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The *Teaching Reading Sourcebook, Updated Second Edition* combines the best features of an academic text and a practical hands-on teacher's guide. It is an indispensable resource for teaching reading and language arts to both beginning and older struggling readers.

**What? • Why? • When? • How?**

**ABOUT THE TEACHING READING SOURCEBOOK**

For educators at every level, the *Teaching Reading Sourcebook* is a comprehensive reference about reading instruction. Organized according to the elements of explicit instruction (what? why? when? and how?), the Sourcebook includes both a research-informed knowledge base and practical sample lesson models.

- **What?** A thorough but concise graphic explanation of research-based content and best practices.
- **Why?** A readable summary of scientifically based research, selected quotes from researchers, and a bibliography of suggested reading.
- **When?** Information about instructional sequence, assessment, and intervention strategies.
- **How?** Sample lesson models with suggestions for corrective feedback; providing a bridge between research and practice, and making explicit instruction easy.

- User-friendly text
- Interactive activities for the reader
- Opportunities to review and interpret content
RESOURCES

The Resources section provides reproducible sample texts, activity masters, and teaching charts designed to be used in conjunction with sample lesson models. Sample texts include literary and informational texts that provide a context for explicit instruction.

SAMPLE LESSON MODELS

explicit reading instruction made easy!

The Teaching Reading Sourcebook can be used by...

• elementary teachers to enhance reading instruction in core reading programs

• middle and high school teachers to enhance language arts and content-area instruction

• college professors and students as a textbook for pre-service teacher education

• providers of professional development as an educational resource tool

• school or district administrators to support and facilitate effective literacy instruction

• literacy coaches as a resource for implementation

• teachers of English-language learners (ELLs) to support reading acquisition

• teachers of older struggling readers for research-based strategies tailored to individual needs

• new teachers as a comprehensive foundation for reading instruction

THE SOURCEBOOK COMPANION website

www.sourcebookcompanion.com

a valuable online resource for teacher educators
The Common Core State Standards do not tell teachers how to teach, but they do help teachers figure out the knowledge and skills their students should have.

—Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2012

The Teaching Reading Sourcebook has always supported educators in bridging the gap between evidence-based reading research and actionable instructional strategies. Now the Sourcebook also supports educators’ efforts in understanding, transitioning to, unpacking, and implementing the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts. In the Updated Second Edition, new features seamlessly connect and clarify the Sourcebook’s alignment to the Common Core.

About the Common Core State Standards and the Teaching Reading Sourcebook

How the Sourcebook can be useful for implementing the Common Core . . .

- It provides a bridge between the Standards and evidence-based instruction.
- It encompasses the Reading strand, especially Foundational Skills.
- It extensively covers Vocabulary Acquisition and Use in the Language strand.
- It enhances understanding of Common Core’s Appendix A: Research Supporting Key Elements of the Standards.
- It emphasizes reading of informational text: 8 out of 12 Sample Texts are informational.

Available Online

Detailed Correlations to the Common Core

www.sourcebookcompanion.com/correlations.html

Download complete grade-specific correlations demonstrating how the Teaching Reading Sourcebook, Updated Second Edition aligns to the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts.

What’s New?

- NEW cross-references clearly indicate how Sourcebook content aligns to the Common Core.
- NEW section and chapter titles reflect terminology used in the Common Core.
- NEW easy-to-understand, graphic explanation of the Common Core’s text complexity standard.
- NEW text complexity levels are added for all Sample Texts.

NEW Charts and Tables Further Elicit Understanding of the Common Core

- Organization of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts, p. xvii
- Quick Reference: Where to Find the Common Core in the Sourcebook, p. xvii
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- Common Core State Standard’s Model for Measuring Text Complexity, p. 610
- Qualitative Measures of Text Complexity: Literary and Informational Text, p. 611
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• Fluency (4) | Grades K–5 |
| **READING: Foundational Skills (RF)** | • Print Concepts (1)  
• Phonological Awareness (2)  
• Phonics and Word Recognition (3)  
• Fluency (4) | Grades K–5  
Grades 6–12 |
| **WRITING (W)** | • Text Types and Purposes (1, 2, 3)  
• Production and Distribution of Writing (4, 5, 6)  
• Research to Build and Present Knowledge (7, 8, 9)  
• Range of Writing (10) | Grades K–5  
Grades 6–12 |
| **SPEAKING AND LISTENING (SL)** | • Comprehension and Collaboration (1, 2, 3)  
• Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas (4, 5, 6) | Grades K–5  
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| **LANGUAGE (L)** | • Conventions of Standard English (1, 2)  
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• Vocabulary Acquisition and Use (4, 5, 6) | Grades K–5  
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# Quick Reference: Where to Find the Common Core in the Sourcebook

## COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS

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**KEY**

- **RF.1** Print Concepts
- **RF.2** Phonological Awareness
- **RF.3** Phonics & Word Recognition
- **RF.4** Fluency
- **RL** Literature
- **RI** Informational Text
- **L.1,2** Conventions of Standard English
- **L.4,5,6** Vocabulary Acquisition and Use

*Note: RF stands for Reading: Foundational Skills.*
SECTION III

Decoding and Word Recognition

CHAPTER 6
Phonics

CHAPTER 7
Irregular Word Reading

CHAPTER 8
Multisyllabic Word Reading
Learning to read words is fundamental to understanding text. Although proficient readers use multiple strategies for figuring out unfamiliar words, the most reliable strategy is decoding, the ability to convert a word from print to speech (Adams 1990). To ensure the development of proficiency in reading, students must be taught to decode regular words, to identify irregular words, and to use word parts to read multisyllabic words. This requires a strong foundation of print awareness and phonological awareness. The Road to Reading Words illustrates how awareness of spoken language (phonological awareness) merges with written language to contribute to automatic word recognition.

The three chapters in this section are all related to learning to read words. To clarify how these word reading skills contribute to proficient reading, Marilyn Jager Adams (1990) and Linnea Ehri (2002) provide explanations of how the reading process works.
Phonics is a method of instruction that teaches students the systematic relationship between the letters and letter combinations (graphemes) in written language and the individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken language and how to use these relationships to read and spell words. Phonics instruction—which is intended for beginning readers in the primary grades and for older students who are struggling to read—can help students learn how to convert the printed word into its spoken form (National Reading Panel 2000). This process, called decoding, involves looking at a word and connecting the letters and sounds and then blending those sounds together. Phonics instruction also helps students to understand the alphabetic principle—written letters represent spoken sounds. In other words, letters and sounds work together in systematic ways to allow spoken language to be written down and written language to be read.

**Systematic and Explicit Phonics Instruction**

From 1997 to 1999, the National Reading Panel conducted a meta-analysis to review and evaluate research on the effectiveness of various approaches for teaching children to read (Ehri et al. 2001; National Reading Panel 2000). According to the panel’s findings, students who received systematic and explicit phonics instruction were better readers at the end of instruction than students who received nonsystematic or no phonics instruction (Ehri 2006; Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborn 2001).
Understanding the terms *systematic* and *explicit* is important to planning and implementing effective phonics instruction. The hallmark of *systematic* phonics instruction is teaching a set of useful sound/spelling relationships in a clearly defined, carefully selected, logical instructional sequence (Armbruster et al. 2001). Systematic phonics lessons are organized in such a way that the logic of the alphabetic principle becomes evident, newly introduced skills are built on existing skills, and tasks are arranged from simplest to most complex. According to Marilyn Adams (2001), “the goal of systematic instruction is one of maximizing the likelihood that whenever children are asked to learn something new, they already possess the appropriate prior knowledge and understandings to see its value and to learn it efficiently.” *Explicit* instruction refers to lessons in which concepts are clearly explained and skills are clearly modeled, without vagueness or ambiguity. According to Carnine et al. (2006), “instruction is explicit when the teacher clearly, overtly, and thoroughly communicates to students how to do something.” Learning phonics through explicit teaching requires less inference and discovery on the part of students and is therefore more within their grasp (Chall and Popp 1996).
Based on numerous studies, it has been confirmed that phonics instruction is the best and most efficient way to teach students the alphabetic principle (National Reading Panel 2000). English is an alphabetic language; thus, knowing how written letters represent spoken sounds gives readers a systematic method of reading unfamiliar sounds when they are encountered in text. It is important to note that phonics instruction is just a means to an end—fluent reading and writing. Students’ ability to read words accurately and automatically enables them to focus on text comprehension because less mental energy is required to decode words and more mental energy can be devoted to making meaning from text (Freedman and Calfee 1984; LaBerge and Samuels 1974).

Phonics

systematic phonics instruction helps Kindergartners and first graders acquire the alphabetic knowledge they need to begin learning to spell.

—National Reading Panel, 2000
Phonics instruction increases the ability to comprehend text for beginning readers and older students with reading disabilities.

—National Reading Panel, 2000

That direct instruction in alphabet coding facilitates early reading acquisition is one of the most well-established conclusions in all of behavioral science.

—Stanovich, 1994

Suggested Reading...


When to Teach

Phonics instruction exerts its greatest impact on beginning readers in Kindergarten and Grade 1 and therefore should be implemented at those grade levels (National Reading Panel 2000). Phonics instruction can begin as soon as students know the sounds of a few letters and should continue until students develop the ability to decode multisyllabic words with confidence and automaticity. The nature of instruction changes as students’ skills develop, shifting from sound-by-sound decoding to automatic recognition of letter patterns.

In a study of phonics instruction, Torgesen et al. (2001) found that students who did not master or become fluent in phonics skills by the end of first grade continued to struggle in the future in other areas of reading. According to the National Reading Panel (2000), phonics helped to prevent reading difficulties in beginners at risk for developing reading problems. In fact, effects were significantly greater in first graders at risk for future reading difficulties than in older students who had already become poor readers. Using phonics instruction to remediate reading problems may be harder than using phonics initially to prevent reading difficulties. According to Linnea Ehri (2004), “when phonics instruction is introduced after students have already acquired some reading skill, it may be more difficult to step in and influence how they read because doing so requires changing students’ habits.” For example, students may need to learn to suppress the habit of figuring out a word by using context, illustrations, and the first letter of the word.
Pacing

Research suggests that approximately two years of phonics instruction is typically sufficient for most students (National Reading Panel 2000). Because students differ in how quickly they develop phonics skills, there is no exact formula for how many sound/spellings to introduce per day or week. The pacing of phonics instruction is contingent upon student mastery. Thus, it is critical to adjust pacing to ensure student mastery. According to Carnine et al. (2006), introducing one new letter each second or third day may be an optimal pace for students with little beginning alphabet knowledge. For students who have more background knowledge, letters may be introduced at a quicker pace.

When to Assess and Intervene

Assessment and intervention for beginning readers should focus on understanding the alphabetic principle. Intervention for struggling beginning readers in Kindergarten and first grade should occur as soon as a reading problem is identified through assessment. For beginning readers, initial assessment should also include knowledge of sound/spelling correspondences and move gradually to decoding, including a student’s ability to read simple CVC words. Researchers suggest that the best way to assess a student’s ability to apply knowledge of sound/spelling correspondences in decoding words is to use measures of nonsense-word reading (Carver 2003; Share and Stanovich 1995). This is a good measure of decoding because when a student attempts to read a nonsense word, he or she must rely on phonemic decoding rather than memorization to pronounce the word.

Once beginning readers are able to use the decoding process to read unfamiliar words in print, they should begin developing automatic word recognition skill. Thus, in addition to measuring students’ ability to decode words and nonsense words, it is
important to measure students’ level of decoding automaticity, which is defined by Berninger et al. (2006) as “effortless, context-free retrieval assessed by the rate of single word reading.” According to Berninger et al. (2003), those students who have not developed automaticity by the beginning of second grade are at risk for reading failure. Moreover, Hudson et al. (2006) suggest that when students are unable to use the decoding process fluently, their accuracy in reading connected text suffers. Failing to achieve automaticity in decoding skill can have long-term detrimental effects on all aspects of a student’s reading.

**Older Struggling Readers**

Although intervention should begin early for students who struggle to acquire reading skills, some students will not learn to read in the primary grades. For older readers who are not yet reading fluently, who struggle to recognize individual words, and who consequently have weak fluency and comprehension, intensive intervention is critical. Some of these students, non-readers and very weak readers, will need basic phonics instruction coupled with phonemic awareness development; others will need instruction in word attack skills. For these students, assessment data are crucial to guide teachers in filling in the skill gaps. Like beginning readers, assessment and instruction for older readers who are struggling should include phonemic awareness, sound/spelling correspondences, and decoding.

In addition to remediating phonemic decoding skills for older readers, as students advance into upper elementary and beyond, texts become more complex and require knowledge for decoding multisyllabic words. Thus, for older readers, assessment and instruction should go beyond simple phonics to include more advanced morphological and orthographic knowledge (Henry 2003).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Phonics Assessment</th>
<th>Publisher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Screening</td>
<td>CORE Literacy Library&lt;br&gt;Assessing Reading: Multiple Measures, 2nd Edition&lt;br&gt;- CORE Phonics Survey</td>
<td>Arena Press</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening</td>
<td>Test of Word Reading Efficiency, 2nd Edition (TOWRE-2)&lt;br&gt;- Subtest: Phonetic Decoding Efficiency (PDE)</td>
<td>Pro-Ed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening</td>
<td>AIMSweb® Test of Early Literacy (TEL)&lt;br&gt;- Letter Sound Fluency&lt;br&gt;- Nonsense Word Fluency</td>
<td>Pearson&lt;br&gt;<a href="http://aimsweb.com">http://aimsweb.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening</td>
<td>DIBELS® Next&lt;br&gt;- Nonsense Word Fluency (NWF)</td>
<td>Sopris West&lt;br&gt;<a href="http://dibels.org">http://dibels.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening</td>
<td>easy CBM™&lt;br&gt;- Letter Sounds&lt;br&gt;- Word Fluency</td>
<td>Riverside Publishing&lt;br&gt;<a href="http://easycbm.com">http://easycbm.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening</td>
<td>TPRI Early Reading Assessment&lt;br&gt;- Graphophonemic Knowledge&lt;br&gt;- Word Reading</td>
<td>Texas Education Agency&lt;br&gt;<a href="http://www.tpri.org">http://www.tpri.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening</td>
<td>Word Identification and Spelling Test (WIST)&lt;br&gt;- Word Identification&lt;br&gt;- Spelling&lt;br&gt;- Sound-Symbol Knowledge</td>
<td>Pro-Ed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnostic</td>
<td>Diagnostic Assessments of Reading (DAR), 2nd Edition&lt;br&gt;- Word Recognition</td>
<td>Riverside Publishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnostic</td>
<td>Early Reading Diagnostic Assessment®, 2nd Edition (ERDA)</td>
<td>Pearson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnostic</td>
<td>First Performances™ Fox in a Box®, 2nd Edition&lt;br&gt;- Phonics</td>
<td>CTR/McGraw-Hill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnostic</td>
<td>Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests, 3rd Edition (WRMT™-III)&lt;br&gt;- Word Attack</td>
<td>Pearson</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Explicit instruction in blending CVC words should begin after students know from four to six sound/spellings (Carnine et al. 2006). This sample lesson model targets reading and writing CVC words with the short vowel \(a\). The same model can be adapted and used to introduce CVC words with other short vowels and to enhance phonics instruction in any commercial reading program.

**Phonemic Awareness with Letters**

Give each student letter cards \(a\), \(m\), \(p\), \(s\), and \(t\). Say: *I’m going to name some pictures and I want you to tell me the first sound you hear in each picture name. Then I want you to hold up the letter that makes that sound. Let’s try one.* Show the picture card of the seal. Say: *This is a seal.* Ask: *What’s the name of this picture?* (seal) Say: *Yes, seal.* Ask: *What is the first sound in seal?* (/\(s\)/) Say: *Yes, /\(s\)/.* Ask: *Can you hold up the letter that makes the /\(s\)/ sound?* Monitor students as they hold up the letter \(s\). Follow the same procedure with picture cards of the ant, monkey, paper, and number 10.
Model—Sound-by-Sound Blending

Say: Today I am going to show you how to blend words sound by sound. Watch me blend the first word.

1. Print the first letter in the word *mat* on the board. Say: *Sound?* Simultaneously point to the letter *m* and say: /mmm/.

2. Print the letter *a* after the letter *m* on the board. Say: *Sound?* Simultaneously point to the letter *a* and say: /aaa/.

3. Point just to the left of *ma* and say: *Blend.* Then scoop your finger under the *m* and *a* as you blend the sounds together without a break: /mmmaaa/.

4. Print the letter *t* after the letter *a* on the board. Say: *Sound?* Simultaneously point to the letter *t* and say: /t/.

5. Point just to the left of *mat* and say: *Blend.* Then scoop your finger from left to right under the whole word as you slowly blend the sounds together without a break: /mmmaaat/.

6. Finally, point just to the left of *mat* and say: *Now watch as I read the whole word.* Then quickly sweep your finger under the whole word and say *mat.* Say: *A mat is like a rug. It covers a floor and people can wipe their feet on it. Mat.*

Repeat the same routine with the word *pat.*
Lead—Sound-by-Sound Blending

Say: Now I am going to lead you in sounding out words. You’re going to sound out some words along with me.

1. Print the first letter in the word *tap* on the board. Say: *Sound?* Point to the letter *t* and have students respond along with you: /t/.

2. Print the letter *a* after the letter *t* on the board. Say: *Sound?* Point to the letter *a* and have students respond along with you: /aaa/.

3. Point just to the left of *ta*. Say: *Blend.* Then scoop your finger under the *t* and *a* as you lead students in blending the sounds together without a break: /taaa/.

4. Print the letter *p* after the letter *a* on the board. Say: *Sound?* Point to the letter *p* and have students respond along with you: /p/.

5. Point to the left of *tap* and say: *Blend.* Then scoop your finger from left to right under the whole word as you lead students in slowly blending the sounds together without a break: *tap*.

6. Finally, point just to the left of *tap* and say: *Let’s read the whole word.* Then quickly sweep your finger under the word as you lead students in saying the whole word: *tap.* Say: *I heard a light tap on the door,* *tap.*

Repeat the same routine with the words *Sam* and *Pat.*
Check—Sound-by-Sound Blending

Say: Now it’s your turn to sound out words. Remember, when I point to a letter, say the sound for that letter. When I scoop my finger under the letters, blend the sounds together. When I sweep my finger under the word, say the whole word.

1. Print the first letter in the word map on the board. Ask: Sound? Point to the letter m to signal students to respond. (/mmm/)

2. Print the letter a after the letter m on the board. Ask: Sound? Point to the letter a to signal students to respond. (/aaa/)

3. Point just to the left of ma and say: Blend the sounds. Then scoop your finger under the letters from left to right to signal students to respond. (/mmmaaa/)

4. Print the letter p after the letter a on the board. Ask: Sound? Point to the letter p to signal students to respond. (/p/)

5. Point just to the left of map and say: Blend the sounds. Scoop your finger from left to right under the word as students blend the sounds together without a break. (map)

6. Finally, point just to the left of map. Quickly sweep your finger under the word to signal students to respond by saying the whole word. (map)

Repeat the same routine with the words at, am, sat, mat, Sam, pat, Pam, sap, and tap. When you are finished, develop students’ vocabulary by going back and clarifying the meaning of any unfamiliar words. To build word reading automaticity, have students read the list of words again, this time at a faster pace and only with nonverbal signals.
CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK  If a student or students respond incorrectly, stop immediately and model the correct response for the entire group and then ask the entire group to respond. For blending errors, first model blending the word and then lead students in blending it again. For sound/spelling errors, immediately say the correct sound, for example, /mmm/. Then point to the letter m and ask: Sound? (/mmm/) Say: Yes, the sound is /mmm/.

Apply to Decodable Text
To ensure ample practice in sound/spelling correspondences, provide students with connected reading materials. Choose books or passages in which most of the words are wholly decodable and the majority of the remaining words are previously taught irregular words.

Word Work: Elkonin Boxes with Letters
Explain to students that they are going to spell some words. Say: I am going to say a word and then together we will count how many sounds we hear in the word. The first word is map, /mmmaap/. I hear three sounds in map. With your palm toward you, so students can see the progression from left to right, hold up your first finger as you say /mmm/, then hold up your second finger as you say /aaa/, and finally hold up your third finger as you say /p/. Then ask: How many sounds in map? (three) Say: Now let’s count the sounds again. Have students hold up their fingers as they count along with you. Say: Now I am going to draw three boxes. Each box will stand for a sound in map.

|        |        |        |
On a dry-erase board, draw a three-box grid as shown. Point to the first box in the grid and say /mmm/, point to the middle box and say /aaa/, and then point to the last box and say /p/. Say: *Now I will lead you in saying each sound in map as I print the spelling that stands for that sound.* Say: *The first sound in map is /mmm/.* Print the letter *m* into the first box as the students say /mmm/ along with you. Say: *The middle sound in map is /aaa/.* Print the letter *a* in the middle box as students say /aaa/ along with you. Say: *The last sound in map is /p/.* Print the letter *p* into the last box as students say /p/ along with you.

![Grid with boxes labeled m, a, p]

Say: *Now let's read the whole word.* Slide your finger under the grid from left to right as you lead students in saying the whole word: *map.* Say: *Now let's spell the word.* Point to each letter from left to right as you lead students in saying each letter name along with you. (m-a-p) Repeat the same procedure using the word *mat.* Then, following the same procedure with words such as *sap* and *sat,* ask volunteers to draw the grid and print the letters in the boxes.

### Questions for Observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions for Observation</th>
<th>Benchmarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>(Point to the word map.)</em> Can you sound out this word?</td>
<td>Student can blend CVC words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The word is <em>map.</em> Can you spell this word? (m-a-p)</td>
<td>Student can spell CVC words.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION VI

Comprehension

CHAPTER 14

Literary Text

CHAPTER 15

Informational Text
Comprehension is often viewed as “the essence of reading” (Durkin 1993). It involves interacting with text, using intentional thinking to construct meaning. The RAND Reading Study Group (RRSG 2002) defines reading comprehension as “the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language.” Harris and Hodges (1995) refer to it as “the construction of the meaning of a written text through a reciprocal interchange of ideas between the reader and the message in a particular text.” Perfetti (1985) simply calls it “thinking guided by print.”

Fundamentals of Comprehension

Reading comprehension consists of three interrelated elements—the text that is to be comprehended, the reader who is doing the comprehension, and the activity and related tasks in which comprehension is a part—all set within a larger social and cultural context that shapes and is shaped by the reader (RRSG 2002).

The Reader

To match texts to readers, the characteristics of the reader must be taken into consideration. Each reader brings to the act of reading a unique set of competencies that affect comprehension. These competencies vary not only from reader to reader, but also within an individual, depending on the text and the activity. Reader competencies include reading fluency, vocabulary knowledge, general world knowledge, knowledge of specific comprehension strategies, and motivational factors such as interest in the content or self-efficacy as a reader (RRSG 2002).
Literary Text
Stories and other narrative texts are a type of literary text. Narratives tell a story, expressing connected, event-based experiences. The story could be the invention of an author or the retelling of a tale from oral tradition. According to Williams (2005), “children develop sensitivity to narrative story structure early and use it to comprehend simple stories before they enter school.” By the time most children enter school, they already have had stories read aloud to them and have watched stories on TV and in movies. They connect with these texts because events in life often include the same elements—they sometimes have a beginning, a middle, and an ending; they occur in a particular time and place; there are key players, sometimes in conflict; issues are resolved for better or for worse; and sometimes there is a lesson learned.

**Story Structure**

Story structure pertains to how stories and their plots are systematically organized into a predictable format. Knowing about story structure provides a framework that helps students to discover what is most relevant for understanding a story (Williams 2002). Most narratives are organized around a set of elements, sometimes referred to as *story grammar* (Mandler 1987). Story elements include setting, characters, plot, and theme. Stories often begin by describing the setting and characters, then indicating a particular problem faced by one of the characters. Then the story explains how the problem is solved, concluding by showing how the characters were affected by the events.
Setting
The setting of a story tells when and where the story takes place. Some stories have specific settings, while others take place at some indefinite time (e.g., the future) or in some indefinite place (e.g., an unnamed country). The setting also can change within a story—moving back (flashback) or jumping ahead (flash-forward) before returning to the main time frame of the story.

Characters
Characters are the people, animals, or creatures in a story. The main character, also known as the protagonist, moves the action forward, sometimes by acting against a villain or rival, the antagonist. To understand a character, readers must be able to tap into characterization techniques: what the author states directly about the character; what the character says, does, and thinks; and how other story characters react and respond to the character. The main character’s motivation—sometimes explicit, sometimes implied—drives the plot.

Plot
The plot of a story tells what happened and gives the story a beginning, a middle, and an ending. It is the sum of a series of events. In general, the components of a narrative plot include

- the problem a character faces—the conflict;
- the sequence of events that happens as the character attempts to solve the problem;
- the outcome, or resolution, of the attempts to solve the problem.

Theme
The theme is the big idea that the author wants the reader to take away from reading the story. Williams (2002) explains that a theme “expresses a relationship among story elements and comments on that relationship in some way.” The theme can be expressed as a lesson or an observation that is generalized beyond the specifics of the story plot.
Teaching students to identify and represent story structure improves their comprehension of narratives, a type of literary text (RRSG 2002). It also enhances students’ memory and recall of text and helps them organize and write stories (Short and Ryan 1984; Fitzgerald and Teasley 1986). One reason that students’ understanding of text structure supports reading comprehension is that structures are common across texts (Coyne et al. 2007). Being aware of the “samenesses” across texts allows students to consider authors’ messages in a broader context of literature and the world (Carnine and Kinder 1985). Knowing about story structure elements gives students a frame of reference for processing and remembering story information (Dickson, Simmons, and Kame’enui 1998). Story structure elements provide the framework for applying comprehension strategies to most literary text (Pearson and Fielding 1991; Graesser, Golding, and Long 1991).

Research Findings...

Through extensive reading of stories . . . , students gain literary and cultural knowledge as well as familiarity with various text structures and elements.

Instruction of the content and organization of stories improves story comprehension, measured by the ability of the reader to answer questions and recall what was read.
Helping students to recognize the structure inherent in text—and match it to their own cognitive structures—will help them understand and produce not only text but also spoken discourse.

—WILLIAMS, 2005

Story structure instruction shows positive effects for a wide range of students, from kindergarten to the intermediate grades to high school to special populations, and to students identified as struggling readers.

—DUKE & PEARSON, 2002

Suggested Reading . . .


when?

**When to Teach**

Comprehension instruction should begin as soon as students start to interact with text and should continue through high school (Duke and Pearson 2002; Pressley and Block 2002; RRSG 2002). Effective teaching balances explicit comprehension strategies instruction with the literary experience of a story. For students as young as preschoolers, storybook read-alouds provide opportunities for modeling and practicing strategies applications (Lane and Wright 2007). When students begin to read stories on their own, they learn to apply comprehension strategies in tandem with decoding and word-level strategies. As they progress through the grades, students apply strategies to increasingly complex stories (Carnine et al. 2006). Thus, many adolescent literacy researchers advocate explicit comprehension strategies instruction, particularly for struggling readers (Brown 2002; Alvermann and Eakle 2003; Fisher and Frey 2004; Raphael et al. 2001).

**When to Assess and Intervene**

Comprehension instruction should be accompanied by reliable assessment aligned with instruction (Lehr and Osborn 2005). Yet, according to researchers (RRSG 2002; Spear-Swerling 2006; Klingner et al. 2007), most traditional assessments are inadequate in several ways in that they: (1) often confuse comprehension with vocabulary, background knowledge, word reading ability, and other reading skills, (2) fail to represent the complexity of comprehension, based on current understandings,
and (3) do not distinguish specific processes that underlie comprehension problems, or explain why a student is struggling. Therefore, traditional assessments should be combined with teachers’ ongoing informal assessment of students’ comprehension and strategy use. Retellings, student think-alouds, and other process-focused measures may serve as useful tools for diagnosing and remediating comprehension problems. Think-aloud protocols, in particular, are among the most significant advances in comprehension assessment tools, making comprehension processes more visible (Pearson and Hamm 2005; Pressley and Hilden 2005).

### When to Apply Comprehension Strategies in Literary Text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRATEGY</th>
<th>BEFORE READING: To orient students to the story and task</th>
<th>DURING READING: To build an understanding of the story</th>
<th>AFTER READING: To check whether students understood the story</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recognizing Story Structure</td>
<td>Use story elements as a framework for reading.</td>
<td>Identify story elements as they appear in the text.</td>
<td>Use story elements to check understanding of the story.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicting</td>
<td>Generate predictions about the story.</td>
<td>Verify, adapt, and add predictions about the story.</td>
<td>Review accuracy of predictions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring Comprehension</td>
<td>Keep in mind that the goal of reading is to understand the story.</td>
<td>Note if the story is making sense, and use fix-up strategies as needed.</td>
<td>Reflect on what the story was about and whether it made sense.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecting to World Knowledge</td>
<td>Preview text to connect it with prior knowledge.</td>
<td>Use knowledge/experiences to make sense of the story.</td>
<td>Connect the story to life experiences and other reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking Questions</td>
<td>Generate questions about what will happen.</td>
<td>Ask questions to clarify confusing story elements.</td>
<td>Ask higher-order questions to extend story understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answering Questions</td>
<td>Answer questions about the title and illustrations.</td>
<td>Answer questions about the plot and other story elements.</td>
<td>Answer higher-order questions to extend learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructing Mental Images</td>
<td>Create a mental picture based on the story title.</td>
<td>Visualize ongoing story events.</td>
<td>Visualize the overall story (a “mental movie”).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing/Retelling</td>
<td>Plan to be able to retell or summarize the story.</td>
<td>Build partial retellings as the story progresses.</td>
<td>Retell or summarize the story, orally or in writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**See Also . . .**

CORE Literacy Library
*Assessing Reading: Multiple Measures, 2nd Edition*
This sample lesson model offers a snapshot of Transactional Strategies Instruction (TSI), a multiple-strategy instruction approach developed by Michael Pressley and colleagues (Pressley, El-Dinary et al. 1992). Through teacher-student dialogue while reading, TSI emphasizes coordinated use of strategies to help students to build and monitor comprehension. Strategies are first introduced individually, following the model for explicit instruction. Over time, responsibility for strategy choices shifts from the teacher to the students. TSI has proven effective for a range of struggling readers, from primary-grade students to adolescents (Gaskins and Elliot 1991; Brown et al. 1996).

This lesson model differs somewhat from the original TSI; it is, however, consistent with TSI’s emphasis on knowing where and when to use particular strategies. In this lesson model, sample text is used to represent a selection at students’ independent reading level. The same model can be adapted and used to enhance comprehension instruction for literary or informational text in any commercial reading or content-area program—as long as the text is at the appropriate level.

Review: Comprehension Strategies
Display a copy of the Comprehension Strategies and Questions teaching chart, such as the example shown on the following page. Remind students that using comprehension strategies can help them understand and remember what they read. Point out that they have used each of these strategies individually, and they have had some practice in choosing which strategy to use. Review the chart with students. For each strategy, review the description and then call on students to read aloud the questions they can ask to help them in applying the strategy.
### Comprehension Strategies and Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strategy</strong></th>
<th><strong>Questions I Can Ask</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Monitor Comprehension**  | • Does this make sense?  
                           | • What fix-up strategy can I use to figure it out?                                                          |
| **Connect to World Knowledge** | • Connect: What do I already know about this?  
                           | Have I had a similar experience?  
                           | • Verify: Is what I know really related to the text?  
                           | • Decide: Is what I know helping me to understand the text?                                                   |
| **Predict**                | • Predict: What do I think will happen next?  
                           | What makes me think so?  
                           | • Verify: Does the text support my prediction?  
                           | • Decide: Was my prediction accurate?  
                           | Do I need to change it?                                                                                     |
| **Construct Mental Images**| • Visualize: What does this (person, place, thing) look like?  
                           | What makes me think so?  
                           | • Verify: Does the text support my image?  
                           | • Decide: Was my image accurate?  
                           | Do I need to change it?                                                                                     |
| **Ask Questions**          | • What am I curious about?  
                           | • What do I want to know more about?                                                                        |
| **Summarize**              | • Where and when does the story take place? (setting)  
                           | • Who is the story about? (characters)  
                           | • What is the problem the character faces? (problem)  
                           | • What happens as the character tries to solve the problem? (sequence of events)  
                           | • How does the story turn out?  
                           | Does the character solve the problem? (outcome)  
                           | • What lesson did you learn from the story? (theme)                                                         |

#### Fix-Up Strategies
- Reread
- Look back
- Read on
- Guess (using context clues)
- Ask someone
- Check a reference
James Ryder reported to police that Horner fixed a pipe in the Countess's room. It was no bigger than a bean, but it sparkled like a star. Ryder gasped. “See what my wife found in its crop!” He held out a dazzling blue stone. “It’s too valuable about it?” Holmes said. “I look at it this way, Watson. Ryder is too afraid to become a criminal. Now, I think it’s time to find the owner of the goose.”

At 6:30 sharp, Henry Baker knocked on Holmes’s door. Holmes handed him a newspaper article: “Found on Goodge Street: 1 black felt hat. Mr. Henry Baker can have same—221B Baker Street.”

“I bet you five pounds those were country geese,” said Holmes. “Aha! Them’s not our geese,” the innkeeper answered. “I got them from a different goose.”

“Which, surely, he returned to their owner?” asked I.

“Don’t be a saddo,” replied Holmes. “I’m sure the goose is dead. It laid an egg, after it was dead. The brightest little blue egg I ever saw.”

“True, the owner’s name—Henry Baker—is stitched inside the hat, but there are hundreds of Henry Bakers in London. It would be impossible to find the right one,” said Watson. “You might have the hat, but no goose.”

“By the way,” asked Holmes, “could you tell me where your goose came from? It was delicious.”

“Manager of the Hotel Cosmopolitan. Come to my place. I’ll tell you everything.”

We were interrupted by shouts. Mr. Breckinridge was yelling at a rat-faced man. “Where’s everybody asking about those geese? ‘Where do they come from? I run a flock to Breckinridge, including one of her two bar-taileds. The rest you know.”

The man turned red, “Well, then. It’s James Ryder.”

“Ah, yes. Manager of the Hotel Cosmopolitan. Come to my place. I’ll tell you everything.”

“Peterson, put this ad in all the papers and bring me a new goose!”

Holmes read, “Mrs. Oakshott, 117 Brixton Road, number 249.”

“Watson? Chicken sounds good tonight.”

“Anything for a bet! We’ll visit Mrs. Oakshott tomorrow. Shall we have dinner, Watson?”

“Peterson, follow this clue while it’s still hot.”

Peterson brought back a small goose, “Mrs. Oakshott, 117 Brixton Road, number 249.”

“Ah, yes. Manager of the Hotel Cosmopolitan. Come to my place. I’ll tell you everything.”

“Watson, you’re just who I am looking for!” exclaimed the man. “I say we eat dinner later. Let’s follow this clue while it’s still hot.”

We were interrupted by shouts. Breckinridge fumed, “Why’s everybody asking about those geese? ‘Where do they come from? I run a flock to Breckinridge, including one of her two bar-taileds. The rest you know.”

Holmes said, “I look at it this way, Watson. Ryder is too afraid to become a criminal. Now, I think it’s time to find the owner of the goose.”

Holmes crashed down the stairs, slammed the door, and ran away.

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Teach/Model: Preview the Story
Continue displaying the Comprehension Strategies chart and the Predictions Worksheet. Distribute copies of “The Case of the Blue Carbuncle” to the group. Say: I’m going to think aloud to show you how to use the strategies in coordination. Each time I use a strategy, I will point to it on the Comprehension Strategies chart. As I read, I will record information on the Predictions Worksheet.

**THINK ALOUD** Good readers make connections between what they already know and what they are reading. The first thing I see on the page is a picture. Using my world knowledge, I think this man is a detective. I remember an old movie in which a detective wore a hat like that. It looks like he’s studying something pretty closely, which is something detectives do. So, I’m going to predict that this is a mystery or detective story. On the Predictions Worksheet, I’m going to print my first prediction and what makes me think so.

+ **Connect to World Knowledge, Predict**
THINK ALOUD  Now I’m going to read the title of the story. The title is “The Case of the Blue Carbuncle.” The word case in the title typically relates to a mystery, or to a crime. I think that’s good enough evidence to confirm my prediction about this being a mystery. On the Predictions Worksheet, I am going to print my evidence under Confirm.

THINK ALOUD  Good readers constantly monitor, or check, their comprehension. There is a word in the title that is new to me. I have no idea what a carbuncle is. I don’t even know enough to make a good guess. I only know that this one is blue. I believe I’ll read on to see if I can find story clues to help me figure out what this word means. Reading on, or reading ahead for more information, is a fix-up strategy. As I read, I’m also going to ask myself, “What’s a carbuncle?” Right now, I’m applying a variety of strategies.

Teachable Moment: Mystery Genre

THINK ALOUD  Since I’m pretty sure this is a mystery, I’m going to stop and connect to what I know about mysteries. The setting for a mystery is often the scene of a crime or a detective’s office. The characters typically include detectives and suspects. The problem is a mysterious event—a crime to be solved or an unexplained occurrence. The sequence of events involves a series of clues that give hints about motives (or reasons) and opportunities for various characters to commit the crime. Some clues are helpful, and some are not. Misleading clues are called red herrings—they are meant to throw the reader off track and give the mystery more exciting twists and turns. The outcome of the story is typically the solution to the mystery. I’m going to use what I know about mysteries to help me make sense of this story. I know a mystery is confusing at the beginning, revealing information little by little as the plot progresses.

Teachable moments—introducing, reviewing, and suggesting strategies based on students’ immediate needs—are effective tools for responsive instruction (Pressley, El-Dinary et al. 1992).
Teach/Model: Read the Story Aloud

Read the story aloud to students as they follow along in their texts. Stop to model strategy use as indicated. As you apply each strategy, refer to it on the Comprehension Strategies chart. Continue recording information on the Prediction Worksheet.

“What are you investigating today?” I asked my friend Sherlock Holmes as I walked into his apartment. He did not reply, so I moved in to see what he was holding under his magnifying glass.

**THINK ALOUD** Sherlock Holmes—that’s a famous name. My world knowledge is that he is a fictional character, so I know for sure this mystery is fiction. I also know that Sherlock Holmes has a sidekick named Dr. Watson. Since the first quote here says, “I asked my friend Sherlock Holmes,” I predict that the narrator is Watson. On the Predictions Worksheet, I’m going to print my second prediction and what makes me think so. ◀ Connect to World Knowledge, Predict
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