CHAPTER FOUR

Reading Strategies and Dispositions

CORE QUESTION

To what extent does the child use early processing strategies and comprehension strategies during reading? How engaged is the child with reading?

LITERACY PROFILE Have your Literacy Profile on hand as you read through this chapter, and refer to the question in the left-hand column and the indicators across the columns for Strand 4.

"I figured out how to read that all by myself!" is a comment that signals both a milestone on the way to success as a reader and a sense of control and competence in the reading process. This kind of remark indicates that the child is being *strategic,* or using cognitive processes to solve a problem during reading. Such processes (or strategies), which allow a reader to figure out a word, phrase, or the meaning of what she or he is reading, are vital to the development of competent readers (Clay, 1991; Taberski, 2000).

Other hallmarks of reading growth that are related to the development of strategies include reading a lot, reading longer books, and exploring a range of different genres. We sometimes call these behaviors reading "dispositions" or "habits."

UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES OF READING STRATEGIES AND DISPOSITIONS

One important distinction that is helpful for understanding reading strategies is the difference between skills and strategies. Although the distinction between the two is not always clear, it may be helpful to think of *skills* as automatic, routine, and associated primarily with lower levels of thinking and learning. In contrast, Schumm (2006) describes *strategies* as processes that "are controlled by the reader, are metacognitive, are intentional, are flexible, and emphasize reasoning" (p. 229). Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris (2008) argue that there is a real need to clarify the differences between skills and strategies; they explain that "reading strategies are deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader's attempts to decode text, understand words and construct meanings

of text. Reading skills are automatic actions that result in decoding and compre-
hension, with speed, efficiency and fluency and usually occur without awareness
of the components of control involved" (p. 368). One of the important implica-
tions of this distinction is that skills (for example, recognizing letters of the
alphabet or recognizing sight words such as "would" and "should") can be
"mastered," but strategies (such as asking questions or visualizing during reading),
because of their nature, should be viewed more flexibly. One individual might
use one strategy in one situation, while another individual might use a different
strategy entirely, perhaps because of his or her purpose for reading, background
knowledge, or level of skill or because of the nature of the text being read.

Habits and dispositions of reading are not something that can be
"mastered," either. Instead, individuals develop and grow as readers often as
a result of the literacy environment that surrounds them. Because of this, it is
important for teachers to distinguish between loving to read and reading. As
teachers, we cannot expect mastery of "loving to read" (although we might
wish that we could!). We can, however, expect children to develop a habit of
reading or at least some degree of "breadth" and "depth" of reading. And we
can certainly *lead* students toward a love of reading.

In this chapter we will first consider what is involved in the development of
reading strategies, from early reading processing strategies through comprehen-
sion strategies, and then we will discuss reading dispositions or habits. Finally,
we will address assessment options and instructional considerations for each.

Early Reading Processing Strategies

Marie Clay (1991) defined reading as a "message-getting, problem-solving
activity, which increases in power and flexibility the more it is practiced" (p. 6).
A key part of such practice involves the use of *strategies*, which she described as
"mental activities, initiated by the child, to get meaning from text" (1993, p. 18).

Use of Three Cueing Systems During Reading. Processing strategies focus
on figuring out unknown words encountered during reading, and good read-
ers need to use a variety of cues, or sources of information (Goodman, 1996):

- *Phonological and visual/orthographic information:* the sound system of
  language (phonemes/sounds in words) and the orthographic system of
  language (letters, letter clusters, and patterns)—and how they work
  together to form words
- *Language structure:* patterns or rules by which words are put together into
  meaningful phrases and sentences
- *Meaning:* background knowledge, and understandings of word meanings
  and how stories and other texts work

Noticing how beginning readers start to use these early strategies is fascinating.
Each child is different, and while one child might begin by relying almost
entirely on pictures and other meaning cues, another child may rely primarily
on visual cues, trying to "sound out" every word, even sight words as irregular
and tricky as "through." On the Literacy Profile, this variability in the use of
strategies is reflected in the descriptors for late kindergarten: "Begins to use more
than one cuing system to read." See Figure 4.1 for a list of sample early reading
processing strategies that beginning readers use. Soon, though, most children
learn that they need to use these sources of information in combination.

This leads to what is called "cross-checking," which simply means check-
ing one source of information against another source (Goodman, Watson, &
Burke, 1987; Smith, 1978). For example, a child who is learning to read might
read the sentence, "I can run up the hill" as "I can *read* up the hill" but then

FIGURE 4.1 **Sample Processing Strategies**

- Tracking print from left to right
- Noticing patterns in text (e.g., "said the bear")
- Using pictures to predict the story and subsequent words
- Attending to orthographic and phonemic information (letters and letter clusters at the beginning, middle, and end of words)
- Noticing similarities between a known word and an unknown word
- Looking through a word to its end
- Monitoring and self-correcting
- Using meaning, structure, and print cues simultaneously
- Rereading to clarify meaning
- Skipping a word and returning to it
- Using context clues to figure out the meaning of an unfamiliar word

cross-check his use of visual information (i.e., the beginning sound of "run") with another source of information (e.g., meaning) by asking himself, "Does that make sense?" In other words, in order to cross-check, students need to monitor how well their reading strategies are working together (e.g., whether what *looks right* also *makes sense or sounds right*). Eventually they will learn to self-correct when cross-checking alerts them to a mismatch.

Use of Self-Correction During Reading.   When beginning readers self-correct, they sometimes (but not always) tell us why they did so. For example, Andrew, a first-grade reader who was initially overrelying on meaning and not paying much attention to visual and phonics information, misread by saying, "I'll fix your *house*" instead of the *actual* text, "I'll fix your *walls*," and then commented, "Uh-oh—that can't be *house*—there's no '*h*.'" Clearly Andrew's cross-checking resulted in a self-correction.

The use of self-correction often follows a predictable route. Self-correction is rarely evident with *very* beginning readers (Clay, 1978). Then, usually some time early in first grade (for typically developing children), self-correction begins to appear. Later, however, self-correction is not as evident because as children develop competence, they begin to self-correct silently, "inside their heads," before they utter the mistake. You will notice on the Literacy Profile that self-correction is not listed until late first grade/early second grade.

Marie Clay (1978) found that high-progress readers self-correct more than twice as frequently as low-progress readers, but, as mentioned previously, she also noticed that self-correction tends to become "invisible" after a point. In other words, processing strategies eventually become largely unconscious, at which point children use them silently and as needed during reading. You should keep this in mind when observing developing readers.

How do these strategies get under way? Children usually acquire these strategies as a result of lots of modeling and guided practice by a teacher, parent, or other more skilled reader. Vygotsky (1978) termed this sort of assistance "scaffolding," a critical concept in terms of teaching and learning in a variety of domains. The authors of this book have often thought of literacy scaffolding as being similar to the scaffolding that surrounds buildings as they are being constructed; you may find this a useful comparison, too. For example, think about the kinds of support (or scaffolding) children need before they can begin to use an index to locate information. A source of assistance or scaffolding might be a teacher or a parent first modeling how to find the index and use it and then, with a bit of coaching, giving the child a chance to try it on his or her own.

Some of the earliest strategies children need to get started include tracking print from left to right, using a picture to figure out a word, predicting

what an upcoming unfamiliar word might be, and using their familiarity with one word to decode a word that is similar to the familiar one. Later, students need to learn how to use context clues to figure out the *meaning* of unfamiliar words. If teachers provide children with the key conditions needed for learning (e.g., Cambourne's conditions), the likelihood that children will develop effective processing strategies is much greater.

This stage of beginning to read—learning to flexibly use processing strategies—often includes both excitement and hard work. Some describe this stage of reading as a juggling act; others compare it to conducting an orchestra, since children must simultaneously use several processes and strategies to figure out a text's message.

Next we turn our attention to comprehension strategies. It is important to recognize that even though we discussed early reading strategies first, in your classroom you should focus on both sets of strategies. Emphasis will shift from one grade to the next, however, because teachers need to pay less attention to processing strategies when students enter the intermediate grades.

Cambourne's conditions were outlined in the introductory chapter (pp. 5–6); now might be a good time to review them.

Comprehension Strategies

While it seems obvious to adults that thinking while reading is essential to understand what we read, it is often not obvious to children who are just beginning to learn to read. The National Reading Panel (2000) strongly recommends teaching reading comprehension strategies in order to strengthen children's reading abilities and identified six key strategies:

- Monitoring comprehension (i.e., noticing when a child's understanding is disrupted), and teaching rereading or "chunking" strategies to help the child remedy the situation
- Using graphic organizers (e.g., maps, webs, charts)
- Generating questions (when *children* ask questions before, during, and after reading)
- Answering questions
- Recognizing story structure
- Summarizing

Others (for example, Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Keene & Zimmerman, 1997; Pearson & Duke, 2002) include other strategies such as predicting, inferring, making connections, and using text-structure clues to identify organizational patterns in text—all of which should be used flexibly to increase comprehension. See Figure 4.2 for a list of commonly used comprehension strategies.

FIGURE 4.2 **Sample Comprehension Strategies**

- Stopping to think
- Predicting during reading
- Visualizing during reading
- Thinking about what the author is trying to say
- Making connections
- Asking questions during reading (e.g., to enhance understanding, solve problems, etc.)
- Making inferences (e.g., to connect ideas, fill in information to make sense of unstated ideas)
- Self-monitoring/regulating to correct comprehension difficulties
- Summarizing during or after reading
- Evaluating (making judgments about the text, forming opinions, or determining author's purpose)

You can find another list of reading comprehension strategies, with helpful descriptions of strategies and guidelines for comprehension strategy instruction, in *Teaching Reading Beyond the Primary Grades*, by Marjorie Lipson (2007).

By "text-structure" clues, we mean the words or phrases that authors use to organize their thoughts in expository text. For example, when an author is writing a paragraph that compares one thing to another, he or she often uses "signal" words and phrases such as "however," "different," and "on the other hand"; but when an author is using a sequential text pattern, he or she uses words and phrases such as "to begin with," "next," and "finally." Snow (2002) urges teachers to introduce as early as kindergarten strategies for understanding expository text. We will present more information about using "signal" words for different text patterns later in this chapter and also in chapter 6.

How do readers use comprehension strategies? Most of us tend to use a combination of comprehension strategies, usually when the text presents enough challenges that we truly *need* to think as we read. Because of this, many researchers (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Lipson, 2007; Pressley, 2002) encourage teachers initially to present an entire set of comprehension strategies. Then, as needed, teachers may focus on and explicitly teach individual strategies one by one.

Children often need extensive support in using strategies flexibly and in developing a "repertoire" of tools that they can use across a variety of texts and genres. If we spend 4 months teaching students how to use a particular strategy such as making connections, and then spend another 4 months teaching them how to use predicting, they may very well forget about making connections, thinking we have *moved on* to predicting and eliminated the need to use the making connection strategy!

It is particularly important when teaching comprehension strategies to use the "gradual release of responsibility" model (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983), which includes teacher modeling and explanation, guided practice, and independent practice with feedback. Too often commercial (basal) reading programs include minimal or only intermittent opportunities for modeling and guided practice; a teacher thus needs to look carefully at the program's teacher's manual to discover when to supplement the provided modeling and demonstration as well as when to supply guided practice (Dewitz, 2006). Unless teachers provide sufficient modeling and include ample opportunities for guided practice strategies, children will have difficulties internalizing the strategies.

You may want to refer back to the introductory chapter for a more complete description of the gradual release of responsibility (pp. 6–7), a key principle of instruction.

Reading Dispositions

If children have learned the necessary skills and strategies to be good readers but don't read much, what is the point of teaching the skills and strategies? Because not all children are active or eager readers, it is important for teachers to think about the dispositions or habits of developing readers as they grow. Several different aspects of reading dispositions or habits are useful to consider. First, keep in mind that children need to read a lot and build their *stamina*, by which we mean the ability to sustain their reading and concentrate as they read for increasingly longer periods of time. A great deal of research shows that children who read more also achieve more (Allington, 2006; Anderson, Wilson, & Fielding, 1988).

In addition to increasing the amount they read, we also know that children need to feel comfortable reading a range of genres. It is perfectly normal (and also desirable!) for students to get "hooked" on a particular topic, author, or series (for example, the Magic Tree House books), but we also want to make sure that children read books with some degree of diversity, particularly when they enter the intermediate grades.

You should also consider children's attitude toward reading. As Paris, Lipson, and Wixson (1983) assert, in order for children to become effective readers and writers, they must demonstrate both *skill* and *will*. The "will"

part, involving personal perceptions, interests, and attitudes, is clearly influenced by family and cultural factors. What others (i.e., family, classmates, teacher, members of the community) think about reading and how a child perceives her effectiveness as a reader will significantly impact both her attitude toward reading and her reading behaviors.

Summary of Reading Strategies and Dispositions

This section provided some background information concerning reading strategies and dispositions. We distinguished between early reading strategies and comprehension strategies as well as discussed several aspects of reading dispositions. Two important points to keep in mind while assessing children's reading strategies are the developmental nature of early processing strategies and the flexible nature of comprehension strategies. Afflerbach et al. (2008) offer some concise, helpful advice: "The general rule is, teach children many strategies, teach them early, reteach them often, and connect assessment with reteaching" (p. 371). Reading habits and dispositions include a variety of factors such as stamina and breadth and depth of reading. In the next section we discuss methods of assessing reading strategies and dispositions to guide instruction and classroom practice.

ASSESSING READING STRATEGIES AND DISPOSITIONS

Compared to the other strands listed in the Literacy Profile, reading strategies and dispositions may be one of the more "elusive" strands to assess because reading strategies and dispositions are not quite as "visible" as some other aspects of reading and writing. Nevertheless, a number of ways to assess these dimensions of reading are available, and it is important to assess this key dimension of reading.

Formal or Published Measures for Assessing Reading Strategies and Reading Dispositions

Most resources for assessing reading strategies and dispositions are informal, but several published tools are available for practitioners to use. Many of these assessments are multidimensional and help teachers gather information about other aspects of reading such as decoding and comprehension as well as children's use of strategies during reading.

Tools That Include Assessment of Reading Strategies. A number of informal reading inventories and other published assessments provide procedures to evaluate children's use of reading strategies. Most of these tools prompt teachers to *analyze* students' use of strategies after recording oral reading and students' behaviors while reading. Most assessment tools provide some sort of scoring guide such as a checklist to help teachers know what to look for as they analyze the children's oral reading. For example, both the Rigby PM Benchmark Kit (Rigby Education, 2001) and the Developmental Reading Assessment (Beaver, 2003) provide short books and passages at increasing levels of difficulty for children to read. A checklist of student behaviors prompts teachers to notice student behaviors such as using picture cues or adjusting intonation in response to ending punctuation.

At upper levels (Grades 4 and up), the DRA2 (Beaver & Carter, 2006) includes a section that evaluates the degree to which children use comprehension strategies. This component, called "metacognitive awareness," refers to an individual's ability to think about, or reflect on, his or her own thinking and how well it is working. On the DRA, students are prompted to

check off the comprehension strategy they used while they read and give an example of how they used that strategy to help them understand the text selection. The DRA provides a scoring guide (or rubric) ranging from "vague explanation of the use of one strategy" to "effective explanations of the use of more than one strategy; explicit examples from the text" to facilitate teachers' evaluation of children's responses.

Tools That Assess Reading Dispositions. A few published tools are available to help teachers evaluate students' reading dispositions. One frequently used measure is the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey (McKenna & Kear, 1990), which uses *Garfield* cartoon figures to find out children's attitudes toward reading at home and at school. Items may be read aloud to primary-level children, who then indicate the Garfield figure (shown as excited, okay, not so okay, not happy) that best matches their own feelings. For example, in one item the teacher asks a child: "How do you feel when you read out loud in class?" The child then circles one of the four choices. The teacher can calculate two subscores (recreational and academic) and a total "reading attitude" score using this measure.

Another resource that gauges students' perceptions of reading is the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996), which includes a written survey and a conversational interview. This assessment, which is appropriate for children in second through sixth grade, provides separate scores for "self-concept as a reader" and "value of reading." This breakdown of scores can be particularly useful when planning interventions for students who demonstrate low motivation for reading. For example, if you find out that a third- or fourth-grade child has a low "value of reading" score but a high "self-concept" score, you might decide to set up partner-reading sessions and match that child with an older child or an adult whom the child regards highly. You might also locate reading materials of high interest and utility, such as sports magazines or video game directions, to attempt to increase the value the child places on reading.

An assessment tool that provides information about students' exposure to print is the Title Recognition Test—Primary Level (McDowell, Schumm, & Vaughn, 1993). The format of this assessment task involves giving children a list of book titles, some of which are the titles of real, well-known books (e.g., *Amelia Bedelia*) and some of which are the titles of books that aren't real (e.g., *The Haunted Hallway*). Children are asked to check off which titles belong to *real* books, which indicates the students' breadth of reading experience. Because several of the real books on the list are those that many kindergarteners and first graders may not yet have been exposed to, we consider this assessment to be more appropriate for students at the second-, third-, and fourth-grade levels. The results of this assessment might help guide interventions such as "book immersion" (e.g., setting up daily opportunities for extra read-alouds or partner reading) for children whose results indicate that they have had little previous exposure to books and reading.

Informal Measures for Assessing Reading Strategies and Reading Dispositions

Running records, records of oral reading, miscue analyses, vocabulary probes, and anecdotal notes are effective and valuable ways to gain insight into children's use of processing strategies during reading. By analyzing what the student is and is not doing during oral reading, the teacher gains insights that he can then use to tailor instruction in effectively using reading strategies.

Running Records, Records of Oral Reading, and Miscue Analysis. Running records, developed by Marie Clay (1985), involve recording and analyzing a child's reading behaviors and strategies during oral reading. When taking a running record, the teacher listens carefully to the child as he or she reads aloud, makes a check mark on a sheet of paper for each word read accurately, and uses other symbols to note other reading behaviors and strategies used or not used. See Figure 4.3 for Fountas and Pinnell's (1996) chart depicting the common conventions used in taking running records. Some teachers add additional notation to indicate when a child is sounding out a word ("th-i-ck") or pausing (//). Neither of these behaviors is counted as an error because they indicate the child's problem solving.

Willa reads orally while a teacher takes a running record.

Running records can help determine the student's reading accuracy and whether or not the text is at the appropriate level for the child. Guidelines of what percent of accuracy is appropriate for independent reading and instructional-level reading vary across sources, but nearly all sources agree that when a student's oral reading accuracy is below 90%, that text is frustrating for that particular student. (*Note:* The nature of independent, instructional, and frustration levels during oral reading will be discussed more in chapter 5.) Running records also provide highly useful and timely information concerning children's use of processing strategies, and we will provide examples later in this section.

Records of oral reading, although similar to running records, involve the use of a printed script of text. For ease of use, several commercial assessment companies provide printed "records of oral reading" scripts of passages to be used during assessment. Although you may find records of oral reading easier to use at first, it is good practice to learn how to take a running record without a script, since that will allow you to closely observe children's oral reading behaviors and strategies at *any* point in time.

An excellent resource to learn more about taking running records is Peter Johnston's *Running Records: A Self-Tutoring Guide* (2000).

As noted earlier, besides recording the accuracy of oral reading, running records provide an ideal opportunity to make qualitative observations of how effectively children are using reading strategies. Looking carefully at the positive reading behaviors that children display as well as their miscues (or errors) allows teachers to notice how the process of reading is developing. Even more important, this kind of *miscue analysis* allows teachers to decide what kind of instruction is needed to support particular students *at that point in time.*

To analyze running records, teachers should do two things: They need to note the *positive behaviors* that facilitated accurate, fluent, and meaningful reading, and they also need to analyze children's *errors or miscues*.

Analyzing Running Records: Positive Behaviors to Be Observed. When we first learn to do something (such as drive a car or ride a bike), it is important for the person who is helping us learn to notice, or call attention to, what we are doing *right* so that we can keep on doing those correct things. When children are learning to read, the same principle holds true. Positive behaviors

FIGURE 4.3 **Running Records Conventions**

Coding a Running Record		
Behavior	**Code**	**Description**
Accurate Reading	√ √ √ √ √	Record a check for each word read accurately. The line of checks matches the layout of print.
Substitution	attempt / text attempt | attempt | attempt / text	The reader's attempt is placed over the accurate word on a line. When the child makes multiple attempts, each is recorded above the line with a vertical line in between.
Told	— / text | T	When the reader makes no attempt, he is instructed to try it. If there is no attempt, the word is told and a T is written below the line.
Appeal and Told	— | A | √ / text | — | √ √ √ √ √ — | A | / text | — | T	The reader's appeal, either verbal or nonverbal, is recorded with an A above the line. If the child reads correctly, a check is made. If the child makes an attempt it is recorded above the line; if he doesn't or it is incorrect a "told" is recorded.
Omission	— / text	A dash is placed on a line above the word in the text.
Insertion	word / —	The word inserted by the reader is placed above the line and a dash is placed below.
Repetition	√ √ √ √ R √ √ √ R √ √ √ √ R2	Place an R after a single word repeated; for a phrase or more of text repeated draw a line to the point to which the child returned. The number indicates number of repetitions.
Self-Correction	√ √ attempt | SC √ √ R / text	The symbol SC following the child's corrected attempt indicates SC at point of error. A small arrow can be used to indicate that the SC was made on the repetition.

to look for when observing very early readers (usually those at the kindergarten or first-grade level) include:

- Tracking print with his/her finger
- Going back to reread
- Getting a running start (i.e., returning to the beginning of a line or sentence)
- Noticing that something is not quite right
- Trying different sounds for a letter or combination of letters
- Taking off the beginning or ending of an unfamiliar word to see whether the remaining word is familiar
- Thinking about a word that is similar to an unknown word

Errors or Miscues. It is equally important to look closely at what happens when children are *not* reading accurately. When analyzing errors (which are called *miscues*), teachers compare what the student said (e.g., "house") with the actual text (e.g., "home") and write "M" (for "meaning"), "S" (for "structure"), and "V" (for "visual," which includes the use of both orthographic and phonological information) near the miscue (what the child said). Then teachers ask themselves, "What sources of information did the child use when he/she said the miscue?" and circle one or more of the letters (M, S, or V) to indicate which sources of information the child used.

To decide whether the student used meaning cues, the teacher asks herself, "Did the student pay attention to the meaning of the text? Did what the student read make sense?" If so, she circles the M. To decide whether the student used structure or language cues, the teacher asks, "Is what the child read syntactically/grammatically acceptable? Did it sound like language?" If so, she circles the S. Finally, to decide whether the student used visual information, the teacher asks whether the student used the visual information in the printed text—more than just minimally. If so, the teacher circles the V.

Let's consider a few examples using the sample record of oral reading displayed in Figure 4.4. The child (Maria) who read this text made quite a few errors (her oral reading accuracy was 89%), but she did self-correct about a third of her errors, which was encouraging. Looking more closely at her errors, we can see some patterns. For example, in the first sentence, Maria read, "a few house later" instead of "a few hours later" but then, at the end of the sentence, she realized her error and made a self-correction. To analyze her errors and self-corrections, we asked ourselves: what information did she use when she first said, "house"? We decided that she was primarily using visual information. We did not circle M because "a few house later" does not make sense. We did not circle S because Maria's sentence does not sound like language, either. In the next column, we thought about what information Maria probably used as she self-corrected. We circled both M and S because it appeared that she'd gone back to correct her error after she recognized that "a few house later" does not make sense or sound right.

Next, let's look at the last error on that page—where Maria came to the word "harbor" and appealed to the teacher for help. The teacher then told her the word. Because it was not possible to observe any sources of information that Maria used—i.e., she didn't say anything—we couldn't circle M, S, or V. Finally, let's consider the last error that Maria made, when she substituted "wanted" for "worried." She did not self-correct this error, and it appears that Maria was primarily using visual and syntactic information; but her error doesn't make much sense given the context of the story. Thus, we circled S and V, but not M.

FIGURE 4.4 **Analysis of Record of Oral Reading**

RECORD OF ORAL READING

STUDENT _Maria_   TEXT: _Storm Warning_

DATE: _Nov. 9_

Page	Text	E	SC	Analysis of errors and self-corrections	
				E (MSV information used)	SC (MSV information used)
6	A few hours later / ~house~ SC dark clouds ~begin~ began to ~from~ form. The wind picked up and Julie could ~called~ to see lots of fishing boats coming back ~in~ to the ~A~ ~(T)~ harbor.	/ / / /	/	M S (V) (M)(S)(V) M S (V) (M)(S)(V) (M)(S) V M S V	(M)(S) V
7	But not one of the boats looked like her dad's. Julie ~watched~ watched the sky, SC and then the sea, back to the sky, and back to the sea. With ~even~ every look SC Julie ~wanted~ worried more.	/ /	/ /	M s (V) M s (V) M(S)(V)	(M) S V (M)(S) V
		(6)	(3)		

FIGURE 4.5 **Practice Exercise: Analyzing Oral Reading Miscues**

Text	What the Student Read	Cues Used
1. Joe heard the owl hoot.	Joe had the owl hoot.	M S V
2. The decaying leaves give off a little heat and keep the eggs warm.	The dying leaves give off a little heat and keep the eggs warm.	M S V
3. Until night fell, it was unsafe to wander outside.	Until night fell, it was unsafe to go outside.	M S V
4. Rabbit saw the fox and ran away quickly.	Rabbit was the fox and ran away quickly.	M S V

Note: Answers and explanations for this practice task can be found in Appendix A-7.

When we look over the patterns observed by analyzing Maria's record of oral reading, we see that Maria used visual information a good deal but meaning and structure to a lesser extent. Although she is beginning to self-correct nicely, she still makes quite a few errors and does not seem to cross-check to see whether what she reads makes sense. If, over time, there are multiple instances of this pattern (i.e., underutilizing meaning and structure cues), the teacher might decide to provide some additional focused, explicit instruction as well as guided practice and coaching to help Maria (perhaps along with other children who need the same support) do more cross-checking. The teacher could encourage Maria to think about the meaning and what makes sense—*and also* use visual information and structure—to make sure that what she attempts looks right, sounds like language, *and* makes sense.

See whether you can evaluate the cues, or sources of information the child used, when saying each error in the sample sentences displayed in Figure 4.5. Remember to think about what cues the child actually *used,* and circle those letters. Answers are provided in Appendix A-7. Children's use of cues during reading can and should change over time. McKenna and Stahl (2003) reviewed research on students' miscues and noticed some interesting patterns. They found that about half of first graders' miscues are omissions and that as children mature, substitutions become more common. This certainly makes sense, since it mirrors the development of students' use of strategies. Children use no strategies when they make omissions, but they use at least some strategies when they make substitutions. Reliance on context (i.e., meaning and structural cues) is strongest among first graders and older, poorer readers. Also, children's substitutions often begin as mere guesses (e.g., "ant" instead of "bug") but gradually become more sophisticated and bear greater graphophonic resemblance to the actual word in the text (e.g., "beside" instead of "behind").

This kind of information is important to keep in mind as you analyze children's miscues. For example, if a first-grade beginning reader is using meaning and structure cues a great deal, you should probably not be surprised. But if a child at the second-grade level is doing the same thing, you should probably see it as an indication that the child's strategy use isn't as balanced as it should be; thus, you'll need to provide further instruction to increase the child's attention to print. Later in this chapter we will again refer to the patterns that teachers can detect on records of oral reading and discuss how the patterns were noted on Willa's profile.

Vocabulary Strategy Probes.   As children read more complex texts, they begin to encounter words that are unfamiliar to them in meaning—not just words that are unfamiliar to them in terms of decoding. Children need to use vocabulary-solving strategies to figure out the meaning of words. To find out how children use strategies to figure out unfamiliar vocabulary, you can administer informal assessments (Johnson, 2001). At the primary level, it is usually during read-alouds or guided reading lessons that teachers pose questions about solving vocabulary "puzzles" to help determine the degree to which students can use context to figure out unfamiliar words.

To informally assess vocabulary strategy use, a teacher first needs to make sure that it is *possible* to figure out the meaning of the unfamiliar word from context, because in some situations, context doesn't provide clues to a word's meaning. For example, it might be possible for a third grader to figure out the approximate meaning of the word *snare* in the first sentence below, but it is unlikely that he could figure out the meaning of *baffling* in the second sentence.

- The fox was tangled in the *snare* and could not get out, no matter how hard he tried.
- "This is baffling," thought Julia as she stared at the message scribbled in the notebook.

After reading the first sentence, a teacher might say to a group of children, "Hmm, *snare* is an interesting word; what do you think it means? What might help you figure it out? Turn to a partner and share your ideas." To assess students' use of strategies to figure out unfamiliar vocabulary, the teacher might listen in on a few pairs of students and make notes about what he observed. Some teachers might try to more efficiently gather information about *all* of the children in the class or group by having children respond in writing on a slip of paper, folded in half, with two headings: "What I Think It Means" and "Clues I Used to Predict What I Think It Means." This kind of quick, "every pupil response" technique can provide on-the-spot information to guide instruction. For example, if several students wrote that they thought "snare" means "sneaky" because the sentence was about a fox and the word sounded a bit like "sneaky," that group might benefit from some lessons in using context clues—especially language cues—to predict the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Think-Alouds, Surveys, and Interviews of Comprehension Strategy Use and Reading Dispositions.   Like a number of other techniques, think-alouds, which involve children verbalizing their comprehension strategies or thought processes during reading, can be used for both assessment and instruction. Talking with students about what they are thinking as they read also reinforces the notion that reading *is* thinking (Lipson & Wixson, 2003).

You can find more information concerning the use of think–alouds in chapter 6, on comprehension.

Interviews and surveys can also help teachers learn about children's use of processing or comprehension strategies, especially in Grades 3, 4, and beyond. Two surveys that involve student self-assessment are provided in Appendices A-8 and A-9. The first is more appropriate for students at an early stage of reading; the second is more appropriate for students who have most early reading processing strategies already under control. You may want to keep in mind, however, that children sometimes respond by checking off what they *think* the teacher wants, so it is best to supplement the use of surveys with think-alouds, running records, or other means of more directly observing children's use of strategies. Interviews of reading strategy use and dispositions can be conducted with individual students; a

ready-to-photocopy reading strategies and dispositions interview can be found in Appendix A-10.

Book Logs and Individual Conferences.   To find out how students are developing reading habits and dispositions, book logs and individual conferences can be very useful. Even with kindergarteners and first graders, the use of these tools not only yields important information for the teacher but also signals *to the child* that reading is important and that teachers (and others) care about the child's opinion of what he or she has read.

Book Logs. A book log is basically a list or record of what has been read. For very young children it can be as simple as having them write down the titles of the books they finish reading. As children become more proficient at recording information, book logs can include the date, the author, and the genre of the book. Some book logs also include a place for students to record whether they thought the book was Easy (E), Just Right (JR), or Challenging (Ch), and also a place to rate their opinion of what they read. See Appendix A-11 for a book log that might be appropriate in a second-, third-, or fourth-grade classroom.

   Keep in mind, though, that a book log by itself does not necessarily provide a teacher (or a student) with a way to evaluate the degree to which a student is gaining breadth and depth of reading. Some sort of "lens" or set of criteria is needed to evaluate what has been listed and compare it to desired outcomes. The Literacy Profile provides some guidelines for evaluating book logs. For example, at the third-grade level, the descriptors related to reading dispositions indicate that children at this stage should be able to read "the equivalent of at least two books a month" and "sustain silent, independent reading for at least 20 minutes." These expectations mirror those in a number of state frameworks and also in the resource *Reading and Writing Grade by Grade: Primary Literacy Standards for Kindergarten Through Third Grade* from the New Standards Organization (Baker, 1999). Naturally, teachers should use their own judgment in determining what "counts" as a book. For example, most of the *Harry Potter* books should "count" as multiple books (perhaps two or three if they are read independently) because they are so long. And the magazines and online resources children read should certainly also "count." Actually, the "counting" of books read is not the real goal; children's building stamina as readers is what really matters, and the number of books they read is simply one indication of this reading disposition.

   Also consider the rubric/scoring guide in Figure 4.6 as another way to evaluate the reading habits and dispositions of third or fourth graders, using their book logs.

   An excellent practice that many teachers use involves enlarging a rubric such as the one displayed in this figure and posting it on the wall so that the shared goals and expectations displayed within the rubric are visible to everyone in the classroom. In some situations, teachers and students draft rubrics collaboratively so that the rubrics include student-friendly language. In this way, assessment is not a "secret" owned by the teacher, but rather a set of shared practices that allow everyone to judge how close they are to achieving a shared goal. Raphael, Highfield, and Au (2006) describe a wonderful process of having students develop what they call "I Can" statements by helping students understand the ideas behind some important benchmarks and then, with the students, drafting phrases that are in the students' own language. Over time, children will be able to use and internalize these statements to take responsibility for their own learning.

FIGURE 4.6 **Reading Habits Scoring Guide (for Students in Grades 3 or 4)**

Reading Habits	Getting started . . .	On your way . . .	On target!	Wow!
Reading a LOT	Reading part of one book or its equivalent, each month	Reading one book or its equivalent, each month	Evidence of reading enough to meet goal (2 books or their equivalent a month)	Evidence of reading **more than enough** to meet goal!
Reading Widely and in Depth	Reading one genre only, **OR** Reading one book or its equivalent—on one subject, from one author, or in one genre	Reading 2 different genres, **OR** Reading 2–3 books or their equivalent— in one subject, from one author, or in one genre	Evidence of reading enough different gen-res to meet goal for the year! (Goal = at least 3 different genres/ kinds of text) **AND** Evidence of reading enough in-depth books to meet goal (at least 4 books or equivalent from one author, subject, or genre)	Evidence of very wide or in-depth reading—**More than enough** to meet goal!

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Individual Conferences. Individual student conferences can provide a valuable opportunity to find out various things about a developing reader (and writer). Like many other assessment tools, individual conferences often seem somewhere between instruction and assessment—but that is actually a good thing! Despite their benefits, though, teachers sometimes find individual conferences challenging for a variety of reasons: it can be tricky to stay focused and know what to talk about during a conference; conferences can be hard to schedule and manage within a literacy block; and they can be challenging to keep track of.

To stay focused during an individual conference and to know what to talk about, a prepared conference form can be helpful. The individual student conference form provided in Appendix A-12 is adapted from a form developed by Routman (2003). It includes questions concerning reading dispositions as well as questions that involve other areas of literacy, such as reading accuracy and fluency, as well as comprehension/reader response. Many teachers simply circle (ahead of time) the questions that they plan to ask during a particular conference, since it is rare that a teacher will have time to ask all of the questions. It is often particularly helpful to tell children ahead of time what the focus of the conference will be so that they can also be prepared.

Scheduling, managing, and keeping track of individual student conferences can be challenging, too. Some teachers use a monthlong grid to schedule conferences and adjust the frequency according to student need. Other teachers hold individual conferences only one day of the week, and schedule them *instead of* that day's teacher-guided reading groups. To help keep track of what takes place during conferences, some teachers set up individual "student conference notebooks" that each student keeps at his/her desk or "cubbie." That way, when the teacher confers with the child, all of the conference notes

about the child's reading are in one place. This also signals to the child that when "next steps" are decided upon, there *will* be follow up. See Figure 4.7 for a sample page of a student conference notebook for Leo, a first grader.

Summary of Assessing Reading Strategies and Dispositions

Many informal tools and approaches, along with more formal tools, are available for teachers to determine how well children are progressing in their reading strategies and dispositions. These include assessment tools and approaches such as running records, conferences, think-alouds, interviews, surveys, and book logs. When assessing children's development of reading strategies, it is particularly important to keep in mind that, although strategies are a critical contributing factor to the development of competence and confidence in reading, children do not master them, individuals use strategies flexibly and in relationship to the text and context. Interestingly, Afflerbach et al. (2008) contend that "the main reason for assessing strategies is to find clues about what the student is not doing or what is being done incorrectly so that teachers can reteach better strategies" (p. 371). At this point we will turn our attention to how all this information can be applied to instruction to increase student growth in reading strategies and dispositions.

FIGURE 4.7 **Student Conference Notebook for Leo, Grade 1 Student (Who Is Reading at a Mid-First Grade Level)**

April 10, '08

Leo read from "Greedy Cat"

said it was "easy"—chose it because I had read it to the class.

but < 90% oral reading acc. (was/went; asked for many words) Said he used pictures to help figure out hard words.

Next step: Look closely at hard words, think about what sounds the letters make

April 21, '08

Leo brought "I'm the King of the Mountain"—chose it because of the cover and Ben had just read it.

said it was OK/just right and said he had tried to look harder at the hard words

read with 92% acc and DID look more closely at words like "shook" "voice" "cried"

retold story with a real sense of pride—and also attention to beginning/middle/end

Next step: read some less patterned books, or informational books?

INSTRUCTIONAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR READING STRATEGIES AND DISPOSITIONS

Reading strategies and dispositions need careful cultivation in order for them to develop and thrive in children. To support the development of reading strategies, both explicit instruction and supported practice are essential, along with time for application and feedback (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991). Reading dispositions and habits should flourish, in most children, when they are engaged in a literate community, surrounded by high-quality and appropriately challenging books, and provided with challenging tasks, encouragement for effort, and motivating reasons to read (Baker, 1999; Pressley, 2002).

In thinking about how to use the results of assessment to support student growth in the development of strategies, it will be important to keep in mind two points made earlier: that strategies are flexible tools for processing text and thinking during reading, and that strategies are mostly used as needed, depending upon a variety of factors such as the text being read, the reader, and the context. For example, Jasmine, a second grader, might need to use both rereading and questioning strategies when reading one of the Magic Tree House books because the text is slightly challenging for her and because she has limited background knowledge about the book's topic, the solar system. Another reader, Toby, might use a visualization strategy when reading a poem by Shel Silverstein about a messy room because the poem invites the use of visualization, and also because Toby very likely has extensive background knowledge and previous experience with messy rooms!

Similarly, when thinking about how to influence children's reading habits and dispositions, remember that we cannot *make* children "love to read" (any more than someone can make us love to watch football or listen to opera), but we can certainly use our observations of students' current reading dispositions and habits to provide, as needed, increased opportunities in reading and discussion across a variety of genres. And, fortunately, we can *lead* children toward loving to read.

Results of assessment in reading strategies and dispositions can reveal both general and particular patterns of need. In this section we will briefly describe some commonly used approaches for developing reading strategies and dispositions; in the next section we will turn our attention to approaches that might be used with those children whose assessments reveal that they have particular needs in reading strategies and dispositions.

Instructional Approaches for Building Reading Strategies and Dispositions in All Students

Two critical opportunities that *all* students need to have in order to develop strategies include explicit instruction through a gradual release of responsibility model and supported practice in flexible strategy application using "real" or authentic text (Dole et al., 1991). When teachers don't use the "gradual release" model, children are often "assigned" to complete a task—and thus do not receive sufficient modeling and scaffolding to be successful.

To develop productive dispositions and habits toward reading, all children need support and encouragement from "skilled others"; a rich literate environment; and authentic motivating reasons to read. Having access to high-quality, engaging books and other text materials, including those from the Internet and other digital resources, also promotes motivation for reading. First we'll discuss opportunities for strategy development, and then we'll turn to reading dispositions.

Instructional Opportunities for Development of Early Reading Processing Strategies. Many of the key components of a balanced literacy block (i.e., shared reading, teacher-guided reading, explicit teaching through mini-lessons, etc.) are critical to the development of early reading processing strategies, and include opportunities for both explicit instruction and supported practice with feedback. Some of these instructional opportunities are more conducive to explicit teaching; others are designed to provide supported practice, often using prompts. Interestingly, Fountas and Pinnell (1996) caution that "just as strategies cannot be directly observed, neither can they be directly taught. We teach *for* strategies" (p. 149). In other words, it is important to recognize that strategy use takes place inside the child's head and that we cannot *make* it happen; we can, however, provide intentional modeling and scaffolding to lead the way and support the development of strategy use.

Shared or Interactive Reading. One key opportunity for supported practice is shared or interactive reading, in which the teacher is the primary reader and children follow along by reading aloud together with enlarged text displayed on chart paper, a "big book," or an overhead projector. Shared reading can also provide an opportunity for explicit instruction *if* the teacher intentionally models and explains the use of a strategy. Simply reading together is excellent for developing fluency, but explicit demonstration and explanation are needed in order to make the use of early processing strategies "transparent" to young students.

As an example, if a teacher is reading a poem with kindergarten children, an excellent way for her to model cross-checking as a strategy would be for her to use a pointer while reading a line of the poem and intentionally skip a word. Then she might say, "Huh? That didn't sound right. I'd better go back and read that again and make sure I look closely at all the words." By doing this sort of think-aloud, she provides a valuable bit of explicit instruction in cross-checking.

Guided Reading for Early Strategies. Similarly, guided reading provides another key opportunity for explicit instruction and supported practice. Fountas and Pinnell (2001) describe guided reading as "a teaching approach designed to help individual students learn how to process a variety of increasingly challenging texts with understanding and fluency" (p. 193). A guided-reading lesson in the early stages of reading usually takes place with a small group of children who have been grouped together because the teacher has, through ongoing assessment, determined that they read approximately the same level of text and have similar needs. The teacher provides the text materials, introduces the story, and then guides the children through the reading process. The goal is for the children to eventually read the text independently and silently, with understanding.

Central to the guided-reading approach at the early stages of reading is the use of teacher-provided prompts to support students' development of strategies. Some sample prompts (adapted from Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) are shown in Figure 4.8.

When a teacher selects a particular prompt to use with a student, he usually does so based on what he has already observed about the student's use of strategies, frequently from a running record but sometimes from informal observation.

> Two excellent resources for prompts that can support children's use of strategies are *Guided Reading: Good First Teaching for All Learners* (1996) by Fountas and Pinnell and Sharon Taberski's (2000) *On Solid Ground*.

FIGURE 4.8 **Strategy Prompts for Early Readers**

Strategies Needed by the Student	Sample Prompts by the Teacher
Beginning reading behaviors	• Read it with your finger. • Did you have enough (or too many) words? • Try ____: would that make sense? Sound right? Read that again and start the word.
Self-monitoring	• Were you right? • Why did you stop? (after hesitation or stop) • It could be ____, but look at ____. • Check it—does it look right and sound right to you? • Try that again.
Use of multiple sources of information	• Does that make sense? • Does that look right? • Does that sound right? • Try that again and think what would make sense/sound right. • Look at all the letters in the word.
Fluency	• Can you read this quickly? • Put your words together so it sounds like talking.
Self-correction	• I like the way you worked that out • You're nearly right. Try that again.

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It is also important to keep in mind that the kind of reading material children encounter during guided-reading lessons should be only *one* part of a balanced literacy program. For a number of students, the material they read during guided reading will be grade-level text or perhaps even more challenging, but for other children, the text they encounter during guided reading will need to be below grade level, at their instructional level. It is important that all children have access, by reading or listening, to grade-level (or higher) text to ensure that they are exposed to and engaged with age-appropriate background knowledge, rich language, advanced vocabulary, and high-quality literature. All students also need ample opportunities to read easy, independent-level text so that they become confident and fluent readers.

Mini-Lessons and Other Activities. Other opportunities for explicit instruction include mini-lessons and teacher-led whole group lessons from a comprehensive program. In addition, supported practice and semi-independent activities can also be useful if the teacher has previously modeled and/or explained to children. Mini-lessons are short, focused lessons that are often conducted with children sitting on the rug so that everyone can be "up close" and engaged. Mini-lessons will be described in more detail in the next section, which focuses on supporting the development of comprehension strategies.

Semi-independent activities, sometimes referred to as "center" or "station" activities, often take place while the teacher is working with another small group or a guided-reading group during the literacy block. They can be very useful in the early primary grades to provide supported practice for children as they develop early reading processing strategies and other skills. One possibility for "center" or "station" activities is a partner-reading station, where pairs of children read together, one child using a bookmark to support the other child's use of reading strategies. An example of a bookmark that might be used for this purpose can be found in Appendix A-13.

Other center or station activities that could take place in a primary-level classroom include students in small (usually heterogeneous/mixed-ability) groups reading short poems or other pieces of text on an overhead projector that's placed on the floor, or students "reading around the room" (i.e., pointing to and reading charts, labels, directions, and posters with a pointer, dowel, or set of chopsticks). Buddy reading, listening to books on tape, using the writing center, or contributing to a class book or poster are other examples of literacy-based center or station activities. In later grades, activities usually include independent reading, research or "investigation" work, and a variety of responses to reading. These independent and semi-independent activities are valuable opportunities for practicing strategies. Later in the day, providing an opportunity to discuss with children the strategies they used and how well the strategies worked will greatly enhance the impact of this sort of activity. It is important to make sure that while children are involved in center or station activities, they are actually reading or writing connected text most of the time, as opposed to completing worksheets or isolated skill work.

Instructional Opportunities for the Development of Reading Comprehension Strategies. All children need explicit instruction in reading comprehension strategies (including modeling, guided practice, and independent practice with feedback) along with supported practice. Pearson and Duke (2002) stress that, at the primary level, teachers need to provide explicit instruction in comprehension strategies and also carefully plan activities such as discussion, prediction, and shared reading to support children's understanding of what is read in class.

Comprehension-Focused Teacher Read-Alouds. A good deal of comprehension strategy instruction in kindergarten and Grade 1 (but often in Grades 2 and up as well) takes place through teacher read-alouds, which are intentionally planned with a focus on comprehension and carefully selected text. Comprehension is also a key focus of guided reading, of course, but this is true primarily from the middle of Grade 1 onward. One benefit of teachers using read-alouds to teach comprehension strategies is that the text material is challenging enough to warrant the use of such strategies. During guided reading at the earliest levels, the text is often straightforward and limited so that comprehension strategies are not needed. This is not always the case, however. Sometimes you will find ambiguity in pre-primers and emergent reading books because of the limited language in the text, lack of background, or other factors.

The first step in planning a comprehension-focused teacher read-aloud involves selecting a text that is a good match to the particular comprehension strategy that the teacher wants to model. Selecting and using the *best* of children's literature to read aloud is, as Lucy Calkins (2001) stresses, absolutely essential.

When the teacher reads aloud for the purpose of building comprehension, it often sounds like a "think-aloud." For example, while reading *The Very Busy Spider* (Carle, 1984), a kindergarten teacher might demonstrate the strategy of "making connections" in the following way: "Oh, I get it! They keep saying the spider is busy; I know that when I am really busy, I sometimes don't answer because I want to get something done!" Students might then be asked to turn and talk with a partner to share a connection they made (that helped them understand the story) when listening to the rest of the story.

Comprehension-Focused Mini-Lessons. Mini-lessons are short (10–20 minutes), tightly organized lessons that generally involve four parts: a connection to what children have previously learned or already know, a few teaching points that often include a demonstration, active engagement by the children, and a link to independent application (Fountas & Pinnell, 2001; Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Miller, 2002). Students often sit on the rug during the mini-lesson and later apply the teaching points during their own independent reading. When conducting comprehension mini-lessons, teachers frequently use either a picture book or a very short piece of text that they have photocopied or retyped from its original source and made into an overhead transparency. Some excellent sources for short text include books of poems as well as periodicals such as *Kids Discover, WR News* (formerly *Weekly Reader*), *Click, National Geographic Explorer, Ask,* and *Appleseeds*, to name just a few.

Mini-lessons provide an excellent opportunity for demonstrating the use as well as the usefulness of comprehension strategies. Teachers often use an overhead transparency, chart paper, or other means of displaying enlarged text to model the use of a particular strategy or set of strategies. Suppose you wanted to show a classroom of second-grade students how to use the strategy of thinking about text structure to understand a compare-contrast passage about frogs and toads. You might decide to conduct a mini-lesson using a Venn diagram (i.e., two interlocking circles) graphic organizer as scaffolding to help the children visualize the pattern you are using.

Graphic organizers are particularly useful for teaching children about organizational patterns such as classification, compare-contrast, sequence, problem-solution, explanation, and others. Appendix A-14 includes a ready-to-photocopy poster (designed for fourth-grade students) of graphic organizers for these common expository text structures as well as some "signal" or "transition" words that authors frequently use as they write in

Two excellent resources for books to read aloud for demonstrating or guiding comprehension strategies are *Reading for Meaning* (2002) by Debbie Miller and *Strategies That Work* (2007) by Harvey and Goudvis.

Many professional resources for teachers of literacy provide examples of graphic organizers. Several Web sites contain graphic organizers as well. You might try www.ncrel.org, http://www.readwritethink.org, http://freeology.com/graphics.org, or http://www.region15.org/curriculum/graphicorg.html

Two excellent resources for comprehension mini-lessons include Harvey and Goudvis's (2007) *Strategies That Work* and their *Comprehension Tool Kit,* which provides fully developed mini-lessons that are appropriate for children in Grades 3–8.

one or another pattern. You may want to simplify the chart and list of transition words if you decide to use it with younger children. To foster more active engagement and ownership, you may want to encourage students to create their own graphic organizers as well.

The sample mini-lesson outline in Figure 4.9 is similar to others and has been adapted from a variety of sources (Fountas & Pinnell, 2001; Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Miller, 2002). The outline in this figure provides an example of how you might go about helping children use the strategy of noticing text-structure clues or signal words to support their understanding of a compare-contrast passage about frogs and toads. Notice how the mini-lesson format includes elements that reflect the "gradual release of responsibility" model: modeling, guided practice (with pairs of children), and (for some children) independent practice. A number of different formats for mini-lessons are presented in this Handbook; you will want to choose the style that feels most comfortable to you.

Guided-Reading Lessons Focused on Comprehension Strategies. Comprehension strategies are also a key area of focus for guided-reading lessons, usually from mid to late first grade onward. They provide an ideal opportunity

FIGURE 4.9 **Sample Mini-Lesson for Teaching a Comprehension Strategy (Noticing Text-Structure Cues in a Compare–Contrast Passage)**

Connection:
- Last week we talked about different ways authors use patterns to organize their thoughts, right?
- Today we're going to read a piece about frogs and toads that uses one of those patterns . . . who remembers what we call it when we say some things are alike and different (comparing or contrasting)? Right—so you (Joey) and you (Marco) are alike because you are both ____ (boys). And how are you different?

Teaching Points:
- Authors sometimes use special words that we call "signal words" to let the reader know how they are organizing their thinking. I like to think of these words as signal lights or traffic lights—they let us know what is going on!
- Let's look at this list of words that writers sometimes use when they want to compare two things (show list, as in Appendix A-14)
- Now, watch me as I read the first paragraph (on the overhead), and notice some of these signal words.
- (Read aloud and think aloud, noticing signal words like "both" and "similar"—explaining how they help the reader understand the text.)

Active Engagement/Application:
- Now let's read the next paragraph together. As we're reading, see if you notice any of our signal words for compare-contrast. But—don't call out, OK?
- Let's list the ones we found. How did these help us?
- Now I'd like you to work with a partner sitting beside you to read the rest of this page and see if you can find some more signal words that the author used to help us learn about how frogs and toads are alike and different.
- (Call on a few pairs to respond.)
- Today, as you are doing your independent reading, some of you will probably be reading informational text. If you are, see if you notice any signal words that the author used to help show comparison.

Reflection/Debriefing:
- Did anyone read something where the author was comparing two things? Great! Can you share what you found with us? Were there any signal words or clues that helped you notice that the author was comparing those things? Do you think noticing those words helped you to understand what the author was trying to say? How?
- Nice job reading today!

for children to learn to apply strategies with selected text, including literature, informational text, or other text sources such as social studies, science, magazines, or material downloaded from the Internet.

For example, a teacher might use a short poem to teach a guided-reading lesson to a group of students who had displayed a need for more work on inferring. The sample guided-reading lesson provided in Figure 4.10 shows how this short lesson might work for a group of third graders. It is important to keep in mind that guided-reading lessons should focus on teaching particular children particular skills, strategies, or concepts using appropriate text.

FIGURE 4.10 **Sample Guided-Reading Lesson Focused on Using Comprehension Strategies**

Guided Reading Planning Sheet

Date: _____

Teacher: *M. Bates*

Students: *Jared, Kayla, Anton, Assad, Juanita*

Notes about students: *Three of the five students were in ELL class last yr; all need work in inferring.*

Planning:
- Focus of the lesson (what strategy, concept, and/or skill is being taught?):
  inferring during reading
- Text materials: Poem: *"The Sky Zoo"—on chart paper and indiv. copies*
- Why selected? *Short, accessible, yet calls for inference. Approximately OK for reading level of these students (Grade 2+)*
- Necessary background information: *animals that might be in a zoo? Preteach: pelican, jaw, other? (briefly explain drooping?)*
- Key vocabulary: *grumpy, fuzzy*

Lesson Plan:

Before reading (introduction, key points I will teach):
- *Remember how we have talked about inferring—how it is like connecting the dots? That we need to use what is in the text and what we already know to come up with our own ideas? The author doesn't always tell us what to think, right? Let's think about the title, "The Sky Zoo"—kind of interesting, yes?*

Read to: *find out what you think the poet is really saying.*

Reading (how will reading take place: shared reading, silent, partners? When? Where?):
1st time—all together/shared reading
2nd time—silently
make T chart (together) of clues/what we think

Return to reading for discussing and revisiting selected parts of the text: *Discussion—what clues helped most?*

Optional: Word work, extension, or application:
Vocabulary work with fuzzy and grumpy: Would you be grumpy if you got an ice cream cone? Which is fuzzy: a bunny or a snake? I would be grumpy if. . . . Something else that might be fuzzy could be a . . .

This contrasts with what takes place in some classrooms, where teachers simply read a chapter or book with students and guide them in completing follow-up activities or assignments. Guided-reading lessons should involve actual teaching of skills, strategies, or concepts because the designated students need the skills to understand the selected text. The goal, again, is for students to learn how to apply what they have learned when they read silently and independently.

Routines That Foster Integrated Use of Comprehension Strategies. Supportive practice in the flexible use of comprehension strategies has been shown to be essential for building comprehension (Pearson & Duke, 2002). Two specific techniques that support children's development in using flexible comprehension strategies include the Reciprocal Teaching approach (originally developed by Palinscar & Brown, 1985) and My Turn, Your Turn (Biggam, 2009). Both techniques may be used in a variety of settings: during a teacher read-aloud, shared/whole-group reading, or small–group teacher-led guided reading.

Reciprocal teaching is a technique that the National Reading Panel (2000) has identified as highly effective and very useful in providing supportive practice for children in using multiple comprehension strategies. Even students in kindergarten can use this engaging and interactive technique. It is highly flexible and can be used in large and small groups, with both narrative and informational text. Here's what is involved: after introducing and explicitly teaching four key strategies of

- Predicting
- Asking questions
- Clarifying
- Summarizing,

the teacher gradually "releases responsibility" to the children so that they take turns "being the teacher" and leading discussion of what was just read, using the four strategies as tools for thinking and discussion.

For example, when using the Reciprocal Teaching technique to read a potentially confusing informational selection about mollusks, a third- or fourth-grade teacher might begin to model using the strategy of prediction by referring to the title ("Mansion for a Mollusk"): "Hmm, I think the author is going to tell us about the mollusk's home, because of that word 'mansion'—I think it means a pretty fancy house." Next the teacher might have the children silently read several paragraphs of the text. Then she would model the remaining reciprocal teaching strategies (clarifying, asking questions, and summarizing) at appropriate points.

To model clarifying, the teacher might say, "I'm not sure what they mean here by 'you grow yourself a house'; I think maybe it means the mollusk can make its own home, but they don't explain how . . . ; is that what you think?" Then, to model asking questions, she might continue, "Here's a tough question: 'do all mollusks have hard shells?'" and call on a student to respond. Finally, she might summarize by saying, "Okay, this section was chock-full of information. I think the most important points the author made were that mollusks' homes come in all shapes and sizes and that mollusks often carry their houses with them, but not always. Does anyone have something I should add to my summary? . . . Now, who will be our next teacher? Okay—Jules!"

Jules then acts as the teacher, directing students to read the next section, then using the four strategies as described above and inviting discussion. (The teacher often acts as a facilitator, to clarify as needed, and to keep the pace going.) Then, when Jules's turn is completed, he will select another student to

act as teacher. There is a good amount of flexibility in using reciprocal teaching; all strategies do not necessarily need to be employed at every stopping point. Key to the reciprocal teaching technique is the discussion involved so that all children are actively engaged and the focus is on understanding the meaning of what is read (Oczkus, 2003).

Another routine, called My Turn, Your Turn (Biggam, 2008), is adapted from and similar in many ways to Reciprocal Teaching, but utilizes more frequent teacher modeling. In a nutshell, after introducing the comprehension strategies involved (predicting, clarifying, making connections, inferring, and paraphrasing/summarizing), the teacher and students take turns (first the teacher, then the students) selecting one strategy to use and using that strategy to talk about their thinking as they were reading a section of a text. Both the teacher and the students use a bookmark with strategy prompts each time they stop to reflect on what they read. Two different versions of My Turn, Your Turn bookmarks that may be photocopied and used for this purpose can be found in Appendix A-15. The version with icons is intended for early primary-level children; the other is more appropriate for second, third, or fourth graders.

A few tips for successful implementation of My Turn, Your Turn include the following: First, when it is the teacher's turn ("my turn"), make sure that you actually *model* using the strategy. (It's tempting to instead *ask students to use* the strategy, but modeling by the teacher is essential!) Secondly, if using the technique with a whole class or small group of children, vary the format during the "your turn" segments to maximize student engagement. You might decide to have students "turn and talk," and then call on one or two pairs to share what they talked about, or you might use some form of "every pupil response" technique, such as picking a child's name out of a box or a set of Popsicle sticks. (Such "every pupil response" techniques provide an efficient way to informally assess students' skills and knowledge as well.) Finally, make sure that you use the technique with a selection that has enough content or ambiguity to warrant the use of comprehension strategies. For most kindergarteners and first graders, My Turn, Your Turn will make the most sense when used during a teacher read-aloud; with second to fourth graders, you can use the routine with many different kinds of reading, including stories, informational text, and content-area selections.

Opportunities for Development of Reading Dispositions and Habits.
Overall, the best ways to increase students' positive dispositions toward reading include providing a rich literacy environment and a high-quality, balanced literacy program. Some educators talk about aiming to have children "immersed" or "marinated" in books and talk *about* books; we think that provides a nice visual image and makes a lot of sense!

Increasing Time for Reading. We know that both in-school and out-of-school reading are strongly correlated with stronger reading performance (Foertsch, 1992). We also know that it is easy to become discouraged when we attempt to increase out-of-school reading but have limited success. Teachers have some degree of influence over the amount of reading that takes place within the classroom, however; and school administrators often specify guidelines for the length of time to be spent in a literacy block. For example, in Grades 1 and 2 literacy blocks are often $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours long, since they include word study, reading, and writing instruction. In Grades 3 and 4, a reading block is often 90 minutes, with an additional 30- to 60-minute writing block. Within the literacy block it is important to strategically plan schedules and resources in order to maximize the

amount of time children spend actually reading. This often requires careful planning and collaboration with other teachers and staff to allow for extended literacy blocks that have few interruptions.

Equally important is making sure that within those blocks (as well as during other times of the day), children have access to high-quality and appropriate books and spend substantial amounts of time reading connected, meaningful text. Often, classroom teachers and specialists collaborate to construct "shared book centers" where multiple copies of books are kept (often arranged by level, author, or topic) and where teachers can borrow books for use in the classroom.

An important goal during the primary and lower intermediate grades is building reading "stamina," or children's capacity to sustain reading for an extended period of time. Like stamina in running or bicycling, reading stamina takes time and practice to build. Notice on the Literacy Profile that the indicators for Strand 4 at the second-, third-, and fourth-grade levels include expectations for students to be able to read independently and silently for increasing amounts of time. Additional forms of reading (partner reading, guided reading, shared reading, etc.) during the day are essential as well, of course. Allington (2006) calls for schools to allocate at least 90 minutes a day to *actually reading*. Needless to say, we also want to strongly encourage out-of-school reading in a variety of ways.

Book Talks. Book talks provide a quick and motivating way to increase students' interest in reading. A book talk, which Fountas and Pinnell (2001) describe as a "brief commercial for a book," simply involves:

- Talking about the title and author
- Showing the cover and a few illustrations
- Giving a brief synopsis of the book
- Reading a short selection aloud
- Some of the following: connecting the book to students' lives or to other books students have read, posing questions, or sharing your own response

Initially, book talks are led by the teacher, but children can also learn to give book talks; some teachers schedule a time for these each week. "Book Recommendations" posters or "Class Picks" baskets or bins provide additional ways to have children let others in the class know about a book worth reading. Think back to our earlier discussion of reading motivation and how much the perceived "value of reading" contributes to that motivation.

"Check It Out!" Circles. Sometimes children get "stuck in a rut" of reading and are hesitant to explore new genres or authors. To address this issue, consider the "Check It Out!" circle approach (Sibberson & Szymusiak, 2003); directions for using this approach are outlined in Figure 4.11.

This activity encourages the exploration of new genres and conversation about books, and also reminds children that book choice is unique to each reader. When teachers use this technique, children learn new ways to preview and choose books (another important reading strategy), and most come away with a book they want to explore during independent reading.

Just about all students will benefit from the approaches listed above, which are designed to increase children's use of reading strategies and their dispositions toward reading. However, some children will need more tailored instruction or intensive approaches. Some sample ideas for addressing a few specific needs are described in the next section, where we talk about a few techniques and approaches in more detail.

FIGURE 4.11 **Check It Out! Circle: A Technique to Support Wide Reading by Children**

Check It Out! Circle

- The teacher selects enough books for the number of students in the circle. The selections may be the same genre or topic, or a random collection of titles.

- All of the students sit in a circle on the floor. (or you may decide to have two smaller circles that take place simultaneously)

- Explain the kinds of books you have collected and the purposes for the "Check it out" circle. (to practice previewing books and to find book they might be interested in reading independently.) Give each child a book and explain that they should preview their book, and then, after a signal is given, pass the book to the next child .

- Ring a bell or give a signal after one minute (or thirty seconds) and ask students to pass the book to the child on their right. (Limit the time so students have just enough time to preview the book .)

- Continue doing this until every child has had a chance to briefly preview each book.

Once everyone has has had a chance to look at each book, pose questions such as:
1. Which books did you see that you want to go back
   to at independent reading time? Why?
2. How did you go about previewing the books in
   such a short time?

You might want to have students talk about these questions in pairs, or as a whole-class debriefing.

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Instructional Approaches for Building Reading Strategies and Dispositions for Students with Specific Needs

When particular areas of need have been identified through assessments such as records of oral reading, reading conferences, interviews, think-alouds, or book logs, the next steps involve deciding when and how to intervene. First we will

discuss approaches that have been successful with children who have specific needs related to early reading processing strategies and comprehension strategies. Then we will address ways to enhance the reading habits and dispositions of children who tend to read very little. Often children who read very little do so because of their skill level, while others may read quite well but choose not to.

Reading Processing Strategies. Some students have a difficult time getting started using effective reading processing strategies. Because strategy use varies from child to child and situation to situation, there is a real need to closely link what is learned through assessment with appropriate plans for intervention. For example, some students overrely on meaning cues and do not pay sufficient attention to letters and sounds, while others use several cueing systems but do not cross-check or self-correct when what they read does not make sense. To address such needs, some teachers and schools design their own individual tutoring or small-group lessons; others use programs based on research done with striving or struggling children. Three successful research-based approaches for helping students develop strategies are described in this section.

Reading Recovery. This short-term, one-to-one intervention seeks to reduce the number of first-grade students who have significant difficulty in learning to read and write. Developed by Marie Clay in New Zealand, the approach involves daily, 30-minute lessons, which should supplement good classroom instruction. This individually tailored assistance is provided to the lowest achieving first graders by teachers who have received a full year of specialized training. Lessons include several predictable components, such as rereading for fluency, writing a sentence, and introducing a new book; but each lesson is carefully crafted to meet the individual child's needs, based on continuing assessment information obtained the previous day.

Although some educators and policymakers have been concerned about the cost of the intensive professional development needed for implementation of Reading Recovery, the program has received very high marks from the federal "What Works" educational clearinghouse. Schwartz, Askew, and Gomez-Bellengé (2007), in an analysis of that report, explain that since 1984, 75% of children who received the full series of Reading Recovery lessons reached grade-level expectations.

Other Approaches. Teaching students to use metacognitive strategies has been shown to be an effective way to strengthen their comprehension (Pressley, 2002). A recent study by Boulware-Gooden, Carreker, Thornhill, and Joshi (2007) demonstrated the effectiveness of this approach. The project involved teaching third-grade students to "think-aloud" as they read, whispering "yes" if they were right about something, "oops" if they needed to correct something, and "wow" or "aha!" if they learned something new. Children in the "intervention" school made significant gains in both reading comprehension and vocabulary within only 5 weeks' time. Several other programs have been developed for individuals or small groups of students who need more intensive support in developing reading strategies.

Book Buddies (Morris, 2006) uses volunteers or college students trained and supervised by reading teachers to provide lessons to individual first or second graders twice a week. Lessons focus on guided reading, word study, and fluency, and reading teachers administer assessments three times a year and maintain communication with the classroom teacher.

Reading Intervention for Early Success (Houghton Mifflin, 2003) is another research-based program designed for children in Grades 1 and 2.

Lessons are provided to groups of five to seven students and include three components: Rereading for Fluency, Reading the Books of the Week, and Working with Words/Writing Sentences. Periodic assessment is built into the program to monitor children's progress.

Reading Comprehension Strategies. By the time students reach third or fourth grade, assuming that assessments of reading comprehension have been used to screen and then diagnose the children's needs, teachers should have an idea of which children need particular work on developing reading comprehension strategies. In some cases, this need may be evident as early as first or second grade—if teachers have paid close attention to students' comprehension during teacher read-alouds and guided reading. Many of the approaches listed above (and in other chapters as well) will support the development of reading comprehension strategies—particularly if utilized in a small group setting where it is more likely that children at risk will take part and respond. For example, with a small group of English Language Learners who may be reluctant to speak in a larger group, you might do an "up close and personal" version of a reading comprehension mini-lesson that you had previously done with the whole class. One specialized commercial program called Visualizing and Verbalizing (Bell, 2007) is sometimes used with children who particularly need work on strengthening their concept imagery. The goal of this program is to improve language comprehension, critical thinking, and expressive language. Two additional techniques and programs will be described in this section.

Individual Think-Alouds. Think-alouds were discussed earlier in this chapter as an assessment tool, but they also can be used as an instructional intervention. To make strategy use more evident and "transparent" to students, Lipson and Wickizer (1989) demonstrated that think-alouds can be used with students who struggle with comprehension. They found think-alouds to be effective in "slowing down" the reading process, and helping children more readily stop to think as they read. One "generic" think-aloud prompt that a teacher might use during an individual student think-aloud conference is, "What were you doing and thinking as you read that part?" Providing the child with a list of think-aloud prompts so that he begins to internalize the process of thinking during reading makes sense, too. Some prompts to use might include:

- "I am thinking that . . ."
- "This part must mean . . ."
- "I don't understand . . ."
- "I am picturing . . ."

Sometimes students need to be convinced that this kind of "slowing down" is worth the effort, so you might consider having them do a quick comprehension check or summary—once after reading with no think-aloud, and then again after reading *with* a think-aloud.

Soar to Success. Designed for children from Grade 3 on, Soar to Success (2000) is a small-group intervention designed to accelerate students' reading abilities and help them apply comprehension and decoding strategies to a range of texts across content areas. Key to the approach is the use of reciprocal teaching techniques, which foster the use of the cognitive strategies of predicting, clarifying, questioning, and summarizing. Soar to Success is implemented daily in groups of five to seven students for 30- to 40-minute periods over an 18-week time frame. In addition to the program's effectiveness in

contributing to children's reading achievement (Cooper, Boschken, McWilliams, & Pistochini, 1997), other benefits include the lively pace and high-quality, varied text materials included.

Reading Dispositions. When children are not experiencing success as readers, it is perfectly understandable for them to avoid reading. However, that is precisely the opposite of what they need to do! Dealing with the challenge of helping striving or reluctant readers read *more* takes both creativity and persistence. In general, keys to success involve keeping the risk level low, making reading pleasurable, and finding materials that have relevance or a connection to the child. Using the results from assessments such as reading interviews and surveys can also help plan the kind of intervention needed.

Some teachers and schools have had success with reading incentive programs. Some incentive programs are commercial, such as Pizza Hut's; others are more homegrown such as setting goals for reading a certain number of minutes (when the children reach the goal, the principal dyes her hair green!). The eventual goal, of course, is to have incentives become *internalized* for the student. Three additional approaches for influencing the reading dispositions of students who avoid reading or who read very little are described below.

Interest-Based Book Clubs. Some teachers have found success with setting up interest-based book clubs. Based on children's expressed interests (identified through surveys, interviews, or questionnaires), interest-based book clubs are scheduled for a period of time, and involve children either reading the same material or reading different sources on the same topic and discussing what they have learned. Topics sometimes end up including areas that are not usually a focus of the school curriculum (video games, paintball, movie reviews, etc.).

Series books and specific genres such as mysteries and adventures are likely to be of high interest to students in Grades 3 and 4, too. The school librarian can be valuable in locating sources, which may include Internet sites and magazines as well as books. For children whose reading ability is especially limited, some accommodations may be needed, such as having someone audiotape the reading so that the child can read along.

Goal Setting. The idea of reading a whole book is simply daunting to some students. Setting achievable goals, such as reading a particular number of pages, might be much more accessible and increase the chances of success. You might consider adapting the rubric provided in Figure 4.6 so that it is tailored to a particular child's goals and needs. For example, for a reader who is really struggling, the "Wow!" column might read "Read 10 pages in 1 day!" Gradually, the descriptors can be increased to "raise the bar" of the amount of reading the child needs to accomplish.

In addition, you might use the questions regarding "reading dispositions and habits" from the Reading Strategies and Dispositions Interview in Appendix A-10 to help plan goals and next steps with the child. Setting goals can be tricky, however, if children set "out-of-reach" goals. For example, if a second grader who is reading at an early first-grade level wants to set a goal of reading the *Harry Potter* books, it's clear that that may take the child a while to achieve. You might consider making a "staircase" with the child, listing titles of benchmark books (perhaps using some of those listed on the Literacy Profile) that will be indications of getting closer to the goal. At the same time, you might obtain a copy of one of the *Harry Potter* books on tape (or CD), even if you suspect that the child can read only about 20% of the words, and encourage him to follow along as he listens. Remember that listening comprehension is an important contributor to overall comprehension and reading achievement.

Literary Lunches. An excellent idea for generating interest in books and reading comes from Michael Sullivan (2007), who describes setting up "literary lunches." The initial setup involves doing brief book talks with children regarding 5 to 10 books that an adult reader either from the school or the community will read aloud. (Excellent candidates might be a local firefighter, soccer coach, the school librarian, or a favorite retired teacher.) Students list their top two or three choices (or they can decline to participate, of course), and during the week that the "literary lunch reader" comes to the school to read the book aloud, those children go to the head of the lunch line and then proceed to a classroom set aside for this activity. All children need to do is listen to the story, although there may be some discussion afterward. This is a simple, low-cost approach that can reap many benefits, particularly for reluctant readers who *really* need extra opportunities to be "immersed" in books. Michael Sullivan particularly recommends including authors such as Jon Scieszka, David Martin, and Dav Pilkey and genres such as humor, adventure, and fantasy, which have special appeal to boys.

Michael Sullivan's Web site www.talestoldtall.com has many ideas for engaging children (especially boys) in reading, along with some excellent lists of books.

LOOKING CLOSELY AT ONE CHILD'S ASSESSMENTS FROM STRAND 4 OF THE LITERACY PROFILE

Results of Reading Strategy and Dispositions Assessments

To find out Willa's development of reading strategies and dispositions toward reading, several assessment tools were used. These included a record of oral reading, a reading strategies and disposition interview, and the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey. As is often the case, several of these assessments provided information about other areas of reading as well.

Willa's Reading Strategy Development. From the record of oral reading, it is clear that Willa has most early reading processing strategies well under way. An analysis of the miscues that Willa made during her oral reading of instructional-level text showed that in 10 out of the 11 miscues, she used meaning and structure cues. In other words, most of the times when Willa incorrectly substituted one word for another, the word that was substituted made sense and sounded right.

This indicates that Willa reads for meaning, and the fluency of her reading provides additional evidence for this, since she reads with a good deal of appropriate phrasing and expression. Willa's inattention to the visual features of many "small words" was interesting, though. Several of her errors involved substitutions of words such as "he" instead of "it" and "they" for "there." Her strong focus on reading for meaning seems to override her attention to print at times, and while it did not interfere with her comprehension at this time, it might be wise to monitor this tendency as she begins to read more complex texts or unfamiliar genres in succeeding grades.

Concerning the development of reading comprehension strategies, during the reading strategies and dispositions interview, Willa was asked what she does when she comes to a word she is not sure of. Her reply was that she sometimes asks the teacher, sometimes sounds it out, but sometimes skips it if it gets really hard and she gets annoyed. She added that she might then go back to the word when she is done reading. When asked what strategies she uses to help her understand what she reads, Willa commented that she often rereads, and added that if she reads something too fast, she goes back to "make it a good sentence." These responses show impressive self-awareness on her part, and recognition of her tendency to sometimes read too fast. Based on this evidence from her records of oral reading and responses to the interview questions, we marked the descriptors related to strategy use on her Literacy Profile (see Figure 4.12) accordingly.

FIGURE 4.12 Willa's Profile for Reading Strategies and Dispositions

Note: This figure has been excerpted from the full Literacy Profile chart for illustrative purposes. Please consult the full pull-out chart to identify the column headings and development phases.

Strand *Question & Sample Assessment Tools*	Early–Mid Grade 1	Late Grade 1–Early Grade 2	Late Grade 2–Early Grade 3
4. Reading Strategies, Processes, and Dispositions *To what extent does the child use early processing strategies and comprehension strategies during reading? How engaged is the child with reading?* **Sample Assessment Tools** • Running Records • Records of oral reading • Think-Alouds • Interviews • Observations and anecdotal notes • Book logs • Elementary Reading Attitude Survey	Uses more than one cueing system (meaning, visual, and language cues) and begins to cross-check independently Reads two or three little books or short text selections each day	Uses multiple cues and self-corrects with increasing frequency when meaning is altered* Reads four or more little books, short text selections, or two to three short chapters each day Can sustain reading for at least 10 minutes (independently or with a partner) *[Meaning is the "driver" of Willa's reading, and she sometimes does not self-correct—even when meaning is slightly altered, if she feels meaning is acceptable enough] KI*	Predicts and confirms during reading Begins to self-monitor comprehension; often rereads as a fix-up strategy Makes connections during reading Reads approximately two books a month or two chapters a day Can sustain silent reading independently for at least 15 minutes a day *[Willa is proud of being able to read hard chapter books like* Junie B. Jones!] KI*

Gray areas represent highlighting added by the teacher, preferably using a different color for each year (e.g., yellow highlights for Late K, orange highlights for Early–Mid Grade 1, etc.).
Bracketed material represents teacher/examiner comments from June, Grade 1.

Reading Dispositions Development. We know from talking with her mother that on most days, Willa spends at least 15 minutes independently reading three or four short books or several chapters from books. From the "reading strategies and dispositions" interview, we learned that Willa believes herself to be a "really good reader" and is proud that she can read "really hard chapter books like Junie B. Jones."

In addition, we administered the Elementary Reading Strategies Survey to Willa, and learned some interesting information. Overall, the results of *this* survey showed Willa's level of interest in reading to be somewhat lower than that of others at her grade level: her responses placed her at the 43rd percentile in terms of overall attitude toward reading. Her responses to the recreational items yielded a recreational subscale score at the 32nd percentile; her academic subscale was at the 44th percentile. Willa's comments as she completed the survey, though, were interesting and informative. For example, as she filled out an item that asked, "How do you feel when you read a book in school during free time?", she remarked, "I feel grumpy—I have to do two book logs!" Willa's responses showed that she prefers playing to reading, although she also indicated that she does like to spend time reading, enjoys getting books as presents, and likes to learn from books.

Reviewing this survey provides an interesting example of how important it is to have *several* sources of assessment information. Willa's responses to the Elementary Reading Attitude Survey *might* make one think that Willa's attitude toward reading is an area of concern. But in fact, Willa reads widely and talks about herself as a really good reader. In marking the descriptors concerning reading habits and dispositions on the Literacy Profile, we took into account all of the information obtained.

Overall Evaluation of Willa's Reading Strategies and Dispositions

Willa has a solid foundation in early reading strategies and clearly reads for meaning. She self-corrects when meaning is disrupted, and her substitutions almost always make sense. The assessments of her decoding skills (discussed previously at the end of chapter 3) confirm that, although Willa has a good foundation in phonics and decoding, she does need further instruction in

areas such as vowel digraphs, long vowels, and other areas normally taught at the end of first grade and the beginning of Grade 2. Willa does have a tendency to let meaning "override" print at times, though, when she reads quickly. She is aware of this tendency, and it may be useful for teachers to help her monitor this, particularly as she begins to read text material in which such substitutions might make a difference in terms of comprehension. Willa's comprehension strategies are beginning to develop as well. Most indications are that Willa is already a confident reader who likes reading and spends time enjoying books. Keeping reading time pleasurable for Willa will be crucial.

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