

Best Practices in Early Literacy Instruction



Edited by

Diane M. Barone
Marla H. Mallette



THE GUILFORD PRESS
New York London

(2010)

CHAPTER 10



Reading to Learn from the Beginning

COMPREHENSION INSTRUCTION IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

KATHERINE A. DOUGHERTY STAHL

GUIDING QUESTIONS

- ❖ What developmental tendencies must be considered when planning comprehension instruction in the early grades?
- ❖ What are the essential elements of a comprehensive comprehension curriculum?

OVERVIEW OF THE TOPIC

In the early grades, exemplary comprehension instruction is likely to be framed within a context that applies experiences, oral language, visual representations, writing, and reading in tandem around engaging content. It doesn't exist in a vacuum nor is it isolated from the comprehensive primary content curriculum. Figure 10.1 presents a model of the essential elements that are likely to lead to the development of readers who can reflect high levels of comprehension in oral and written response formats.

Current research and learning standards that are used to inform effective comprehension instruction indicate that it should be situated in functional learning contexts (Common Core State Standards Initiative [CCSSI], 2010; Shanahan et al., 2010). Hopefully, the radical extremes of children directing their own development as they read silently in isolation or drills on main idea identification, rote generation

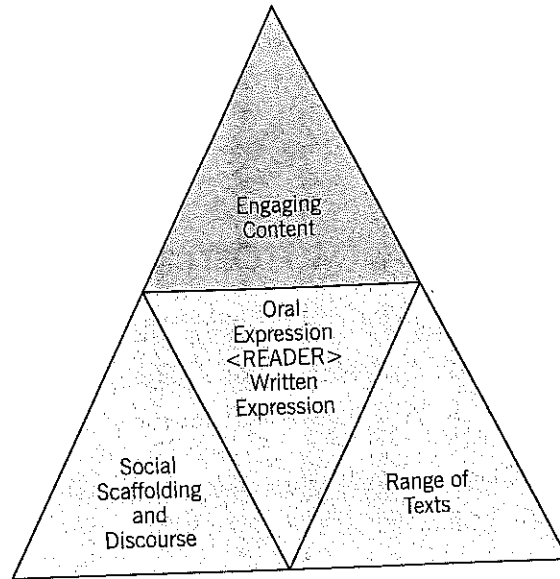


FIGURE 10.1. Essential elements of effective comprehension instruction.

of predictions, or teaching children to parrot text–self, text–text, text–world connections are practices relegated to the past. Exemplary comprehension instruction is multifaceted, contextualized, and requires intentional, responsive teaching. A level of instructional complexity is added in the primary grades because teachers need to facilitate the shift from listening comprehension to reading comprehension while balancing time for instruction in foundational reading skills (phonological awareness, decoding, and fluency). Seeing as comprehension is an in-head, invisible process, good instruction also requires explicitly teaching children to reflect their comprehension through oral language and writing (Stahl, 2009a; Stahl, Garcia, Bauer, Pearson, & Taylor, 2006).

Of key importance is the recognition by teachers that instructional adjustments must occur as children gradually become fluent, competent readers. While the preliminary instruction will be conducted with videos, teacher read-alouds, and during shared reading, the target should always be the creation of independent, thoughtful, self-regulating readers. The RAND report (RAND Reading Study Group, 2002) defines comprehension as “the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language” (p. 11). Teachers in the primary grades must be deliberate in building bridges between comprehension of visual media, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension. Finally, it is important to recognize that foundational skills are necessary but not sufficient to achieve high levels of reading comprehension and should not dominate the early literacy curriculum (Paris, 2005; Stahl, 2011).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH BASE

Considering Development

The skills, abilities, and knowledge that contribute to comprehension develop across a lifetime. The development of narrative, the understanding and expression of temporal relationships, concept categorization, and the ever-increasing collection of world experiences all influence the dynamic and ongoing growth in one's ability to comprehend text (Kintsch, 1998; Nelson, 1996). As a result, young children are able to comprehend many texts before they are able to read them and in contrast, there may be texts that novice readers may decode accurately without fully comprehending.

Constrained skills theory explicates the ways that the unconstrained abilities of comprehension and vocabulary differ from highly constrained skills such as letter identification and phonics (Paris, 2005). Phonological awareness and fluency are considered moderately constrained. Highly constrained skills have a finite number of items to be learned so mastery occurs within a short time span. The developmental trajectory goes from no knowledge to mastery within a relatively short period of time depending on the size of the set of items. Variability by child lasts only for a short period. For example, in kindergarten there is a great deal of variability in letter identification by students. This variability diminishes by first grade as all students master letter-name identification. Once constrained skills are mastered, they can be transferred uniformly in all settings. The silent *e* rule works equally well whether the silent *e* word is found in a first-grade book or a medical journal. However, the ability to comprehend never reaches mastery. One can have high levels of comprehension with some texts and minimal comprehension of other texts. Each reader's prior knowledge and vocabulary have a strong influence on comprehension. Text factors such as readability, genre, and conceptual density influence one's reading comprehension. Finally, comprehension may be manipulated by adjusting the instructional context and the purpose for reading.

Historically, there has been a greater emphasis on mastering constrained skills and reading simple texts fluently in the early grades while learning how to make sense of complex narrative texts and acquiring new knowledge from informational texts, emphasized in the intermediate grades and beyond. However, the youngest readers need opportunities to be "code breakers, meaning makers, text users and text critics" (Muspratt, Luke, & Freebody, 1997, p. 95). Although we recognize that phonological awareness, decoding abilities, and reading fluency are the foundational building blocks for effective reading, today we know that comprehension instruction must occur from the very beginning, even well before the child begins to read (Dooley, 2010; Shanahan et al., 2010; Stahl, 2009b). Instruction of foundational skills to mastery levels must be a priority in the primary grades. However, evidence indicates that the correlation between foundational skills and reading comprehension diminishes over time (Paris, Carpenter, Paris, & Hamilton, 2005;

Schwanenflugel et al., 2006). As a result, schools that allow foundational skills to dominate the early literacy curriculum will pay the price in the intermediate grades when accountability stakes for comprehension are raised and spotlighted.

Adults can begin holding children accountable for comprehension well before they are able to independently read sophisticated texts. Conducting adult read-alouds embedded with and followed by rich conversation is a good starting point. Additionally, we now have evidence indicating that comprehension skills transfer across different types of media (Goldman, Varma, Sharp, & Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt, 1999; Kendeou, Bohn-Gettler, White, & van den Broek, 2008; Kendeou et al., 2006). The ability to comprehend is not limited to one medium (print, video, audio). Further, narrative comprehension skills applied by young children to video and audio presentations tend to predict comprehension skills when reading printed text later in elementary school (Kendeou et al., 2006). Put another way, a preschooler who can summarize the key points of a video is also likely to be able to summarize the key ideas based on a teacher read-aloud and later, when he or she is reading a text. This implies that teachers of young children should be assertive in dedicating time to the comprehension of texts read to and with children, as well as supporting students in becoming accountable for comprehending video presentations. Teachers can direct young students' attention to narrative structure, concept organization, and causal, sequential event streams during reading, writing, video viewing, and oral language experiences.

Instructional Considerations

Although the majority of research investigating reading comprehension has been conducted in the intermediate grades and beyond, we do have a body of research that can be used to inform comprehension instruction in the early grades (Shanahan et al., 2010; Stahl, 2004). Shanahan et al. reviewed over 800 studies conducted in the primary grades over the last 20 years. After analyzing 27 studies that met rigorous research standards, they came up with a set of five recommendations for teaching comprehension in the early grades (see Table 10.1). The level of evidence for each practice ranged from strong to minimal. Recommendations with minimal evidence in the primary grades were included because of their potential for developing critical literacy and high levels of thinking. What became clear through this body of work is that these recommendations need to be used in concert with each other. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that explicit instruction, modeling, and guided practice need to lead to increasing levels of student independence (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983; see Figure 10.2). This gradual release of responsibility needs to be employed whether teaching strategies, teaching conversational moves, reading a complex text, or writing in response to reading. It is a structural thread that will be woven throughout all aspects of comprehension instruction because comprehension varies by context and mastery is elusive.

TABLE 10.1. Evidence-Based Practices for Comprehension Instruction in the Early Grades

Recommendation	Evidence
Teach students how to use comprehension strategies.	Strong
Teach students to identify and use the text's structure to comprehend, learn, and remember content.	Moderate
Guide students through focused, high-quality discussion on the meaning of text.	Minimal
Select texts purposefully to support comprehension.	Minimal
Establish an engaging and motivating context in which to teach comprehension.	Moderate

Note. Based on Shanahan et al. (2010, p. 9).

Creating Engagement

It is somewhat idealistic and unrealistic to believe that classroom teachers can follow and build instruction around individual student interests. What we can do is inspire student interest. Teachers have a great deal of power and the responsibility to create an engaging context (Guthrie et al., 2004; Morrow, Pressley, & Smith, 1995). Using disciplinary themes based on content standards generates student interest and supports reading for authentic purposes (Cervetti, Pearson, Bravo, & Barber, 2006; Purcell-Gates, Duke, & Martineau, 2007). Building conceptual knowledge serves as a scaffold for reading comprehension. In addition to providing an opportunity for deep study of a topic, repeated exposure to target vocabulary, and reading and writing for authentic purposes, units of themed study provide opportunities

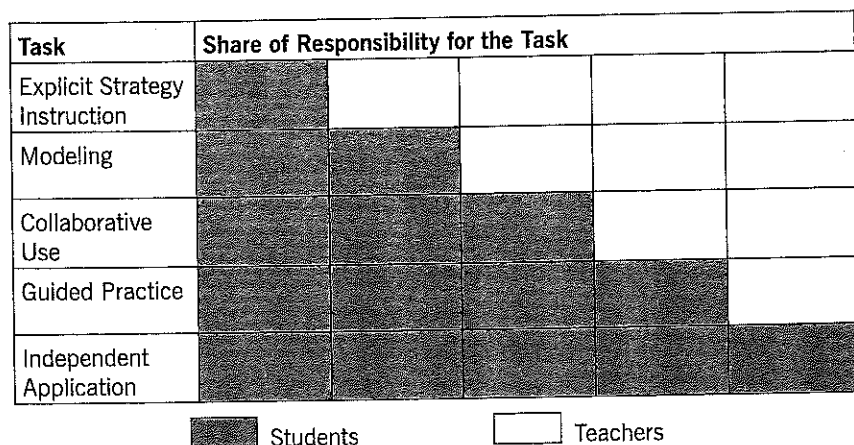


FIGURE 10.2. The gradual release of responsibility. Based on Duke and Pearson (2002), Pearson and Gallagher (1983), and Shanahan et al. (2010, p. 15).

for students to read a range of texts about a particular topic. These texts serve as anchor texts for student writing using the conventions of that discipline. They also provide the vehicle for a series of lessons on comprehension strategy instruction in functional ways. For example, a literary unit on fairytales provides a logical context for teaching narrative story structure. Reading multiple fairytales during a unit provides an opportunity to create a series of lessons moving from explicit instruction to independent practice over time (see Figure 10.2). It also allows for authentic opportunities for students to express increasing knowledge of the genre through both oral and written expression. As students gain increasing knowledge about the topic, opportunities for independent reading and writing choices abound and complement the shared experiences presented to the classroom community. State standards for literature, science, and social studies provide the fodder for developing units of study that are ripe with opportunities for engaging, comprehensive comprehension instruction.

Social Scaffolding and Discourse

Social interactions with teachers, parents, and peers help students put language to in-head processing. Whether it is hearing a teacher think aloud the strategies for figuring out a confusing bit of a textbook, hearing a peer describe a unique perspective on the events in a story, participating in a literary book club, or collaborating on a research project, social interactions extend comprehension beyond what is possible when students read text as a solitary activity. A conference can provide a brief opportunity for a teacher to check in on students individually but the time allocation in a class of 20 children doesn't allow for deep teaching or multilayered, compelling conversation during the exchange.

Comprehension Strategies

The range of genres encountered in themed units provides the vehicle for teaching comprehension strategies and text structures in service to reading comprehension. While it is important to teach each strategy individually using explicit instruction, they need to be viewed as a collective repertoire (Brown, Pressley, Van Meter, & Schuder, 1996; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Schuder, 1993). Although instruction in a single strategy can improve comprehension (e.g., Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993; Morrow, 1985), evidence seems to indicate that good readers use multiple strategies in flexible ways (Kintsch, 1998; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). There is strong evidence to support the instruction of the following strategies:

- ◆ Targeted activation of prior knowledge leading to purposeful predictions.
- ◆ Identification of narrative and expository text structures.

- ◆ Visualizing.
- ◆ Questions: Answering and asking high-level questions.
- ◆ Taking stock: Summarizing and retelling.
- ◆ Generating inferences.
- ◆ Monitoring and applying fix-up strategies.

Instruction should begin with an explicit explanation of declarative, procedural, and conditional information about the strategy (Duffy, 1993; Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983). First, one should describe the strategy to the students (declarative knowledge). Additionally, it is necessary to explain and demonstrate a procedure for applying the strategy or how to do it. Conditional knowledge includes a discussion of why the strategy is useful, when it's useful and when it is not likely to be useful.

Before expecting students to apply the strategies independently, a gradual release of responsibility needs to take place (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983; see Figure 10.2). After explicitly teaching a strategy, the teacher might model the strategy using a think-aloud. Next, individual students model the strategy within the whole-class setting. Scaffolding moves from highly supportive activities to minimally supported activities. A sequence might move along a continuum of social support such as think-pair-share within a whole-class discussion, a teacher-led small group, and a student-led small group, followed by a partner activity before a child is called on to assume independent responsibility. It is at this final stage that the conference is useful, but teaching and guided practice must precede it.

Teachers of young children can also consider strategy application in more or less supportive media, such as moving from experiences to video to little book to complex picturebook to chapter book without pictures to hypertext. Finally, representation of the ideas would also move from oral to written expression. Teachers need to be mindful that if moving to a less supportive social scaffold one may want to begin students in an easier medium and move to more challenging media as students demonstrate success.

A few cautions are warranted regarding strategy instruction. First, the primary goal of reading is comprehension, not applying reading strategies. Strategy application should be viewed as a tool to overcome hurdles to meaning making, not the goal of reading instruction. If generating predictions takes longer than text reading, strategy instruction may be dominating instruction in unhealthy ways. Second, although taught individually, students need to be able to apply multiple strategies flexibly in response to hurdles.

Reciprocal teaching (RT), a multiple-strategy protocol, has been applied successfully in the primary grades (Coley, DePinto, Craig, & Gardner, 1993; Palincsar, 1988, 1991). During RT, each child in the small-group setting takes turns acting as teacher to discuss a segment of text applying a routine for clarifying, questioning,

summarizing, and predicting. RT is useful for providing temporary guided practice in strategy application before children move to more flexible, independent, in-head application. Once the routine is taught, it can be used whenever students are required to read a difficult text. Transactional strategy instruction (TSI) also has a strong research base in the primary grades (Brown & Coy-Ogan, 1993; Brown et al., 1996; Schuder, 1993). Each comprehension strategy is taught explicitly, but the text discussions incorporate all of the strategies in organic ways. TSI is long term and the strategies propel text discussions.

High-Level Discussion

Both RT and TSI conversations are structured around comprehension strategies and have been demonstrated to contribute to deep reading. However, deep reading that leads to comprehension can also be facilitated by high-level discussions that are not built around strategy application (Beck & McKeown, 2001; McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994; Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999; Stahl, 2009b; Taylor, Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 2000; Taylor, Peterson, Pearson, & Rodriguez, 2002). Discussions about text may be teacher-led or student-led. They may involve the whole class or a small group. In the discussions observed by Taylor and her colleagues, effective teachers asked high-level questions in whole-class settings that addressed text themes, personal connections, and required students to make inferences.

Two instructional protocols provide frames for implementing high-level discussions in response to text. Text Talk is a teacher read-aloud discussion protocol that incorporates targeted prereading discussions, high-level questioning, and elaborated vocabulary development activities to support young children's comprehension of sophisticated picturebooks (Beck & McKeown, 2001). By emphasizing questioning and deemphasizing each book's pictures, this protocol helps children begin to use each book's language as the source of meaning. Both English-only and English Learners (ELs) reaped the benefits of small-group Instructional Conversations that followed shared reading of rich literature (Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999). Students responded in writing to teacher-generated theme-based prompts and used these written journal entries to propel small student-led conversations.

Although most discussions in response to read-alouds occur in a whole-class setting, whenever manageable it is useful to provide a small-group opportunity to discuss the text. Only a limited number of students get to respond to questions that are asked in a whole-class setting. Creating an opportunity for students to discuss a compelling question about the book following the reading in a small-group setting allows for more children to share their response to the text. Shy children, ELs, and children who speak nonstandard English who may be less likely to share in a whole-class setting need safe places where they get more talk time to discuss their insights

and expand their language skills (Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999; Schwanenflugel et al., 2010; Silverman & Crandell, 2010).

In order for small student-led groups to be productive, a gradual release of responsibility needs to be applied (see Figure 10.2). Stahl (2009b) determined that explicit instruction that focuses on the characteristics of a good discussion, modeling, and releasing the leadership of the small-group discussion to students must occur slowly in the primary grades. Sustained teacher commitment is required. Providing opportunities for students to observe and use a rubric to critique their peers engaging in student-led discussions in a “fishbowl” setting or in a video recording have been demonstrated to be effective forms of scaffolding. Time spent sitting “on the side” and gently coaching as students assume ownership is the only way to guarantee that student-led discussions will be interactive and rich (Maloch, 2002, 2005; Stahl, 2009b).

Text Variety

Students need to be immersed in a wide range of texts (CCSSI, 2010; Shanahan et al., 2010). The Common Core State Standards recommend achieving a balance of 50% narrative and 50% informational text by grade 4. Exposure to texts that vary by genre, topic, difficulty, and medium is needed to develop cognitively responsive, competent readers. While readers need immersion in many types of texts, the unit of study often provides enough sustained practice with one or two genres to allow children to become successful readers and writers of those types of texts. Reading, writing, and discussing specific kinds of texts should operate in tandem. Reading text is responsive, provides an exemplar, and is less demanding than generating text. Discussion is generative requiring cognitive engagement, adherence to the disciplinary discourse style, and practice using target vocabulary. Writing text is also a productive task that allows for the expression of ideas and a deeper knowledge of the genre that will feed recursively into ongoing reading development.

In addition to reading a variety of text genres, a classroom needs to provide students with opportunities to read texts within a wide range of complexity. This takes on increased importance in the primary grades because the students’ decoding abilities limit what they can read independently. Comprehension instruction requires *heavy* texts, texts with rich vocabulary, universal themes, and conceptual density. Heavy texts need to be introduced in a read-aloud or shared-reading setting. Follow-up reading, discussion, and writing activities in the small-group and independent setting provide continuous exposure to difficult texts in ways that support literacy growth as opposed to frustration or boredom. Instructional protocols such as Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction and Wide Reading (FORI) are essential practices for building bridges between listening comprehension and reading

comprehension (Schwanenflugel et al., 2006, 2009). Kuhn, Phelan and Schwanenflugel describe these procedures in detail in Chapter 12.

Writing is a means of consolidating and extending our thinking about what we have read. It is also one of the most important ways that sophisticated readers convey their text comprehension to the outside world. As a result, a focus on the writing that young children do in response to text must be a priority in comprehension instruction (Cervetti et al., 2006; Guthrie et al., 2004; Purcell et al., 2007). The Standards also emphasize the importance of writing in response to text (CCSSI, 2010). As with reading, writing activities need to be varied. Short personal reactions to text, responses to theme-based prompts, and exposition based on new learning are just a few examples of shorter products that would be likely expressions that evolve from reading experiences. However, extended writing activities that relate to the overall unit theme are also important. These projects typically require the application of a writing process that includes prewriting, drafting, revising, and publishing. When students are engaged in studying a science or social studies unit, the product might be based on their own research. In literary units, the outcome might be a creative product or an extended personal narrative. An example of such a project is described in the accompanying box.

A second-grade class was involved in a monthlong literary unit on family narratives. Many of Patricia Polacco's books that addressed family themes (and other similar complex picturebooks) were used as teacher read-alouds or shared reading. After the first reading by the teacher, each book was placed in the class library and became available to students for independent choice reading. A teacher read-aloud was conducted daily. Additionally, four different texts were used as shared reading. These books were also sophisticated picturebooks with a family narrative theme. All students had their own copy of texts used for shared reading. Each story used for shared reading was the focus of a weeklong study. During each of the 4 weeks the students engaged in echo reading, choral reading, and partner reading the story. They also engaged in comprehension strategy instruction, small-group discussion, and writing short responses to the text.

During the first week of the unit the students were responsible for interviewing their parents and grandparents to identify an interesting family story that occurred before the student was born. This story might tell how their parents met, how their family came to live in their hometown, convey how a family member overcame a hardship, describe an honorable act by a family member, or recount some other significant family memory. During week 2, each child shared the story orally with a small group of peers. The peers asked questions about the details of the story. During weeks 3 and 4, the children drafted, revised, and published their family memory in writing. Additionally, each child brought a favorite family recipe to class. Each story and recipe became an entry in a class cookbook that was sent home as a Mother's Day gift.

A KINDERGARTEN EXAMPLE

Natalie teaches kindergarten in a high-poverty urban school. In the spring, she teaches an integrated 2-week science unit on light and shadow. Each morning, she conducts small instructional reading groups and developmental word study that incorporates phonological awareness, phonics, and spelling. In the afternoon, she focuses on comprehension, conceptual vocabulary, and writing processes using her current unit on light and shadow as the vehicle for instruction. The lesson below occurred a few days into the unit.

Teacher read-aloud (30 minutes): Natalie reads and discusses the story *Bear Shadow* (Asch, 1990) with the students in a whole-class format. It is a narrative describing Bear's efforts to get rid of a shadow that appears to pose an obstacle to a fishing expedition. Although it is fiction, conceptual information about the ways that sunlight influences the formation of shadows is presented in story illustrations. During some episodes Natalie has the children act out the story. She briefly defines a few vocabulary words at the point of contact (*fishing line, brook, annoyed*). Questioning occurs intermittently throughout the story to ensure that the content is understood, particularly as it relates to the disciplinary knowledge of shadow formation. Her questioning leads the children to describe how the sun's position in the sky is causing the size of the shadow to change. After reading, the children recount the sequence of episodes that portrayed Bear's attempts to get rid of Shadow. Next, they describe Bear's physical traits and character traits. Natalie writes the words for each trait on a drawing of Bear (see the accompanying photo). Following the read-aloud the students go to one of eight stations around the room (see Figure 10.3 on pages 186–187). Some of the stations are related to the story and others relate to light and shadow. Each station requires reading or writing, sometimes both. Children stay in one station for 15 minutes. Most stations will be in place throughout the unit.

CONCLUSION

Young children learn about their world through experiences and oral language. As time goes on, particularly after school entry and throughout one's lifetime, our understanding of the world is shaped by what we read. The primary grades are a crucial time for creating the bridge that leads children beyond the mechanics of reading to the glory of discovery promised by each new page that we turn or tap.

REFERENCES

- Asch, F. (1990). *Bear shadow*. New York: Scholastic.
- Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2001). Text Talk: Capturing the benefits of read aloud experiences for young children. *The Reading Teacher*, 55, 10–35.

Station	Materials	Activity
Written response to story	Paper, pencils, and crayons	Students write a trait that describes their favorite character in the book (Bear or Shadow) and illustrate it.
Read around the room	Pointer; poems about light and shadow on chart paper posted around the room	Partners walk around the room reading or singing poetry posters as they point to the words. They select one poem to illustrate. (See Photo 1 on page 187.)
Computer station	Computer set to e-book: R. L. Stevenson's "My Shadow" (www.starfall.com/n/poetry/myshadow/load.htm?f)	Students echo read the poem.
Light inquiry notebook	Basket of easy-to-read informational little books about light and shadow; personal light inquiry notebook	Students read little books and add new learning, including drawings with captions, to their personal light inquiry notebook. (See Photo 2 on page 187.)
Shadow puppets	Light on mini-tripod; shadow puppet book	Create shadow puppets. (See Photo 3 on page 187.)
How do shadows change?	Lamp; wooden blocks; personal light inquiry notebook	Students change the position of the block to explore how shadows change; record observations in personal light inquiry notebook.
Categorization activity	Light table; a variety of materials to demonstrate opaque, translucent, and transparent	Students create structures on the light table with the materials. Categorize each item as opaque, translucent, and transparent on a chart.
Skeleton activity	Light table; X-rays of body parts	Assemble a human body using the X-rays. (See Photo 4 on page 187.)

FIGURE 10.3. Light and shadow stations.

Photo 1

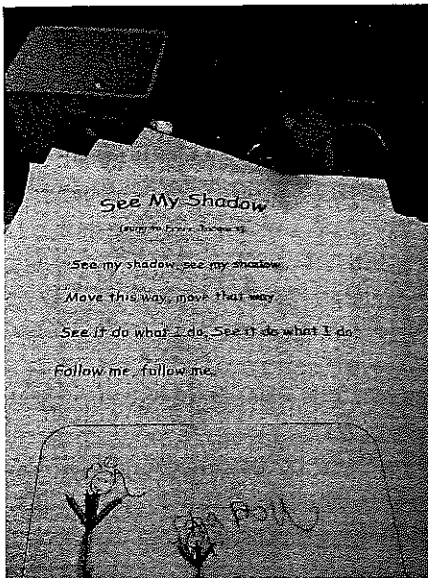


Photo 2

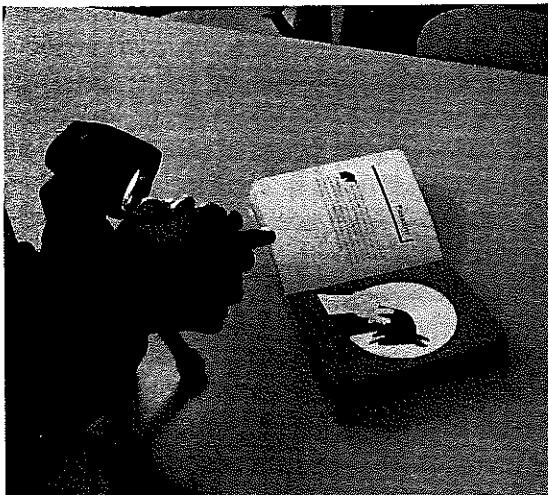
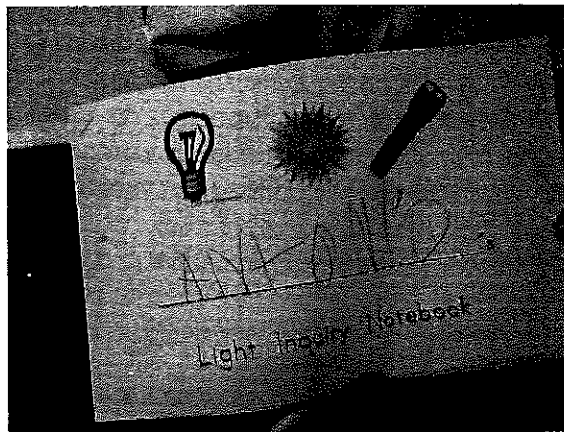


Photo 3



Photo 4

- Brown, R., & Coy-Ogan, L. (1993). The evolution of transactional strategies instruction in one teacher's classroom. *Elementary School Journal*, 94, 221-233.
- Brown, R., Pressley, M., Van Meter, P., & Schuder, T. (1996). A quasi-experimental validation of transactional strategies instruction with low-achieving second grade readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 88, 18-37.
- Cervetti, G., Pearson, P. D., Bravo, M., & Barber, J. (2006). Reading and writing in the service of inquiry-based science. In R. Douglas, M. P. Klentschy, & K. Worth (Eds.), *Linking science and literacy in the K-8 classroom* (pp. 221-244). Arlington, VA: National Science Teachers Association Press.
- Coley, J. D., DePinto, T., Craig, S., & Gardner, R. (1993). From college to classroom: Three teachers' accounts of their adaptations of reciprocal teaching. *Elementary School Journal*, 94, 255-266.
- Common Core State Standards Initiative. (2010). *Common core state standards for English language arts and literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects*. Washington, DC: National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State School Officers.
- Dooley, C. M. (2010). Young children's approaches to books: The emergence of comprehension. *The Reading Teacher*, 64, 120-131.
- Duffy, G. (1993). Rethinking strategy instruction: Four teachers' development and their low achievers' understanding. *Elementary School Journal*, 93, 231-247.
- Duke, N. K., & Pearson, P. D. (2002). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup & S. Samuels (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (pp. 205-242). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Gambrell, L. B., & Jawitz, P. B. (1993). Mental imagery, text illustrations, and children's story comprehension and recall. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 28, 265-273.
- Goldman, S. R., Varma, K. O., Sharp, D., & Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt. (1999). Children's understanding of complex stories: Issues of representation and assessment. In S. R. Goldman, A. C. Graesser, & P. van den Broek (Eds.), *Narrative comprehension, causality, and coherence: Essays in honor of Tom Trabaso* (pp. 135-159). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Guthrie, J. T., Wigfield, A., Barbosa, P., Perencevich, K. C., Taboada, A., Davis, M. H., et al. (2004). Increasing reading comprehension and engagement through Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 96, 403-423.
- Kendeou, P., Bohn-Gettler, C., White, M. J., & van den Broek, P. (2008). Children's inference generation across different media. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 31(3), 259-272.
- Kendeou, P., Lynch, J. S., van den Broek, P., Espin, C. A., White, M. J., & Kremer, K. E. (2006). Developing successful readers: Building early comprehension skills through television viewing and listening. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 33(2), 91-98.
- Kintsch, W. (1998). *Comprehension: A paradigm for cognition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Maloch, B. (2002). Scaffolding student talk: One teacher's role in literature discussion groups. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 37, 94-112.
- Maloch, B. (2005). Moments by which change is made: A cross-case exploration of teacher

- mediation and student participation in literacy events. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 37, 95-142.
- McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., & Blake, R. G. K. (2009). Rethinking reading comprehension instruction: A comparison of instruction for strategies and content approaches. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 44(3), 218-253.
- Morrow, L. M. (1985). Retelling stories: A strategy for improving young children's comprehension concept of story structure, and oral language complexity. *Elementary School Journal*, 85, 646-660.
- Morrow, L. M., Pressley, M., & Smith, J. K. (1995). *The effect of a literature-based program integrated into literacy and science instruction on achievement, use, and attitudes toward literacy and science* (Reading Research Report No. 37). College Park, MD: National Reading Research Center.
- Muspratt, S., Luke, A., & Freebody, P. (1997). *Constructing critical literacies*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton.
- Nelson, K. (1996). *Language in cognitive development: Emergence of the mediated mind*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Palincsar, A. S. (1988, April 5-9). *Collaborating in the interest of collaborative learning*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Palincsar, A. S. (1991). Scaffolded instruction of listening comprehension with first graders at risk for academic difficulty. In A. M. McKeough & J. L. Lupart (Eds.), *Toward the practice of theory-based instruction* (pp. 50-65). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 2, 117-175.
- Paris, S. G. (2005). Re-interpreting the development of reading skills. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 40, 184-202.
- Paris, S. G., Carpenter, R. D., Paris, A. H., & Hamilton, E. (2005). Spurious and genuine correlates of children's reading comprehension. In S. G. Paris & S. A. Stahl (Eds.), *Children's reading comprehension and assessment* (pp. 131-160). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Paris, S. G., Lipson, M. Y., & Wixson, K. K. (1983). Becoming a strategic reader. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8, 293-316.
- Pearson, P. D., & Gallagher, M. C. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8, 317-344.
- Pressley, M., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). *Verbal protocols of reading: The nature of constructively responsive reading*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Purcell-Gates, V., Duke, N. K., & Martineau, J. A. (2007). Learning to read and write genre-specific text: Roles of authentic experience and explicit teaching. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 42, 8-45.
- RAND Reading Study Group. (2002). *Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1994). Reciprocal teaching: A review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, 64, 479-530.
- Saunders, W. M., & Goldenberg, C. (1999). The effects of instructional conversations and

- literature logs on the story comprehension and thematic understanding of English Proficient and Limited English Proficient Students. *Elementary School Journal*, 99, 279–301.
- Schuder, T. (1993). The genesis of transactional strategies instruction in a reading program for at-risk students. *Elementary School Journal*, 94, 183–200.
- Schwanenflugel, P. J., Hamilton, C. E., Neuwirth-Pritchett, S., Restrepo, M. A., Bradley, B. A., & Webb, M. Y. (2010). PAVEd for success: An evaluation of a comprehensive preliteracy program for four-year-old children. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 42, 227–275.
- Schwanenflugel, P. J., Kuhn, M. R., Morris, R. D., Morrow, L. M., Meisinger, E. B., Woo, D. G., et al. (2009). Insights into fluency instruction: Short- and long-term effects of two reading programs. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 48(4), 318–336.
- Schwanenflugel, P. J., Meisinger, E., Wisenbaker, J. M., Kuhn, M. R., Strauss, G. P., & Morris, R. D. (2006). Becoming a fluent and automatic reader in the early elementary school years. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 41(4), 496–522.
- Shanahan, T., Callison, K., Carriere, C., Duke, N. K., Pearson, P. D., Schatschneider, C., et al. (2010). *Improving reading comprehension in kindergarten through 3rd grade: A practice guide* (NCEE 2010-4038). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from whatworks.ed.gov/publications/practiceguides.
- Silverman, R., & Crandell, J. D. (2010). Vocabulary practices in prekindergarten and kindergarten classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 45, 318–340.
- Stahl, K. A. D. (2004). Proof, practice and promise: Comprehension strategy instruction in the primary grades. *The Reading Teacher*, 57, 598–609.
- Stahl, K. A. D. (2009a). Assessing the comprehension of young children. In S. E. Israel & G. G. Duffy (Eds.), *Handbook of research on reading comprehension* (pp. 428–448). New York: Guilford Press.
- Stahl, K. A. D. (2009b). Comprehensive synthesized comprehension instruction in primary classrooms: A story of successes and challenges. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 25, 334–355.
- Stahl, K. A. D. (2011). Applying new visions of reading development in today's classrooms. *The Reading Teacher*, 65, 52–56.
- Stahl, K. A. D., Garcia, G. E., Bauer, E. B., Pearson, P. D., & Taylor, B. M. (2006). Making the invisible visible: The development of a comprehension assessment system. In K. A. D. Stahl & M. C. McKenna (Eds.), *Reading research at work: Foundations of effective practice* (pp. 425–436). New York: Guilford Press.
- Stevenson, R. L. (1921). *My shadow*. Retrieved from www.starfall.com/n/poetry/myshadow/load.htm?f.
- Taylor, B. M., Pearson, P. D., Clark, K., & Walpole, S. (2000). Effective schools and accomplished teachers: Lessons about primary grade reading instruction in low-income schools. *Elementary School Journal*, 101, 121–166.
- Taylor, B. M., Peterson, D. P., Pearson, P. D., & Rodriguez, M. C. (2002). Looking inside classrooms: Reflecting on the “how” as well as the “what” in effective reading instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, 56, 70–79.