moving to put intervention systems into place in order to develop a common language.

Recommended Annotated Resources for Content Area Instruction and Intervention at the High School Level

Allen, J. (2004). *Tools for teaching content literacy.* Stenhouse

> This flip-book is fun, easy-to-use, and should be distributed to all content area teachers. Although it is over 10 years old, the strategies have proved their worth, are research-based, and cut across all content areas. Strategies for assessing and building knowledge include text structure, admit slips, story impressions, anticipation guide activities; strategies for supporting and monitoring comprehension are easy to implement, and students learn to evaluate, extend, and transfer content knowledge through RAFT, SPAWN, PORPE, GIST, and more.

Buehl, D. (2011). *Developing readers in the academic disciplines.* Newark, DE, International Reading Association.

> This is an academic text, written for the secondary level instructor who is eager to collaborate with colleagues in an interdisciplinary mode. Disciplinary literacy is defined, with a resource of real-life applications across subject areas.

Beers, K. (2003). *When kids can't read, What teachers can do.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

> This text is one that has stood the test of time as being a wonderful resource for working with struggling readers. Replete with step-by-step strategies for working with diverse learners including syntax surgery, somebody/wanted/but/so, the power of rereading, tea party, and others, it is a resource for morphemic analysis, (common roots, prefixes, and suffixes), and implementation quick strategies with immediate results.

Citomer, A., & Cirelli, M. (2004). Hip-hop poetry and the classics. Beverly Hills, CA: Milk Mug Publishers.

This resource includes a combination of old school hip hop classics edited for student and teacher use, frequently paired with traditional classical poetry including Shakespeare, Edgar Allen Poe, Shelley, Blake and more. Especially recommended for teachers of English.

Cummins, S. (2013). *Close reading of informational texts.* New York: NY. Guilford Press.

This text not only provides a step-by-step procedural implementation of many ways to read closely, but connects reading and writing strategies using similar instructional routines. Samples of student work make the strategies doable for teachers across disciplines and content areas. Easy-to-read, engaging, and very informative. Can easily be used for professional development at the secondary level, particularly for teachers who are not familiar with the integration of reading and writing.

Daniels, H. & Steineke, N. (2011). *Texts and lessons.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann

This text is perfect for high school content area teachers. Easy-to-implement strategies using short text (2-page articles). The reason for the two-page articles is to teach the strategy, not the content. Teachers may find it useful (and fun) to use this text to teach strategies, and then have students apply the strategy independently in another context in another subject. The authors explain the purpose of the strategy, the pitfalls, and why the strategy helps students to become independent strategists, and the authors have a sense of humor about explaining the instructional routines. There is a lesson for close reading of a visual text that can be used over and over again with the instructor's own visual images. Students love the lessons in this text. It is a must-have for content area teachers.

Daniels, H. & Zemelman, H. (2014). Subjects matter: Exceeding standards through powerful content-area reading.

This textbook presents reading as a collaborative activity across the curriculum: not to be missed is chapter 5: Tools for Thinking: Reading Strategies Across the Curriculum. Included in this chapter are strategies that can be used by every content area teacher in meaningful and effective instruction. Discussion of think-alouds, interactive read-alouds, frontloading with images, KWL, prereading Quiz, dramatic role play, vocabulary strategies, post-it response notes, annotating the txt, coding the text, multicolumn notes, sketching, and more.

Reed, D.K., Wexler, J., and Vaughn, S. (2012). *RTI for reading at the secondary level: Recommended literary practices and remaining questions.* New York: NY, Guilford

This is a textbook that includes a detailed plan for changing instructional practice, and delineates a systems approach for working with Tiers 1, 2, and 3 students. It includes a

checklist/survey in which teachers identify topics for professional development that cover all aspects of literacy: comprehension, vocabulary, writing, assessment, and more. Although the text itself is dense, educators and administrators will see themselves in this textbook, and the roles for content area teachers, special educators, and administrators are clearly defined.

Vacca, R., Vacca, J. & Mraz, M. (2011). Content area reading. Literacy and learning across the curriculum, 10th Ed., Boston, MA: Pearson.

This textbook is one of the best resources for identifying well over 200 strategies across grades, disciplines, and contexts. Samples for teaching science, social studies, English, art, foreign language instruction show that the responsibility of reading instruction resides with everyone. This text should be on every reading specialist's desk so that he or she is able to provide support to content area teachers for making the textbook accessible to all students.

Wood, K.D., Lapp, D., Flood, J., and Taylor, D.B. (2008). *Guiding readers through text: Strategy guides for new times*, Newark, DE, IRA.

Frequently, teachers assign pages to read for homework, and expect that students will or will not do the reading. Further, teachers often presume that students understand the information presented in content-laden textbooks. Or worse, teachers frequently do not explain the content that will be tested, and the student is left to his own devices for reviewing many pages of information in advance of a test. This book shows how to make text accessible to students by developing study or strategy guides, which takes the guesswork out of the processes of instruction and assessment. Once the student knows what he needs to learn, he is well-positioned to do well on the exam. One strategy after another is presented across the curriculum: Learning from Text Guide, Anticipation Guides, Reciprocal Teaching Guides, Point-of-View for science, social studies, English, and math.