Strategies for Struggling Readers: A Teacher Resource Guide

LEVEL 2

We the People: The Citizen & the Constitution, Level 2

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

You have just received your new set of *We the People* textbooks and can't wait to dive in. Finally—a program that will engage students and give them the knowledge, skills, and enthusiasm to participate in civic life! The text is enlivened with photos and other images and includes questions to stretch students' thinking about how to apply constitutional principles to today's issues that are important to young people.

You eagerly pass out the books and, after some introductory discussion, ask students to read passages aloud. That's when it happens: Krista struggles to sound out words. Robert reads very, very slowly. Paulina reads aloud fluently but does not comprehend what she has read. You stop and ask a question. A few hands go up but most of the class doesn't respond. The sad fact is that a significant number of your students are struggling with reading the text for a variety of reasons. What is a social studies teacher to do? After all, you aren't a reading specialist.

Social studies teachers across America are all too familiar with this scenario. Students want to learn about ideas and issues that are important to them—and they want to succeed in school. But far too many are frustrated and fail because they cannot comprehend the text placed before them.

The democratic aim of American education is to provide *all* students with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to become informed, effective, and responsible citizens. Like civic education itself, literacy education can be embraced by all teachers across all disciplines. There are strategies that all teachers can use to help address the challenges faced by struggling readers.

The purpose of this guide is to provide teachers using the We the People program with strategies to help your struggling readers. We include an examination of the challenges of struggling readers, an explanation of the reading process, and a number of teacher-tested, practical strategies that you can use to help your students understand the ideas in the We the People program. A variety of ready-to-use handouts also are provided to accompany the strategies.

To employ these strategies successfully, it will be helpful, first of all, for teachers to understand some of the challenges that struggling readers face and the nature of the reading process.

In the early grades a large part of instruction is focused on students *learning to read*, but the emphasis shifts dramatically to *reading to learn* from grade four onward. If this shift occurs before some students have become proficient readers, then these students will find learning increasingly challenging. With each new grade level the subjects become more complex, texts become more difficult, school becomes more demanding, and poor readers tend to fall further and further behind. Inadequate intervention results in many students losing interest in school. And repeated failure leads far too many students simply to drop out.

The reasons underlying the phenomenon of struggling readers are varied and complex. Some students come to school lacking background knowledge or struggling to connect past learning with new learning. Some students are English learners (ELs) functioning at various levels of oral English language proficiency as they learn English as a second or third language. Some ELs are able to converse fluently in English but struggle to acquire the academic vocabulary necessary to master academic text in English. Some students also come to school with learning disabilities, health issues, or challenges in their personal lives that distract from learning.

Students who have difficulty sounding out the words are easy to identify. Their challenge is decoding. They need reading assistance to help them crack the sound-symbol code and be able to put together letters, sounds, words, and sentences in meaningful ways. And they need strategies to build fluency and comprehension.

Most older students who struggle with reading do not have decoding problems; they struggle with comprehension. Consequently, these students do not need assistance with decoding. In fact, focusing on decoding skills with these students is counterproductive because it sends a message that reading is mainly about correct pronunciation, not understanding content. Comprehension is the key skill on which competent readers rely to be effective learners (Schoenbach et al. 1999).

Special Challenges of ELs

English learners face more complex challenges when it comes to reading and understanding academic texts. Recent research from the Center for Applied Linguistics confirms that ELs enter schools with varying degrees of oral proficiency and literacy in their first language and that these proficiencies have a direct correlation to their ability to read, comprehend, and write in English. For example, ELs who are literate in their first language are likely to be advantaged in their acquisition of English literacy. The research therefore suggests that developing and supporting academic reading and writing in students' native language facilitates their ability to become academically proficient in English (August and Shanahan 2006).

Similarly, ELs who are orally proficient in their first language are likely to acquire oral proficiency in English readily if given opportunities to practice conversational language. But transitioning from informal, conversational language to comprehending academic language in English is more difficult. Language-minority students will need extensive oral language development in English that is aligned with high-quality literacy instruction. English learners need a variety of opportunities to increase vocabulary, notice cognates that are common to both languages, draw on background knowledge to bring meaning to text, practice using English in academic discussions, and engage in critical thinking exercises. It is important for teachers to remember that ELs are not all the same. Like native English speakers, they come to school with a variety of backgrounds, skills, and literacy levels, all of which must be considered when choosing instructional strategies for maximum effectiveness.

Teachers can use a number of strategies to help students understand what they read. Not all strategies will work for all students, but teachers will find that understanding the reading process will aid them in helping their students unlock the mysteries of the printed word.

A student's ability to acquire or construct meaning from the words on a page depends on several factors as shown in Figure 1 (California Department of Education 2007). The terms in the figure are explained in the following paragraphs.

Figure 1   Framework for Reading

Decoding					Comprehension					
Word recognition strategies				*Fluency*	*Academic language*				*Comprehension strategies*	
Concepts about Print	Phonemic awareness	Phonics	Sight words	Automaticity	Background knowledge	Vocabulary	Syntax	Text structure	Comprehension monitoring	(Re)organizing text

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Decoding

Two aspects of decoding are using word recognition strategies and developing fluency. Reading instruction or assistance helps students acquire several decoding skills needed to "sound out" and otherwise recognize words on a page. Word recognition combined with comprehension skills draws meaning from text. Decoding skills include the following:

Concepts about print   Teaching a child how to read often begins with an understanding that print conveys meaning. Reading to young children helps them understand that the marks (symbols) on a page are coded ideas that tell a story.

Phonemic awareness   Children become aware of the phonemes, or sounds, of language by listening. Whether the language is English, Spanish, Chinese, or some other language, infants and toddlers begin to discern differences in sounds that lay the foundation for speaking, reading, and writing.

Phonics   Breaking the alphabetic code comes with explicit phonic instruction—associating letters and letter combinations of consonants, vowels, digraphs, and blends with sounds that are put together to form words and sentences.

Sight words   As young people learn to read they also build a vocabulary of sight words—words that cannot be sounded out but are recognized on sight. Examples of sight words include *the*, *who*, and *their*.

Automaticity   As students' facility with sounding out words and recognizing sight words improves so does their fluency and potential to make sense of words strung together into sentences. When reciting words becomes "automatic," students become fluent readers. They are better able to understand sentences and text passages when they do not need to pause at each word to sound it out.

Comprehension

Decoding represents half of the reading framework. Balanced reading instruction also attends to comprehension. Students who can decode words and read fluently often understand and enjoy casual reading materials. But comprehension of instructional texts requires a higher level of skills, including an understanding of academic language and strategies to make meaning from academic, formal text. The following are factors that require attention:

Background knowledge Robert Marzano (2004) explains, "Although it is true that the extent to which students will learn new content is dependent on factors such as the skill of the teacher, the interest of the student, and the complexity of the content, the research literature supports one compelling fact: What students already know about the content is one of the strongest indicators of how well they will learn new information relative to the content" (p. 1).

Vocabulary Vocabulary is a key component of any program to improve reading comprehension. We also know that "a large vocabulary repertoire facilitates becoming an educated person to the extent that vocabulary knowledge is strongly related to reading proficiency in particular and school achievement in general" (Beck 2002, p. 1).

Syntax and text structure The order and relationship among words and structural elements, such as phrases and sentences, called *syntax*, affect comprehension. So does organization at the next level: how the text is structured. Other cues that aid comprehension include typography (headings, subheadings, italics), lists, boxed information, illustrations, end-of-chapter summaries, and so forth.

Comprehension monitoring Effective readers check for understanding as they read. They pause to think about what they read, think about what they did to make sense of a word or a passage, and create mechanisms for meeting reading challenges in the future. Helping students develop monitoring skills helps them increase comprehension of text.

(Re)organizing text Similarly, effective readers often mentally reorganize text to construct meaning. This is another skill that can be taught to struggling readers to help them better understand what they read.

The last three factors require emphasis. Text structures and how well students understand them have direct bearing on students' levels of comprehension. The structure of a text includes two components: organization and presentation (Doty, Cameron, and Barton 2003). When students can (and are encouraged to) analyze the structure or organization of a lesson they are about to read, then they are more likely to develop positive self-efficacy—a "can-do" attitude—toward the assignment and to become engaged in the reading (McCabe 2003). Successful readers and learners are able to organize different types of information in different ways. They have learned how to do this almost automatically and can draw on prior knowledge as needed.

Struggling readers benefit from assistance in developing these skills with the help of "advance organizers" that are arranged in the same manner as the text to be studied. David Ausubel (1960) reports that information presented by teachers in summary form before reading enhances students' comprehension and retention during and after reading. He calls such summary materials "advance organizers" because they help readers organize their ideas and prior knowledge about the study topic before they begin reading. This strategy helps readers feel confident that they know some of the information to be presented in the text (McCabe 2003).

Another text-structure element that cues meaning is page layout, including information that is set off in some way: bulleted lists, boxes, boldface, italics, and so on. Thus another strategy to help students become familiar with text before reading is to survey the pages to be read, identifying key information that is indicated by various layout devices. This type of pre-reading survey allows readers to move about the text, selecting pages that will provide the most help for accessing information with efficiency and comprehension (Hoyt 2002).

Proficient Readers are Strategic Readers

Successful readers set a purpose for reading and draw on prior knowledge, experiences, and a variety of strategies to make meaning from text. They continually monitor their comprehension and, as needed, will stop and revisit their "tool kit" of reading strategies to gain a better understanding of what they are reading. Proficient readers often find themselves questioning or reorganizing text, summarizing, analyzing, and making connections to other subjects and contexts (National Institute for Literacy 2007).

Struggling readers, by contrast, are challenged by expository text because they rely on too few or ineffective strategies, do not monitor their understanding, or cannot transfer strategies used in casual reading to academic texts. When reading is unsuccessful or laborious, it ceases to be motivating. Consequently, struggling readers avoid reading and often have difficulty learning in many subject areas.

Teachers cannot control the knowledge and experiences that students bring to the classroom. But they can help students access or retrieve knowledge about a particular subject to help them make connections to the new knowledge to which they are about to be introduced. Teachers cannot wave a magic wand and double students' vocabulary overnight but can provide them with tools to unlock the meaning of unfamiliar words. And teachers can provide opportunities for students to use new words in meaningful contexts. Teachers may not be able to alter the syntax or structures of text, but they can provide students with strategies to understand how text is organized.

To accomplish the task of helping students become proficient readers and learners, teachers need to have strategies at hand. A selection of the most useful strategies to assist struggling readers composes the remainder of this guide.

STRATEGIES TO ASSIST STRUGGLING READERS

The following strategies are based on content in *We the People: The Citizen & the Constitution*, Level 2, specifically Lesson 20: How Did Political Parties Develop? Rather than address the strategies in the abstract, we deal with them concretely within the context of this sample lesson. Of course, these strategies can be used for many different lessons, though not all the strategies will be equally applicable to every lesson. Nor would it be advisable to use all the strategies with any one lesson. The choice of strategies will depend on how individual students are struggling with reading as well as on the content of the lessons. What we offer is a tool kit; you choose the best tools to suit the lesson and your students' learning needs.

The strategies are divided among four categories: before reading, building vocabulary, during reading, and after reading. Handouts accompany some strategies and are located at the end of this guide.

Before Reading

Effective readers set a foundation for reading success.
The three strategies that follow will help students do this important work.

Activating Prior Knowledge

> **Classroom organization** Pairs or triads; whole-class discussion
> **Materials** Handout 1—Activating Prior Knowledge

Taking time to help students activate their prior knowledge about a subject before they begin to read validates past learning, generates interest, and will help them later connect new information to what they already know. Validation is important because it tells students that what they bring to the reading is valuable. It also aids in setting a purpose for reading and establishing a positive learning climate. This strategy uses a concept map, which is a form of advance organizer.

Handout 1 is a blank concept map that may be helpful to start students thinking about what they already know—in the case of Lesson 20, about political parties. Group students in pairs or triads, and ask them to write "political party" in the box at the center of their group's map. Reproduce a large version of the handout on the board or chart paper, or project one using an overhead for reference and whole-class discussion.

Before students turn to the text, ask them, "What comes to mind when you hear the words *political party*?" Some students might think of a presidential election. Others might recall a movie, a political convention, or debates on television. A Spanish-speaking student might be reminded of the Spanish *politico*. Others might think of words that give clues to the meaning of *politics* or *party*. Some students may remember from earlier lessons that the Framers of the constitution opposed the idea of political parties.

Next, ask students to share their ideas within their groups. Students who are reluctant to speak in front of the whole class, particularly ELs, often are more comfortable discussing ideas with a classmate or in a small group of peers. Encourage the students to ponder what goes through their minds when they think about the term *political party*. Ask, "What came to mind when I said the word?"

Finally, ask each group to choose a recorder to write the group's ideas in the bubbles radiating from the center box. Once the student groups have completed their concept maps, ask each group to contribute to the large whole-class map. Once this collective prior knowledge is visible, it should be easy to identify and correct misconceptions as well as to validate correct understandings.

> **TIP**
>
> The number of bubbles shown on the handout is arbitrary. It does not mean that every bubble must be completed, and more bubbles may be added.

As part of the whole-class discussion, consider asking a few probing questions to discern how extensive students' prior knowledge might be. The following are some examples:

- What else do you know about political parties?

- How might you summarize these ideas in a short definition?
  What would it sound like?

- Identify synonyms and antonyms:
  What is a political party like?
  What would be the opposite of a political party?

Political party is only one term from Lesson 20. Consider using this approach with some of the other vocabulary terms to activate students' prior knowledge about key concepts in the lesson. Also be aware that students' background knowledge may appear to be more limited than it actually is. For example, if you choose the vocabulary term *currency*, students may not readily recognize the word until you cue them that it means "money."

Previewing Lesson Organization

Classroom organization Individuals or pairs; whole-class discussion

Materials Handout 2—Lesson Structure: Previewing the Organization of a Lesson

> **TIP**
>
> If this is the first time your students have seen the *We the People* text, take time to preview the entire text with them before focusing on a specific lesson. Let students take in the scene before wading in. One of the more engaging aspects of the We the People program is the structure and organization of the text. Vivid photos and images, bold headings and subheadings, bullet points, and the effective use of color are purposefully embedded to generate interest and provide clarity to readers. Previewing the table of contents, the text, and the reference section helps students to get "the big picture."

The *We the People* text is designed to support readers as they study each lesson. Therefore, this previewing activity is mainly useful to alert students to lesson features that will help them understand the terms and concepts they will encounter. These features include the title, lesson purpose, terms to understand, sub-headings, bulleted items, bold and italicized words, and many illustrations, ranging from photographs and cartoons to diagrams and charts. Also take note of the various fonts and the general appeal of the text.

Most of the blanks on the form are self-explanatory. Once students have completed their survey of the lesson, working either individually or in pairs, then a whole-class discussion should be used to correct any misunderstandings, point out features that some students may have missed, and clarify how they will deal with the lesson during future class periods. Some questions or prompts for this discussion might include the following:

- Why do you think the heading for each section in the lesson is a question? What does that tell you?

- Where can you find the ideas that will be most important to remember?

- Where can you find what you may have to do for this lesson?

- How do the pictures and cartoons help you understand the concepts and ideas?

This is an ideal time to highlight content on which students will focus during the lesson. And sometimes it will be helpful to deal with nuances of meaning. For example, in Lesson 20 students are asked to *learn* what political parties are and how they began in American politics and to *describe* the two original political parties, their leaders, and the issues that divided them. *Learn* and *describe* may need clarification (or "unpacking"). Some discussion questions might include the following:

- What do we mean by *learn* and *describe*? Are they different?

- How do you know when you have *learned* something?

- What does *learn* mean?

- Are *learning* and *mastery* the same?

These also are important considerations when thinking ahead to assessment.

Map with a Purpose

Classroom organization Individual students

Materials Handout 3—Map with a Purpose

This is a bridge strategy to use both before and during reading. Students individually use the handout to preview the lesson. At the top of the form they state the purpose of the lesson and what they already know about the subject. Then, as they read, they take notes in the center section, recording what they learn. The bottom section of the handout allows students to write down questions they still have after reading.

Some students will benefit from being given sentence starters to help them think about how to write their responses in the various sections of the handout. For example,

- "I wonder _____."
- "How does this relate to _____?"
- "What would happen if _____?"

After reading, this form can be included in follow-up activities and discussions.

Building Vocabulary

The terms at the beginning of each lesson in the *We the People* text are key vocabulary from the presented content, but struggling readers may need to learn other words that are new to them as they read the lessons. Vocabulary sometimes can be learned through incidental exposure while reading, but students often benefit from opportunities for direct learning, such as by playing with words, constructing definitions, learning word parts (for example, cognates, prefixes, suffixes), and applying vocabulary to new contexts. Increasing students' vocabulary should not rely on definition gathering or recitation but on meaningful use in academic reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Marzano 2004).

Students must encounter words in context more than once to learn them. Commenting on Carey (1978), Robert Marzano distinguishes between "fast mapping" (quickly getting a sense of a word's meaning) and "extended mapping" (full understanding and use over time and multiple encounters) (p. 3). Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002, quoting Dale 1965) offer four stages of word knowledge:

Stage 1 Never saw it before.

Stage 2 Heard it, but don't know what it means.

Stage 3 Recognize it in context as having something to do with _____.

Stage 4 Know it well. (p. 9)

The dimensions of word knowledge also include the kind of knowledge one has about a word and the uses to which that knowledge can be put. Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (quoting Cronbach 1942) further suggest the following distinctions:

Generalizations The ability to define a word.

Applications The ability to select or recognize situations appropriate to a word.

Breadth Knowledge of multiple meanings.

Precision The ability to apply a term correctly to all situations and to recognize inappropriate use.

Availability The actual use of the word in thinking and discourse. (p. 10)

The following are seven vocabulary-building strategies.

Word Square

> **Classroom organization** Small groups; whole-class discussion; individual students
> **Materials** Handout 4—Word Square

The word-square strategy includes visualization of the words. According to research, for new terms to be anchored in permanent memory they must have linguistic (language-based) and nonlinguistic (imagery-based) representations (Marzano 2004).

> **TIP**
>
> Use word squares with terms that are generally familiar to students but may not be fully understood within the context of the *We the People* text.

Each student should have his or her own copies of the handout, as some squares are completed individually and some are completed in small groups or during the whole-class discussion. The completed word squares will be individual study aids.

To complete their word squares, students work in small groups and start by writing the target word in the top, left-hand box of the handout. The students then search the lesson to find the word. (The listed terms for each lesson appear in bold on first mention in the text.) Students work together to construct a group definition of the word and then the whole class composes a definition with input from the small groups. The definition developed by the class is recorded in the bottom, left-hand square.

Students transfer the information to their personal handout copies and then individually draw representations that illustrate what the definition is (top, right-hand square) and is not (bottom, right-hand square). These drawings should be in the context of the lesson content.

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20

Create a word square using the term *currency*.

1   On a copy of Handout 4 write the word *currency* in the top left-hand box and write the sentence where the word first appears in the text. "Currency is the form of money that a country uses." Record the page number (p. 175).

2   Ask students to work in pairs or groups to create their own definition of *currency*. As groups share their definitions, identify the words they have in common. If desired, consult the glossary or a dictionary to be sure that no critical characteristics have been left out. Once a class definition has been created, record it in the bottom left-hand box of the handout.

Concept Definition Mapping

Classroom organization Individuals or pairs; whole-class discussion

Materials Handout 5—Concept Definition Mapping

What students already know about the content of a lesson is a strong indicator of how well they will learn new information that they can relate to that knowledge. Researchers refer to what a person already knows about a topic as "background" or "prior" knowledge (Marzano 2004). Often background knowledge manifests itself in vocabulary knowledge.

Concept definition mapping is a strategy that uses a graphic organizer to help students understand the essential attributes, qualities, or characteristics of a word's meaning. Students define the concept and then make positive (what it's like) and negative (what it's not) comparisons (Schwartz and Raphael 1985, as found in Doty, Cameron, and Barton 2003, p. 79).

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20

1 Ask students to write *Alien and Sedition Acts* in the top box of Handout 5.

2 Look up *Alien and Sedition Acts* in the *We the People* glossary and write the definition in the top box.

3 Find the words *Alien and Sedition Acts* in the lesson (p. 178) and read the sentences in which *Alien Act* and *Sedition Act* appear in boldface type. Discuss the meaning of the words in context.

4 Ask students to complete the remaining boxes on the handout and share their results.

TIP

Help students use the index in the *We the People* text.
Where to find the definitions of terms in context is clearly indicated.

Definition Signals

Classroom organization Whole-class discussion

Materials *We the People* text

A productive vocabulary strategy is to alert students to contextual words that signal that a definition is embedded in the sentence containing the new word or in nearby sentences. For example, the term *political party* is defined in context:

> Political parties *are* groups of people who join together because they have similar views about government.

Words that may signal that a definition is coming			
is, are	who is, who are	which means	which is, which are
or	are called	become, became	that is

Most of the listed vocabulary terms in *We the People* are defined in the text, and the definitions will be easy to spot if students are alert to definition signals.

Vocabulary Chart

Classroom organization Individual students

Materials Handout 6—Vocabulary Chart

It is important for students to keep a record of new words they learn. This can be done in a notebook or a journal, but the vocabulary chart in Handout 6 is a useful, all-in-one record. The chart also allows students to gauge how well they know the word from time to time using the second, third, and fourth columns.

The fifth column lets students record initial impressions, which can be useful if they later refine how they approach learning new words. For example, maybe a particular word was similar to another word they already knew or a word they were familiar with in another language.

The sixth and seventh columns provide spaces for definitions and the words used in example sentences. Students may need to be reminded that their sentences should reflect the meaning in a context related to the *We the People* text.

An advantage of using a vocabulary chart or vocabulary cards (see the next strategy) is that students can refer to terms learned in previous lessons. For example, several of the terms in Lesson 20 are used in previous lessons, including *framers* (p. 106), *electoral college* (p. 141), *factions* (p. 24), *necessary and proper clause* (p. 133), and *enumerated powers* (p. 132).

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20

1   Ask students to list the vocabulary words and phrases (p. 172) on a copy of Handout 6.

2   Students check the appropriate categories (columns 2–4) to show their knowledge of each word. (These categories encourage students to think about what it means to *know* a word and sends a message that it is "okay" to admit not knowing a word well.)

3   For each word or phrase, students indicate the thinking they tried in order to figure out the meaning. (This process encourages students to uncover their own thinking strategies for determining meanings without using a dictionary. For instance, students might be reminded of a word in Spanish or another language, or they might use root words to guess the meanings.)

4   Ask students to provide a definition in column 6 and a sentence example in column 7. This step may be done later, after the student is immersed in the lesson.

Vocabulary Cards

Classroom organization Individual students

Materials Handouts 7a and 7b—Vocabulary Cards

An alternative to the vocabulary chart in the previous strategy is individual vocabulary cards. Handout 7a shows a completed example, and Handout 7b is a blank form. Students create these cards using 3 × 5 inch index cards.

These vocabulary cards focus on word origins to assist students to learn meanings. This strategy probably should be used selectively, rather than for all target vocabulary. Words that are frequently used may not be the best to use for this strategy. Instead, choose words with rich or complex meanings that tie to key ideas in the text.

> **TIP**
>
> After a number of vocabulary cards have been accumulated, ask students to work in pairs to sort their cards into categories. Letting students determine the categories is a way to deepen their understanding of the terms and concepts.

Vary Time Spent Teaching Terms

This is a general strategy. There is no formula for selecting which words should receive the greatest amount of instructional attention. Some terms will require more effort, and some will be more important than others for students' full understanding of the text.

The following are questions, adapted from Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002), that may help teachers decide how much time to spend on certain vocabulary:

- How generally useful is the term?
- Is the term one that students are likely to meet in other texts?
- Will the term be of use to students in their lives beyond the school?
- How does the term relate to other terms and to ideas that students know or have been learning?
- Will the term add a new dimension to the ideas being developed?
- What role does the term play in communicating the meaning of the context in which it is used? (p. 29)

Go Beyond the Dictionary

This is another general strategy that is important to remember because sometimes dictionary definitions are insufficient to ensure students' understanding. What other approaches might teachers use? Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) suggest the following ways that teachers can approach word meanings when discussing them with students.

Develop student-friendly definitions   Pinpoint a word's meaning by explaining its typical use and why the word exists. Explain the meaning in everyday language and tell students how to use it. Compare your explanation with the definition in the glossary (p. 35).

Provide meanings as words are encountered   There is no requirement to introduce all vocabulary words before students begin to read the text. If a word is likely to affect comprehension of the lesson, then the most effective place to introduce the word meaning may be when it is encountered in the text. This is particularly true if the text is being read aloud in class. The word can be introduced by giving a quick explanation of what it means in context (p. 42).

Involve students in dealing with word meanings   To get students actively involved with the words and meanings, teachers can employ some short, lively activities that require students to process meanings. The following are four examples:

- **Word Associations**   Students associate a known word with a newly learned word. Associations are not synonyms. Students must develop a relationship between the words and explain their reasoning. For instance, "Which term goes with money?" Answer, *currency*.

- **Have You Ever…?**   Ask students to describe, for example, a time when they encountered or used *currency* from another country. Frame similar questions using other vocabulary terms.

- **Idea Completion**   Provide students with a sentence stem containing a term and ask them to supply the meaning in context. For example, "Support for the Alien and Sedition Acts was shown by _____ ," or "The Republican Party was developed by the people who supported _____ ."

- **Use Words in Sentences**   Divide students into groups and task each group to develop sentences for several target words. Students should work to make the meanings of the words clear from the sentence contexts (pp. 44–45).

Vocabulary homework also can be used creatively to good effect. For example, ask students to watch a television newscast or to read a newspaper to see if any of the target words can be used to describe events that are reported.

During Reading

The goal of any instruction is not merely to ensure that students can answer the questions at the end of a lesson or unit or can pass a mandated large-scale assessment. We want students—including those who find reading challenging—to grasp what the text has to offer in such a way that they can use the information in life beyond the school. We want them to think deeply about ideas and where they came from. How were such ideas viewed in the past, and how do they apply today? We want students to ask themselves why these ideas are important to them. And how are the ideas in *We the People* important in the larger sense to American democracy? Analysis, critical thinking, and problem solving call on students to engage with text, to make sense of it, to apply it, to reflect on it, and, we hope, to be motivated to learn more.

Teachers position students for success by using strategies before reading that activate prior knowledge and build vocabulary. To ensure that students become strategic and reflective readers and learners, teachers also need to use strategies during reading activities to help students—especially struggling students—get the most out of the text. For challenged readers this also means that teachers should use strategies that help students avoid missteps and frustration, which can rob students of the motivation to tackle difficult material and make sense of it.

A number of the strategies in this section fall under the general heading of graphic organizers. Some deal with specific activities, as represented in some of the handouts:

- Main ideas and details (Handout 8)
- Comparing and contrasting (Handouts 9 and 10)
- Chronological order of events (Handout 11)
- Cause and effect (Handouts 12a and b)

Keep in mind that teachers should not use all the strategies for any single lesson. Some lessons require greater attention to understanding the order of historical events, for example, whereas other lessons may call for students to focus on comparing and contrasting ideas, such as proposed governing plans.

The following are eight strategies that can be used at various points as students read.

Main Idea and Details

> **Classroom organization** Individual students, pairs, or small groups; whole-group discussion
>
> **Materials** Handout 8—Main Idea and Details

The main idea is the most important idea in a paragraph or a passage or section composed of several paragraphs. Details provide more information about the main idea. In many cases the main idea is stated at the beginning of the paragraph or section, but it also can be found at the end or somewhere in the middle.

To use this strategy students choose a section. For example, in Lesson 20 teachers might ask students to concentrate on the section titled, "Why were the Framers of the Constitution against political parties?" The title or a shorter summary of this question can be listed as the topic at the top of the handout. Students then read the section and decide on the main ideas. Is there one main idea or several? What details in the text support the main ideas? This information is recorded on the handout. Finally, the box at the bottom of the handout is for students to record a summary statement: a generalization about the topic and what it means.

Once students, working individually or in small groups, have completed the handout, the teacher can initiate a whole-group discussion in which students compare their results.

> **TIP**
>
> The number of columns and rows on Handout 8 is arbitrary. Some passages will require more or fewer spaces, and additional pages can be added if necessary.

Compare and Contrast

Classroom organization Individual students or pairs; whole-class discussion
Materials Handout 9—Compare and Contrast (Venn Diagram)
or Handout 10—Compare and Contrast (Chart)

The purpose statement for Lesson 20, which we are using as the sample throughout these strategies, says that students "should be able to describe the two original political parties, their leaders, and the issues that divided them." This purpose can be well served using the Venn diagram on Handout 9. As students read the lesson, they can work individually or in pairs to complete the handout.

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20

1   On a copy of Handout 9 ask students to label the topic on the left-hand side "Views of Hamilton and the Federalists," and the topic on the right-hand side "Views of Jefferson and the Republicans."

2   Ask students to list details about these views in the two circles, with the differences in the outer portions and the similarities in the center where the circles overlap. Circles can be added to the Venn diagram to compare more than two topics.

(Note that Handout 10 shows an alternative graphic for comparing and contrasting ideas. The topics are written in the center boxes. The box at the top is for listing similarities, and the lower boxes are for listing differences.)

After students have finished compiling the information using one of the handouts, a whole-class discussion can be used to share results and clarify any misunderstandings. Another follow-up exercise is writing sentences that compare or contrast positions or ideas. Explain to students that writers use certain words that signal similarities (comparisons) and differences (contrasts). The following chart will help anchor this discussion:

Words that can signal comparison			
too	alike	both	the same as
resemble	as well as	have in common	

Words that can signal contrast			
but	different	yet	does not appear
however	neither	otherwise	even though
in contrast	instead	whereas	on the other hand

Ask students to locate examples of these signal words in the text.
For instance, they might identify these two:

- **Comparison** "*Both* parties accused each other of wishing to destroy the Constitution" (p. 178). The signal word *both* is used to compare the parties.

- **Contrast** "*On the other hand*, Thomas Jefferson believed in small, local government" (p. 173). The signal words *on the other hand* are used to contrast Jefferson's belief with Hamilton's.

Finally, ask students to write some comparison and contrast sentences of their own. For this activity, sentence stems can be useful starting points.

For example, this stem calls for comparison:

_____ and _____ were alike because _____.

One way to fill in the blanks might look like this:

Federalists and Republicans were alike because both supported the Constitution.

A similar stem can be used to call for contrast:

_____ and _____ were different because _____.

In this case, one way to fill in the blanks might look like this:

Federalists and Republicans were different because Hamilton and his supporters wanted the United States to ally with Great Britain, but Jefferson and his supporters wanted the United States to help France.

Chronological Order of Events

Classroom organization Individual students or pairs; whole-class discussion
Materials Handout 11—Chronological Order of Events

Students need to understand and be able to identify and use sequence words (such as *first*, *next*, and *last*) or other indicators of chronological order, such as dates. In a historical sense sequence words indicate what happened in chronological order in the past. But sequence words also indicate how events will or might proceed, such as the process by which a bill becomes law.

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20

1 Ask students to identify sentences that illustrate in chronological order the development of political parties. On Handout 11 the topic might be written as "The Development of Political Parties." Then, beginning with the uppermost left-hand box, students might write in key sentences that show the order of events. The following are some of the sentences they might select from the lesson:

- "When George Washington was elected as the first president, he received every electoral vote" (p. 172). *Note: Washington was first elected in 1779.*

- "In 1793 war broke out between France and Great Britain" (p. 176).

- "By the election of 1796, there was serious hostility between the Federalists and the Republicans" (p. 178).

- "The election of 1800 was the first time that political parties backed candidates for president" (p. 178).

2 Ask students what cued them about the order of events.
In this case, the dates show the chronological order.

Lesson 20 generally proceeds in chronological order, but students should be aware that this might not always be the case. Also, order of events may be compact (occurring in as little as a few sentences) or compiled from information over several paragraphs or even several lessons. The following is an example from page 172:

> When Washington *took office*, the new nation faced many problems. The country was in debt and needed to create good relations with other nations. People had different ideas about how to solve these problems. As President Washington and his advisers tried to deal with the issues, disagreements arose. These disagreements *led* to the rise of political parties.

TIP

Use this type of graphic organizer with text in which a series of events or actions needs to be understood in the order they occurred. The number of event boxes on Handout 11 is arbitrary. More or fewer boxes may be needed.

Cause and Effect

Classroom organization Individual students or pairs; whole-class discussion

Materials Handouts 12a and b—Cause and Effect

A cause is an action or event that makes something else happen. An effect is what happens as the result of that action or event. Understanding cause-and-effect relationships can help students understand why events and actions happen.

Certain words and phrases (such as *because*, *since*, *so*, *as a result*, and *therefore*) are sometimes cues that signal cause-and-effect relationships. Students should understand that when they try to determine causes and effects, they need to think about which events or actions happened and what consequences resulted. Sometimes the effect is pronounced and can be identified first, and then students can backtrack to find the cause or causes.

Handout 12a illustrates an effect (the beginning of political parties) based on several causes that are discussed in Lesson 20. Handout 12b is a blank copy of the same graphic organizer. As with most of the graphic organizers in the handouts, the number of boxes is arbitrary; more or fewer boxes may be needed. Additionally, this cause-and-effect pattern is only one of several types. The Enchanted Learning website has examples of other configurations (see http://www.enchantedlearning.com/graphicorganizers /causeandeffect/index.shtml#manyto1). The specific events or actions and results in each case will dictate the type of cause-and-effect relationship and how it can best be represented.

> **TIP**
>
> Cause-and-effect analysis works well when used in conjunction with determining main ideas and details.

SQUARE Reading

Classroom organization Pairs or triads; whole-class discussion

Materials Handout 13—SQUARE Activity

A way to engage students in critical reading is to provide a structure that they can use to seek and record information as they read. The SQUARE strategy promotes higher-order thinking and problem solving. SQUARE is an acronym:

Summarize......Identify and paraphrase the most important points in the text.

Question..........Ask clarifying questions about the text to uncover points that are unclear.

Use......................Use the information in a meaningful way by providing an example.

Apply..................Use the concept in a new situation; make a connection to a current event.

Review...............Reflect on your new interpretation by reviewing information from the text.

Express.............Demonstrate your understanding in a creative way (poster, song, media presentation).

The boxes on the handout are self-explanatory.

> **TIP**
>
> This strategy will be difficult for struggling readers if it is the only strategy they use. Working in pairs or triads will help, but one or more other strategies should be used as preparation for this more challenging strategy.

Pair Reading

> **Classroom organization** Pairs of students
>
> **Materials** *We the People* text

Sometimes the most appropriate support for a struggling reader is to be able to read with a partner, usually a classmate, although other pairings are possible. The procedure for pair reading, adapted from Billmeyer and Barton (1998), is as follows:

- Each student selects a partner. One initially takes the role of coach; the other, reader.

- The reader reads the first paragraph.

- The coach then summarizes the main idea of the paragraph but can ask the reader questions to help clarify understanding.

- Reader and coach trade roles for the next paragraph and continue alternating to the end of the selection.

The reading pairs may be encouraged to share their summaries with other pairs and then to revise their summaries as needed.

Read–Recap–Request

> **Classroom organization** Triads of students
> **Materials** Handout 14—Read–Recap–Request

Students helping students is an approach that we have suggested in a number of these strategies because working together helps to reduce students' anxiety about reading and establishes a collaborative culture in a classroom.

Triads of students work best for this strategy, which is described on Handout 14. The procedure is as follows:

> **Read** One student reads an assigned text passage aloud as the other two students follow along silently.
>
> **Recap** The second student summarizes the passage.
>
> **Request** The third student formulates questions for the group. The questions may be for clarification or to spark discussion.

The teacher directs students to rotate roles as the triads move through the text selections chosen for this strategy. Whole-class discussion may be used to compare summaries and to respond to general questions.

Metacognitive Conversation with Text

> **Classroom organization** Individual students; whole-class discussion
>
> **Materials** Handout 15—A Metacognitive Conversation with Text

When learners begin to think about the mental activity that occurs while reading, they can begin to self-monitor their ability to comprehend text. Providing students opportunities to engage in a metacognition—to *think about their thinking*—allows them to consider their own mental processes. By engaging in metacognitive conversations with others, students talk about their reading processes, strategies, knowledge resources, motivations, and interactions with and affective responses to text. They are able to make their invisible cognitive activity visible and reflectively analyze and assess the effect of their thinking processes (Schoenbach et al. 1999, pp. 22–23).

By engaging in a metacognitive conversation with the text, struggling readers are invited to reflect on and make visible the strategies they employ to comprehend text by asking themselves the following questions:

- What did you do, as a reader, to make sense of the text you just read?
- Which parts were difficult to understand?
- What did you do when you got to the difficult parts?
- Are there parts you are still struggling with? What are they?

An important next step is to invite readers to share their responses with peers to learn what others do when confronted with challenging text. Revealing personal strategies can be motivating for struggling readers because it allows them to become active agents in their own learning. They are often comforted to realize that *all* readers struggle with text at some time. Sharing personal strategies with others also helps expand the repertoire of tools that students can use in future reading.

Handout 15 is intended to lead students through a metacognitive conversation. After students have completed the handout, they should share their responses with one or two classmates or during a whole-class discussion.

After Reading

The *We the People* text provides a number of questions and activities to engage students after they have read each lesson. In this section we suggest a few strategies to improve students' ability to analyze ideas and concepts in individual lessons, strengthen reading comprehension and critical thinking skills, and apply concepts to future learning scenarios.

Evaluate, Take, and Defend a Position

    Classroom organization Small groups; individual students; whole-class discussion
    Materials Handout 16—Evaluate, Take, and Defend a Position

---

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20

An important skill for responsible citizens is being able to analyze and consider various points of view before taking a position. Providing students with a structure to organize ideas can be useful for all readers.

The opening purpose statement says that students "should be able to describe the two original political parties, their leaders, and the issues that divided them." Many students will benefit from having a template after reading to sort out ideas, for example, the issues that divided the early political party leaders. Handout 16 provides it.

1   In the center *Issue* box write, "Issues divide the original two political parties."

2   In the first box on Side 1 write, "Federalist Party," and on Side 2 write, "Republican Party."

3   In the boxes on Side 1 students record positions supported by the Federalists. In the boxes on Side 2 they record the positions supported by the Republicans.

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20 (continued)

4 After analyzing the positions listed, students take a position in support of one or the other party and write their position in the *Take a Position* box. Students should ask, "Which party's views does my group support?" or "Is there a middle ground?"

5 In the *Defend* box students defend their position in support of the chosen party.

Once Handout 16 has been completed, teachers might ask students to defend their positions either orally before the whole class or individually in writing, drawing on the group handout. The following is a checklist of characteristics of an effective defense that can be adapted to assess oral or written presentations. A check or number rating (1–5) can be used to assess how well the student

- clearly states his or her position on the topic;
- describes the points in support of his or her position, including relevant facts, details, examples, detailed evidence, and reasoning to support arguments;
- paraphrases and summarizes all perspectives on the topic, as appropriate;
- maintains a consistent point of view, focus, and organizational structure;
- anticipates readers' or listeners' concerns and arguments against the position; and
- uses correct grammar and, if written, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.

TIP

Share these criteria with students before they begin preparing their small-group or individual presentations so that they know how their work will be judged.

Debate

> **Classroom organization** Three groups
>
> **Materials** Handout 16—Evaluate, Take, and Defend a Position

When students have completed Handout 16 in the previous strategy, debate is an alternative to small-group or individual presentations. To conduct a class debate the teacher should divide the students into three groups. Two of the groups will debate each other. The third group will act as observers or help score the debate.

In the case of Lesson 20, it would make sense for one group to take a position in support of the Federalist Party and the other group the position of the Republican Party. If the debate is to be scored, the criteria should be developed in advance with all the students. The criteria listed previously can be used or adapted for this purpose.

RAFT

Classroom organization Individual students
Materials *We the People* text

RAFT is an acronym: **R**ole, **A**udience, **F**ormat, and **T**opic. This strategy is adapted from ideas developed by Doug Buehl (1995). To use this strategy students choose an appropriate topic, such as one from the earlier Evaluate, Take, and Defend a Position strategy or one from the activities listed after each lesson in the *We the People* text. Students examine the topic (the T in the acronym) by considering each part of RAFT before they write about or otherwise develop the topic:

Role	What is the writer's role? Reporter? Observer? Eyewitness?
Audience	Who will read or view the writer's work? Teacher? Classmates? Newspaper readers?
Format	What is the best way to express the writer's ideas? Letter? Newspaper article? Report? Newscast? Skit?
Topic	What is the subject? How can the subject be focused or defined?

This strategy can be used to provide for a wide variety of student products, which can help struggling readers by allowing them to draw on their strengths.

EXAMPLE FROM LESSON 20

A RAFT activity that teachers could assign to student groups to help them synthesize and evaluate information from the lesson might include the following steps:

Role	Pretend you are a reporter from National Public Radio.
Audience	A national audience is disgruntled about the political party system.
Format	Radio documentary program.
Topic	How did political parties get started and why do we have them today?

Write a Letter to the Editor

Classroom organization Individual students

Materials *We the People* text

Sections of the *We the People* text, such as the Ideas for Discussion feature and the lesson follow-up activities, offer topics about which students might compose letters to the editor. This strategy, like others (such as Take a Position), calls on students to express a point of view based on their reading and class discussion. Writing a letter to the editor of a student or community newspaper or another modern publication (including an online newspaper or blog) can be a way to relate the ideas in the *We the People* text to contemporary situations. For example, students might address the question: Should members of the school's student government make rules that they believe to be "necessary and proper" for the "general welfare" of students? Or students might be asked to take a position on the role of political parties today.

Begin at the End

This is a general strategy and echoes the before-reading strategies we previously suggested. Beginning at the end means helping students focus on what they need to learn by examining the lesson review questions and the activities they will be asked to tackle after reading a lesson. Several related activities can be used in the context of this general strategy.

Scan and Write a Fact

Ask students to scan the lesson to find out the answer to the review questions listed at the end of the lesson. Ask small groups of students each to skim one section of the lesson to find a sentence or two that answers the question. As the groups share their findings, write the sentences on the board or chart paper.

Section, Read, Summarize

1   Organize the class into groups according to the number of sections in the lesson. Ask each group to study a different section. Then ask a volunteer from each group to share a summary of what the group learned. After each summary, challenge all the students to answer the question at the beginning of that section and the pertinent review questions at the end of the lesson.

2   Ask pairs of students to read the lesson together and then write a summary sentence for each section of the lesson. Ask students to compare their summaries with those written by other pairs of students.

3   Divide the class into groups according to the number of sections in the lesson. Assign each group a different section to read. Distribute chart paper and markers to each group. Ask students to list three to five main points under the heading of their section. Post students' lists for the class and briefly discuss them. Then challenge students to answer the lesson review questions.

Scan and Find

1   Ask students to read the section headings and the Lesson Review questions. Then ask students to work in pairs to skim the lesson to find the answers to the questions. Students can share their answers and edit them if they wish. Finally, have the class make a set of master answers.

2   Divide the class into three groups. Assign one group to scan the lesson text, maps, and illustrations to find out how these elements help answer the review questions. Ask another group to review the Terms to Understand to see how they help to answer the review questions. Ask the third group to review the sections to see which relate to specific review questions. Instruct all three groups to write a short summary of their findings to share with the class.

Review, Read, Write

Ask pairs of students to work together to find answers to the lesson review questions. Encourage students to look for the answers in the heading, the illustrations, and the text of each section. Ask each pair of students to discuss their answers with another pair. After they have read the lesson, students also may be asked to write individual answers to the review questions.

Designing Assessment Tasks

Many of the strategies in this guide can be used for formal or informal assessment of students' knowledge and understanding. Table 1 (developed by Priscilla H. Porter) offers a summary list of products and performance assessment tasks that can be useful in helping students to demonstrate their knowledge of lesson content and their ability to explain or describe ideas and concepts identified in the purpose of each lesson.

TABLE 1   List of Products and Performance Assessment Tasks

WRITTEN		
Advertisement	Instructions	Postcard
Autobiography	Invitations	Proposal
Biographical poem	Journal	Questionnaire/survey
Biographical sketch	Labels and captions	Reader's Theater
Biography	Letter: business	Research report
Book report/review	Letter: personal	Resume
Character portrait	Letter: to the editor	Rules
Crossword puzzle	Log	Script
Description	Magazine article	Story
Dialogue	Memo	Test
Diary	Newspaper article	
Editorial	Notetaking/notemaking	
Essay	Persuasive writing	
Game	Poem	

ORAL		
Audiotape	Dramatization	Rap
Commercials	First-person narrative	Role play
Debate	Interview	Skit
Dialogues	Newscast	Song
Dictate sentences	Oral presentation	Speech
Dictate simple stories	Oral report	Teach a lesson
Dictate story endings	Play	
Discussion	Poetry reading	

VISUAL

Advertisements	Drawing	Scrapbook
Banner	Filmstrip	Sculpture
Cartoon	Graph	Slide show
Chart	Graphic organizer	Storyboard
Collage	Grid/matrices	Tableau
Collection	KWL chart[a]	T chart
Computer graphic	Map	Time line
Construction	Model	Venn diagram
Data table	Outline	Webbing/mind map
Diagram	Painting	
Diorama	Photograph	
Display	Poster	

[a]A KWL chart is a three-column chart that asks students the following:

What do you *know* (K) about the topic?

What do you *want* (W) to know?

And what have you *learned* (L)?

Connecting to Standards

Most states have adopted K–12 learning standards for reading and language arts. As teachers review these standards for their state, they will likely find that many of them are addressed in this guide. For example, California's eighth-grade reading and language arts standards are matched by many opportunities for students to show what they have learned in the *We the People* text. Teachers will note standards used in this guide, such as analyzing the structural features of text, structuring ideas, and presenting persuasive arguments and supporting them with precise, relevant examples. The writing and speaking application sections of the standards provide various avenues by which students can demonstrate their knowledge of lesson content, including multimedia presentations. Social studies teachers are encouraged to coordinate projects with English teachers so that classes in both disciplines support students' attainment of the standards.

English-Language Development Standards

The publication *English-Language Development Standards for California Public Schools, Kindergarten through Grade Twelve* (California Department of Education 2002) was adopted in California to provide educators with an overview of what English learners must know and be able to do as they move toward full fluency in English. The standards are organized into the domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing for the various levels through which English learners progress, identified as beginning, intermediate, and advanced.

You will notice many opportunities for students to listen, speak, read, and write throughout the We the People program. Correlating activities to *English-Language Development Standards* can strengthen your ability to help English learners become fluent and proficient English speakers, readers, and writers.

A correlation to the California reading/language arts standards for Grade 8 can be found at the California We the People website: www.cawtp.com. The complete copy of the *Reading/Language Arts Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten through Grade Twelve* (California Department of Education 2007) can be found at California Department of Education's website: www.cde.ca.gov.

History–Social Science Standards

A correlation of the Level 2 *We the People* text to the California history–social science standards can be found at the California We the People website: www.cawtp.com. The complete copy of *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools, Kindergarten through Grade Twelve* (California Department of Education 2000) can be found at the California Department of Education's website: www.cde.ca.gov.

The Simulated Congressional Hearing

Opportunities to reflect on ideas and to use new knowledge in meaningful ways reinforce learning, develop effective cognitive strategies, improve students' ability to comprehend text, and, perhaps as important as any of these, make learning fun and thus motivating. The We the People program is rich with ideas to help students make personal connections to the text and extend their thinking by making applications to real-world scenarios. All these aspects are helpful for teaching struggling readers.

The program's culminating activity is a simulated congressional hearing in which students "testify" before a panel of judges. Students evaluate, take, and defend positions on relevant historical and contemporary issues. The entire class, working in cooperative teams, prepares and presents statements before a panel of community representatives who act as congressional committee members. Students then answer questions posed by the panelists. The format provides students opportunities to demon-strate their knowledge and understanding of constitutional principles while giving teachers an excellent means of assessing performance. Students who participate in the simulated congressional hearing activity engage in higher-order thinking, which also prepares them for responsible citizenship.

This guide offers practical strategies to help struggling readers master text-based information and fully participate in the We the People program. The simulated congressional hearing is an ideal culminating activity because it allows students to take on various roles in which they can use their strengths as learners and employ the strategies in this guide that are designed to help them become better readers.
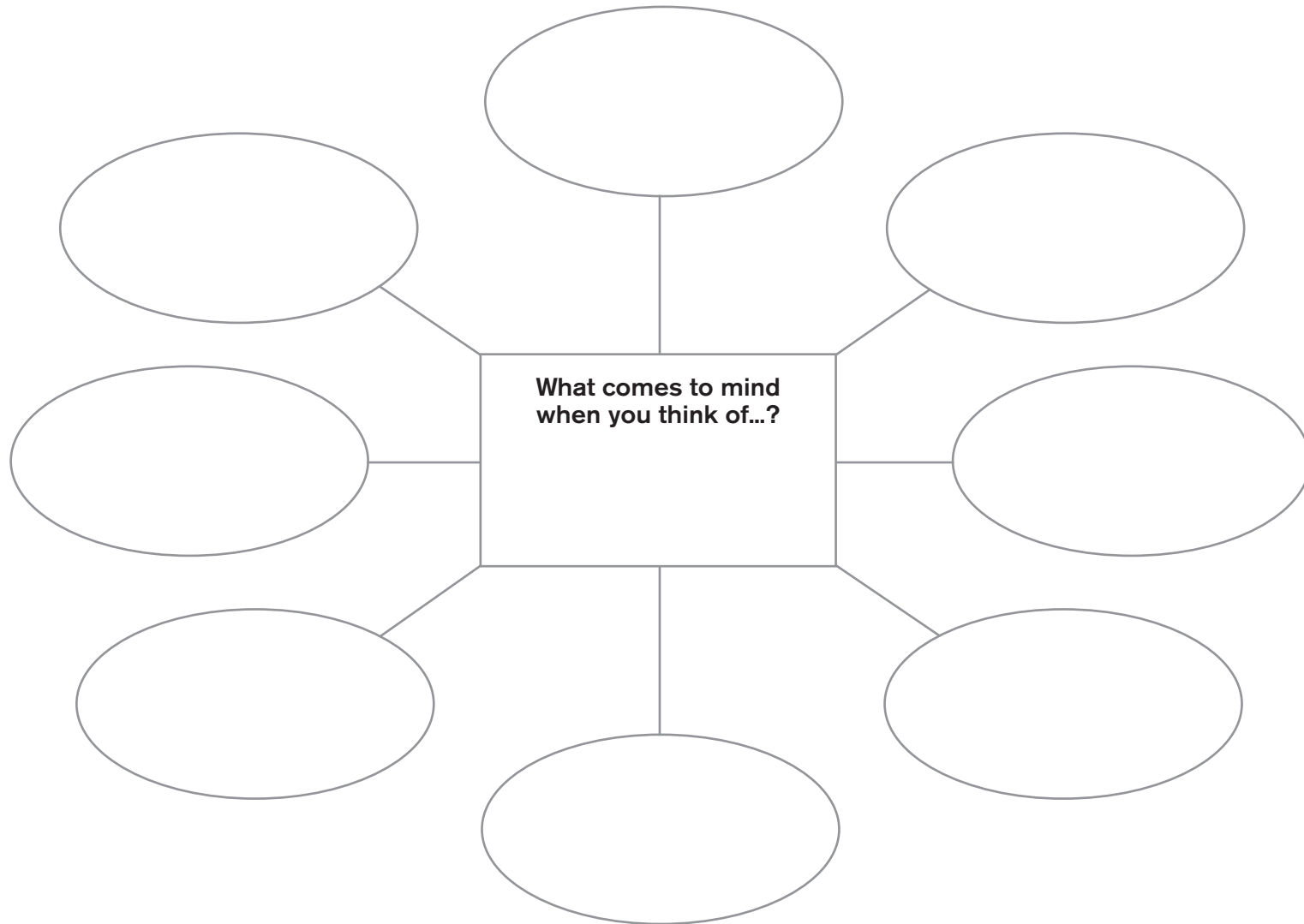
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Period	Class	Date	Name

Directions   Identify the key concept in the center box.

Write various characteristics in the surrounding oval shapes.

Add examples for each.

What comes to mind when you think of...?

Period	Class	Date	Name

Text Feature	Information
Lesson title	
Lesson purpose	
Terms to understand	
Boldface subheadings	
Typographical aids, such as bulleted items and text in italics	
Illustrations and their captions, including photographs, drawings, cartoons, paintings, and maps	
Ideas for discussion	
Lesson review	
Activities	

Based on the information gathered above, what will the lesson be about?

Lesson Purpose

Briefly state in your own words.

What do I know about this subject?

What I am learning about this subject?

Take notes as you read the lesson.

Questions I have:

Period	Class	Date	Name

Write the term or concept.

_____

Write the sentence in which the term or concept first appears in the text.

_____
_____
_____
_____

Found on page _____.

Draw a picture to show the term or concept.

Write the class definition of the term or concept.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Draw a picture to show what the term or concept is *not*.

Write the term or concept _____

Definition _____

_____

What it's like

_____

_____

_____

_____

What it's not

_____

_____

_____

_____

Some examples

_____

_____

_____

_____

Some examples

_____

_____

_____

_____

Based on Schwartz, R.M., and T.E. Raphael, "A Key to Improving Students' Vocabulary." *The Reading Teacher,* 39 (October 1985): 2 and Doty, J.K.; G.N. Cameron; and M.L. Barton. *Teaching Reading in Social Studies: A Supplement to Teaching Reading in the Content Areas Teacher's Manual*, second edition. Aurora, Colo.: McREL, 2003.

| Vocabulary Chart | | | | | | Handout **6** |

Vocabulary Chart

Period	Class	Date	Name

| Term and page number where it was first found | CHECK ONE | | | The thoughts I used to define the term—memory clue, primary language connection, symbol, etc. | Definition | My sentence example using the term |
	Do not know the term	Heard it and know something about it	Know it and can explain it and use it			

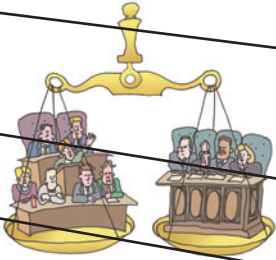| Period	Class	Date	Name

Front of card

Term
Justice (noun)
[jus′ tis]

Translation
justitia (Latin)

Related words
just (adjective)
judge (noun)

Visual cue

- New term (part of speech)
and pronunciation

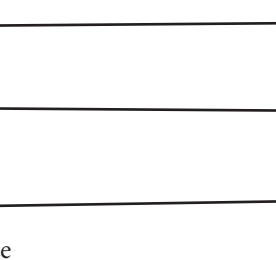- First language/root word

- Related words

- Draw a visual cue

Back of card

First found
We the People glossary, page 309

Definition
(1) Fair treatment according to law.
(2) A member of the U.S. Supreme Court.

My sentences
(1) Some people want to be fair and have justice
for all people, not for only some of the people.
(2) There are nine justices on the U.S. Supreme Court.

Synonym   **Antonym**
fairness   injustice
equity   inequity
objectivity

- First place the term is encountered

- Book/dictionary definition

- Student's own words describing the term
or using the term in a sentence

- Synonyms and antonyms

Mehlbrech, L. "Reading Strategies That Work." Presentation at California State University, Dominguez Hills, 2002.

Front of card

Term   **Visual cue**

Translation

Related words

- New term (part of speech) and pronunciation

- First language/root word

- Related words

- Draw a visual cue

Back of card

First found

Definition

My sentences

Synonym   **Antonym**

- First place the term is encountered

- Book/dictionary definition

- Student's own words describing the term or using the term in a sentence

- Synonyms and antonyms

Period	Class	Date	Name

Topic		
Main Idea	**Main Idea**	**Main Idea**
Essential Details	**Essential Details**	**Essential Details**
Generalization (a general statement about the information)		

Period	Class	Date	Name

Differences

Similarities

Differences

1

2

3

4

5

1

2

3

4

5

Topic

Topic

Period	Class	Date	Name

How are they alike?

Compare and Contrast

How are they different?

Period	Class	Date	Name

Topic

Note the series of events in the rectangles below.
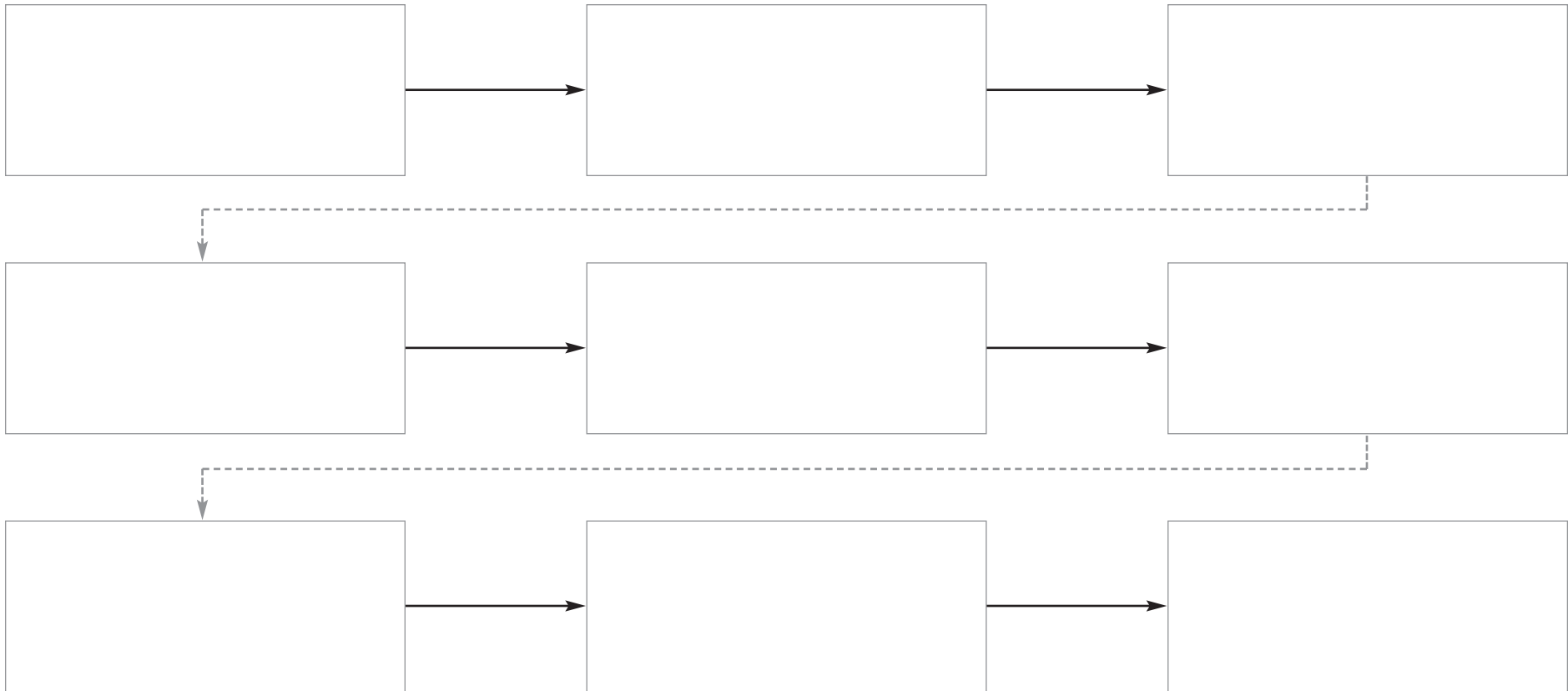
Causes

Disagreement over the necessary and proper clause in the Constitution

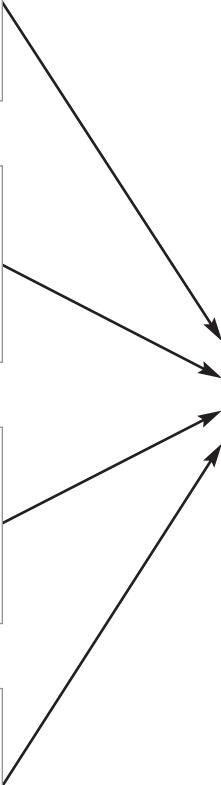How much power should the federal government have?

Disagreement about the nation's economy

Should the government establish a national bank?

Disagreement about foreign affairs

Should the United States enter into permanent agreements with foreign governments?

Disagreement over the Alien and Sedition Acts

Should the federal government have the authority to limit people's right to criticize the government?
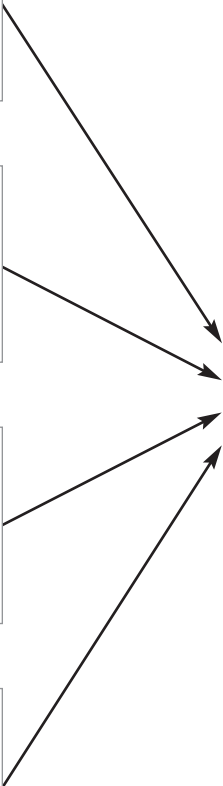
Effect

Political parties begin in American politics.

Causes

Effect

Period	Class		Date	Name

Topic

Summarize	**Question**
Identify and paraphrase the most important points in the text.	Ask clarifying questions about the text to uncover points that are unclear.
Use	**Apply**
Use the information in a meaningful way by providing an example.	Apply the new idea or concept to a new situation. Make a connection to a current idea or event.
Review	**Express**
Reflect on your new interpretation by reviewing information from the text.	Demonstrate your understanding of the new idea or concept in a creative way.

Period	Class	Date	Name

Directions

1 Form groups of three.

2 Assign each person a number–1, 2, or 3.

3 **Read:** Student 1 reads a text passage assigned by the teacher aloud to the other two students as they follow along silently.

4 **Recap:** Student 2 summarizes the passage.

5 **Request:** Student 3 formulates questions for the group. They may be clarifying questions or questions to spark further discussion.

6 Move on to another text passage and rotate roles.

7 Continue until the end of the section or the lesson.

8 As a group, work together to summarize the entire portion and formulate questions for another group to answer.

9 Circulate questions among groups and allow time for groups to respond.

Period	Class	Date	Name

Directions After reading, reflect on the process you used to understand the meaning of the text.

What did you do to make sense of the text as you read?	With what parts of the text are you still struggling?
Which parts were difficult to understand?	**Share your strategies with others in your group.**
What did you do when you got to a difficult part?	**What ideas did you gain from others?**

Period	Class	Date	Name

Directions   Identify an issue. Provide arguments in support of one side of the issue in the left-hand column and in support of the other side of the issue in the right-hand column. Discuss each side of the issue with other students. As a group, take a position for one of the issues and be prepared to defend it.

SIDE 1	Issue	SIDE 2
	Take a position	
	Defend	