

**Adaptations
Are Essential:
Early Years Reading**

**A Resource Guide
For Adapting Learning and Assessment Tasks
For Students With Mild Disabilities**

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Adaptations Are Essential: Early Years Reading

A Resource Guide For Adapting Learning and Assessment Tasks For Students With Mild Disabilities

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Introduction

“Adaptations Are Essential” is a series of resource guides written for teachers and other service providers who work with students with mild disabilities. The guides describe strategies for aligning students’ individualized education programs (IEPs) with the state of Washington’s essential academic learning requirements (EALRs). Separate resource guides have been developed for reading, writing, and mathematics. Each guide includes the following components:

- General information about adapting learning and assessment and why such adaptations are essential.
- A decision making model for adapting instruction and assessment.
- Suggestions for adapting assessments using materials from the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) and Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence (CBE).
- Research-validated teaching strategies for helping students achieve various essential academic learning requirements (EALRs).

“Adaptations Are Essential” was written in response to SSB 6062 passed by the Washington Legislature in 1998. The legislation requires that a portion of the federal special education funds the state receives be allocated to support projects designed to help teachers improve services provided in general education classrooms to students with disabilities.

“Adaptations Are Essential” has been reviewed and fieldtested by teachers throughout the state of Washington. Many of the state’s educational service districts (ESDs) assisted with the review and fieldtest process. A listing of teachers and ESD personnel who participated in the initial pilot of the resource guides follows.

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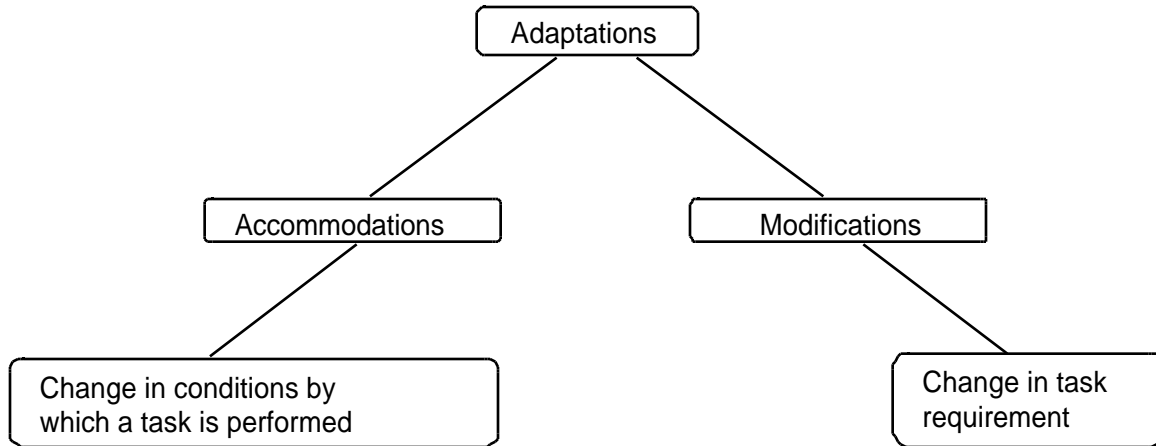
Jim Coldwell, Mount Vernon School District

A special note of appreciation is also extended to Dr. Anita Archer who has given permission to reproduce “Guidelines for Adapting Materials for Students with Disabilities” in its entirety (pp. 88–89).

What Are Adaptations?

For the purpose of this resource guide, an adaptation is defined as any change made in the learning and assessment tasks of the general education program. While the general education program is designed to meet the needs and learning characteristics of typical learners, the program can be made more appropriate for students with disabilities by making changes in the learning environment, instructional materials and activities, teaching strategies, student performance requirements, and by providing alternate learning and assessment tasks.

This resource guide describes two types of adaptations: accommodations and modifications.



- An **accommodation** is an adaptation that results in the student with a disability accomplishing the same goals and objectives as the nondisabled student and *does not fundamentally* alter the general education program.

An accommodation *changes the conditions* by which a disabled student accomplishes the same task as the nondisabled student. Accommodations are used to minimize the impact of a disability and circumvent deficiencies in specific academic areas. Accommodating deficits in order to meet individual learning needs is a time-honored tradition in special education.

Example: If a task of the third grade social studies program is to learn about the major groups of American Indians, an accommodation for a student with a learning disability might be to have the student read articles that are written at a lower readability level than what the rest of the class is assigned. The task remains the same for the student with a disability (i.e., learning about the major groups of American Indians), but the instructional materials have been adapted to meet that student's needs.

- A **modification** is an adaptation that results in the student with a disability accomplishing different goals and objectives as nondisabled students and fundamentally alters the general education program.

A modification *alters the task* in a way that the student is able to accomplish a different, but perhaps related, task than that assigned to the nondisabled peers. Modifications are used to remediate deficiencies in specific academic areas by bringing the goals and objectives of the curriculum in closer alignment with the student's present level of educational performance. Modifying the goals and objectives of general education is an important part of specially designed instruction.

Example: If a task of the fourth grade reading program is for students to summarize nonfiction articles, a modification for a student with a disability might be to use vocabulary words from the assigned article to practice writing complete, meaningful sentences. The task has been changed for the student with a disability; however, student is working with the same materials as the nondisabled classmates.

An adaptation should be based on the needs of individual students and evaluated to determine its effectiveness. One measure of the effectiveness of an adaptation is how well it increases a student's access to the learning opportunities of the general education program. A second measure of the effectiveness of an adaptation is how well it helps a student achieve the goals and objectives that have been established for the student. This resource guide is designed to help teachers design, implement, and evaluate adaptations that are identified on the basis of individual needs of students.

Why Are Adaptations Essential?

Adaptations are essential for sound educational reasons as well as compelling legal reasons. Learning can be increased reliably and dramatically when teachers adapt academic tasks. In contrast, learning problems occur when there is a mismatch between a learner's ability and the tasks assigned to that student.

While there is no legal requirement for adapting learning and assessment for general education students, there are legal safeguards regarding adaptations for students with disabilities. The legal requirements for adaptations are specified in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and the Education Reform Act of 1993 (ESHB 1209).

Adaptation Requirements of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act

On June 4, 1997, President Clinton signed the reauthorized Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The 1997 reauthorization was the fourth time since 1975 that Congress approved amendments to the national law creating federally funded special education programs. The basic intent of the original legislation was to provide equal educational opportunity for students with disabilities. The reauthorization reaffirmed the federal government's commitment to a free appropriate public education for students with disabilities.

For general education teachers, the most important part of the legislation is probably the requirement that students with disabilities must be educated with their nondisabled peers "to the maximum extent possible." The law further states that removal of students with disabilities from general educational settings should only happen when students with disabilities cannot be successful there with supplementary aids and services. Supplementary aids and services are the adaptations needed for the special education student to benefit from the general education program.

In addition to the basic provisions of the original IDEA legislation, the new amendments require both classroom teachers and specialists to develop adaptations for special education students in the following areas:

Curriculum and instruction requirements. IDEA '97 requires that disabled students' work be linked to the general education curriculum.

Assessment requirements. IDEA '97 requires that all disabled students be included in state or district assessment programs or be given an alternate assessment.

IDEA '97 further requires states to set performance goals for students with disabilities that are consistent, to the maximum extent appropriate, with the goals and standards established by the state for other students. States must establish performance indicators that address disabled students' performance on assessments and dropout and graduation rates and that public reports be provided on progress toward those goals. Each state is required to issue a progress report on its disabled students and report on their participation in assessments to federal officials every two years.

Adaptation Requirements of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973

By definition, special education students have disabilities that result in significant problems with learning and behavior that interfere with their progress in school. While not all students with disabilities are eligible for federally funded special education programming, all students with disabilities must be ensured equal educational opportunity. This legal safeguard was conferred by the Rehabilitation Act (P.L. 93-112). Passed by Congress in 1973, this was the first federal civil rights law to specifically protect the rights of children and adults with disabilities. The law was passed in an attempt to end education and job discrimination on the basis of a person's disability. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act prohibits discrimination of students with disabilities and requires that schools provide them with equal opportunity, which includes a legal right to access to the general education program, extracurricular activities in their local schools, and instructional and curriculum adaptations. Adaptations are necessary for most students with a disability and Section 504 ensures that students with disabilities have access to accommodations for the purpose of ensuring equal opportunity.

Assessment Requirements of the Education Reform Act of 1993

Since the passage of its Education Reform Act of 1993, the state of Washington has been engaged in a sustained effort to improve the quality of schooling. Washington has specified content standards for major subject areas and a new assessment system is under development to measure pupil progress toward achieving the new high standards.

Results achieved by fourth grade special education students on the 1997, 1998, 1999, and 2000 WASL appear in the table below.

Grade 4 Special Education Students Meeting Standard on the WASL

	1997 (n = 5,698)	1998 (n = 7,552)	1999 (n = 8,677)	2000 (n = 7,737)
Listening	29 percent	45.8 percent	44.8 percent	40.1 percent
Reading	6.7 percent	13.6 percent	19.7 percent	27.2 percent
Writing	7.7 percent	7.8 percent	7.7 percent	10.3 percent
Mathematics	2.2 percent	7.9 percent	11.5 percent	14.5 percent

Public schools in the state of Washington serve approximately 111,000 special education students. Given the high-stakes nature of the new assessments, teachers have a powerful incentive for ensuring that special education students attain the new standards. Increasing the numbers of special education students as well as general education students who successfully complete state-level assessments in Washington will require that teachers acquire and use more effective teaching strategies.

Summary

Adaptations are essential for both students with disabilities as well as other youngsters with low achievement not placed in a special education program. All special education students are legally entitled to an individualized education program that includes not only access to the general education program but also special education and related services. Meeting the academic, emotional, and physical needs of students with disabilities requires adapting the general education program. For some students with disabilities, the instruction received in the regular classroom will suffice with minor adjustments or accommodations. However, for those students experiencing significant behavioral, motivational, or academic difficulties, the instructional program may need to be altered more substantially using modifications. It is important to note, however, that adaptations do not guarantee equal results for persons with or without disabilities. Such adaptations only afford equal opportunity to achieve equal results.

How Do You Adapt Learning and Assessment Tasks?

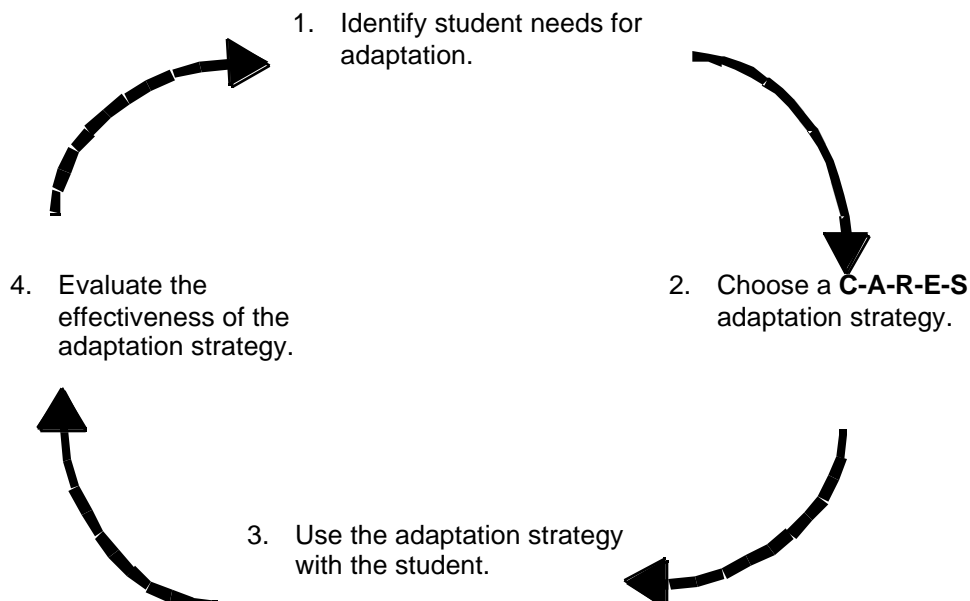
Special education students may not need adaptations (e.g., supplementary aids and program modifications) in every area of the general education program. However, schools must ensure that students be given special assistance in areas of identified need. Knowledge of a student's special education label gives very limited information about how best to teach that child. Consequently, teachers must consider what adaptations are appropriate for students on a case-by-case basis.

This section describes a decision making model for considering what areas of a student's instructional program should be adapted. The model takes into account what is taught, how it is taught, and how it is assessed. The model uses an acronym that will help teachers remember the steps of the strategy. The acronym is **I-C-U-E**, and it is a play on words. Pronounced like "I.Q.," the acronym uses the word "I" and "cue" to help teachers use a smart way to adapt learning and assessment tasks.

The I-C-U-E Process for Adapting Instruction and Assessment

One component of this resource guide is a decision making process for adapting the general education curriculum. The process represents a systematic approach to adapting instruction and assessment for special education students as well as other students with special needs. The **I-C-U-E** process for adapting instruction and assessment includes four steps:

1. **I**dentify student needs for adaptation.
2. **C**hoose a **C-A-R-E-S** adaptation strategy (see pp. 13–19).
3. **U**se the adaptation strategy with the student.
4. **E**valuate the effectiveness of the adaptation strategy.



I Identify student needs for adaptations. To identify a student's needs for adaptations, the teacher must consider the skills, abilities, and behaviors demonstrated by the child. An understanding of the major cognitive, academic, psycho-motor, and social-emotional characteristics provide a starting point for anticipating what kind of adaptations the student may need.

- 1. Review student's evaluation report and individualized education program (IEP) for recommendations about adaptation.** According to federal and state statutes, teachers should receive information from the evaluation report that addresses "how the students' disability affects the involvement and progress in the general curriculum" (WAC 392-172-10905).

In addition, the student's IEP must include a statement of the "specific accommodations, modifications, and supports that must be provided to the student" (WAC 392-172-158). Teachers should be able to use this information as a starting point for deciding how to adapt assessment and instruction for special education students.

- 2. Determine the requirements for successful performance in the general education program.** After considering the information found in a student's evaluation and IEP, teachers need to analyze the general education curriculum to clarify specifically what students must know and be able to do in order to perform satisfactorily on assessment or learning tasks that are part of the instructional program. By carefully analyzing students' learning needs and specific demands of the assessment and learning tasks, teachers can provide reasonable adaptations in the general education program for most special education students.

Two important questions should be asked to determine the requirements for successful performance in the general education program:

- What are the specific tasks that the student must master to succeed in this classroom?
- What is the sequence in which these tasks will be presented?

Teachers may want to create a list of what the setting demands are of the general education program. A setting demand is simply a requirement of a specific environment. It is useful to list what knowledge and skills the student is expected to have already in place in order to master current course content. An example of a setting demands inventory appears on the next page.

- 3. Identify factors hindering student performance on the assessment or learning tasks of the general education curriculum.** Teachers need to consider what factors may hinder a student's ability to complete the academic tasks of the general education program. Pugach and Wesson (1990, p. 90) recommend considering the following ten questions:

1. What do we wish the student would do that he or she is not doing?
2. What is the student doing that we wish he or she was not doing?
3. When does the behavior occur? Does it happen at a certain time of the day?
4. Does the student have the problem during group activities, independent activities, or small-group activities?
5. Does the problem occur during a particular academic topic or across different topics?

6. Do other children also have this problem? If so, who and how many children? Is there something that needs to be changed for the whole class?
7. Does the student know that the problem exists, or is he oblivious to the problem? Has the student been directly informed to change his or her behavior?
8. Is the problem related to school behaviors (attention, work completion), social behaviors (peer relationships, self-concept), or academic behaviors (learning new concepts, remembering to apply strategies)?
9. Is it a problem that can be ignored because addressing it may create more of a disruption than the problem itself?
10. Should we discuss the problem with another teacher so that we can get someone else's perspective on it and because talking about it may help us understand the problem more fully?

Setting Demands Inventory

I expect my students to:	I have taught and/or modeled the skill:	
___ read grade-level instructional materials independently	___ yes	___ no
___ preview what is read	___ yes	___ no
___ identify main ideas	___ yes	___ no
___ support generalizations	___ yes	___ no
___ take notes from reading assignments	___ yes	___ no
___ write in response to what they read	___ yes	___ no
___ answer multiple-choice questions	___ yes	___ no
___ answer short-answer questions	___ yes	___ no
___ answer extended-response questions	___ yes	___ no
___ increase their reading vocabulary	___ yes	___ no
___ use context clues	___ yes	___ no
___ use the dictionary	___ yes	___ no
___ manage their time	___ yes	___ no
___ participate in class discussions	___ yes	___ no
___ write a well-developed paragraph	___ yes	___ no

C Choose a C-A-R-E-S adaptation strategy. After identifying student needs for adaptations, a teacher must decide which level of intervention may be needed to help a student perform the teaching or assessment task. This resource guide presents a five-level approach to adaptation called **C-A-R-E-S**.

Level 1 represents adaptations that change the learning environment.

Level 2 represents adaptations that alter materials and activities.

Level 3 represents adaptations that revise teaching strategies.

Level 4 represents adaptations that exchange task requirements.

Level 5 substitutes an alternate learning or assessment task.

The first three levels represent accommodations because they do not fundamentally alter the general education program's goals and objectives. The last two levels represent modifications because they fundamentally alter goals and objectives of the general education program.

A complete description of the **C-A-R-E-S** approach is described on pp. 13–19 of this guide.

U Use adaptation strategies. Adaptations may require substantial preplanning by teachers. It is a good idea to develop a formal plan for using adaptations, especially if the teacher has not used the adaptation in the past. A plan might include the following components:

1. Develop a description of what complete implementation of the strategy will look like.
2. Make a timeline of when the adaptation will be tried out.
3. Assess obstacles that might prevent you from implementing the adaptation and try to determine a course of action to overcome each obstacle.
4. Implement the change strategies.

E Evaluate the effectiveness of the adaptations. Adaptations should facilitate learning. To determine whether adaptations are effective, teachers need to develop a plan that identifies (1) the data collection procedures and (2) the frequency of assessment.

Data collection procedures. Teachers have many choices in selecting evaluation activities. Teachers must distinguish between *skill-span assessment* and *specific skill assessment*. Skill-span assessment is used for surveying a variety of skills. *Specific skill assessment* is continuous and occurs throughout the year. While administered only at Grades 4, 7 and 10, the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) is an example of a skill-span assessment. Individual activities found in the classroom-based evidence models (CBEs) are examples of specific skill assessment.

Assessment frequency. The frequency with which assessment occurs should be specially designed to account for the strengths and weaknesses of individual students. Some students may benefit from more frequent assessment. Kerr and Nelson (1989) developed the following recommendations for adjusting the frequency of assessment:

- Use session-by-session (one or more daily) recording when student progress is rapid through a small-step sequence.
- Use daily recording when student behavior fluctuates and daily program adjustments are needed.
- Use daily recording when the daily progress of the student is needed for intervention modifications.
- Use biweekly probes or weekly probes when student progress is slow.
- Use biweekly or weekly probes when general monitoring of progress is needed and frequent adjustments are not needed.
- Use biweekly, weekly, or monthly probes when evaluating maintenance or generalization of previously mastered skills.

Using the C-A-R-E-S Approach to Adaptation

The approach to adaptations described in this resource guide is based on the *principle of least assistance* (Adelman and Taylor, 1993). According to this principle, adaptations are ordered from least to most support. Teachers start with one type of minimal support and increase it only as they see that the child requires it. This approach to adaptation is sometimes called trial teaching, dynamic assessment, or diagnostic teaching.

Using adaptations helps a teacher to identify the task on which the student should be instructed. In this sense, adaptations are really hypotheses about the minimal instructional adjustments needed for the child to succeed in materials at or near his or her grade placement. The level of support provided can always be increased, but if we start with high levels of support it may not be clear whether the student could perform just as well with less assistance.

Accommodations

(adapted task conditions)

1. **Change** the learning environment in which the task is to be performed.
2. **Alter** instructional materials and activities used by student to complete the task.
3. **Revise** teaching strategies for presenting the task to the student.

Modifications

(adapted task requirements)

4. **Exchange** task requirements that define successful performance.
5. **Select** an alternate task that more clearly matches a student's present levels of performance.

Accommodations (adapted task conditions)

C Change the learning environment in which the task is to be performed.

Sometimes the student with a disability can participate successfully in general education if the learning or assessment environment is adapted. According to Kaplan and Drainville (1991), the learning environment includes all of the following components:

1. Physical arrangement, size, and comfort of the furniture and equipment.
2. Sensory climate: temperature, ventilation, lighting, colors, and odors.
3. Traffic flow and amount of physical activity.
4. Schedule and time of day.
5. Social climate, including the teacher and peers.
6. Daily curriculum and related school activities.
7. Physical and emotional health of the student, teacher, and peers.
8. Teaching style and expectations of the teacher.
9. Learning styles and self-esteem of students.

Accommodations can be as simple as changing the student's desk location closer to the teacher. A more complex accommodation may involve the teacher determining whether the learning task will be completed in the context of full-group, small-group, or individualized instruction.

This adaptation strategy maintains the student in the general education classroom. However, the regular classroom may or may not be suited to accomplishing the general education program for the student with a disability. Federal and state rules and regulations require that a full continuum of placement options be made available for students with disabilities.

A Alter instructional materials and activities used by the student to complete the task. Students spend a large portion of the day interacting with printed materials. Some printed materials and activities may be poorly written or not appropriate for the reading level of an individual student or group of students. Teachers should analyze the quality of printed materials and activities prior to presenting to students. A copy of guidelines for evaluating printed materials and activities developed by Dr. Anita Archer can be found on pp. 88–89.

Determining the appropriateness of materials and activities. Teachers can use a student's sight vocabulary, oral reading rate and accuracy, and ability to answer comprehension questions to determine whether the instructional materials are at an appropriate level of difficulty. The independent level refers to materials that are easy to read for the student; the instructional level refers to those materials that are difficult enough to require assistance; the frustration level refers to those materials that are too difficult for students to read. For example, a student at any grade level is considered to be reading at an independent level if the student is (1) able to recognize more than 90 percent of sight vocabulary in the passage, (2) read correctly from the passage more than 120 words per minute, (3) have fewer than six words read incorrectly in the minute of reading, and (4) is able to answer correctly more than 90 percent of the comprehension questions that appear at the end of a passage.

Placement Guidelines for Reading Materials

Skill Area	Measurement Mode	Independent	Instructional	Frustration
Sight Vocabulary	percent correct	>90	80–90	<80
Rate	correct words/min.	>120	70–119	<70
Accuracy	error words/min.	<6	6–10	>10
Comprehension	percent correct	>90	75–90	<75

Materials and activities can be adapted by (1) clarifying the directions for completing the task and (2) scaffolding the tasks.

1. Clarify task directions. If the directions contain several steps, they can be simplified by presenting only one portion at a time and by writing each portion on the chalkboard as well as stating it orally. When using written directions, be sure that students are able to read and understand the words as well as comprehend the meaning of the sentences. While all of the following are appropriate accommodations for learning tasks, the last two strategies may not be permitted for assessment tasks.

- Give directions both orally and in writing.
- Restate oral directions in simpler language.
- Give only one or two oral directions at a time.
- Be sure students are able to see directions written on the chalkboard.
- Keep written directions on the student’s reading level.
- Explain any new or unfamiliar terms.

2. Scaffold the learning task. Scaffolding refers to the guidance an adult or peer provides through verbal communication as a way of doing for the student what the student cannot do without assistance (Cazden, 1988). Teachers can add features to learning or assessment tasks that are particularly helpful for students who have difficulty focusing attention on relevant instructional cues. Sometimes referred to as procedural facilitators, these features scaffold, or structure, the task and help the student know exactly what to do.

Procedural facilitators fall loosely on a hierarchy from the least amount of assistance to the greatest amount of assistance. For example, when a student makes an error, the teacher might begin prompting at the “top” of the hierarchy, cueing the student to respond. If the cue fails to produce a correct answer, the teacher might then move down the hierarchy, systematically giving increasing levels of assistance.

Scaffolding Levels

Level	Description	Example
Cue	Ask again; student may not have attended to the question.	“Read the word.”
Visual	Highlight correct response in some way.	<u>Feet</u> (teacher underlines the double-vowel pattern).
Verbal	Partially supply or describe the answer.	“The <i>smallest</i> coin.” “Line up the ones column.”
Model	Show or tell the correct answer.	“The word is ‘rope.’ What’s the word?”
Manual	Give physical assistance.	Place hand over the child’s to write her or his name.

R Revise teaching strategies for presenting the task to the student. If students are not succeeding with a task after changes have been made in the learning environment and materials have been altered, teachers should consider revising their teaching strategies. Current teaching strategies may lack clarity, fail to provide adequate guided practice, or do not include sufficient examples. Deborah Simmons, Doug Fuchs, and Lynn Fuchs (1991)

developed an instructional template to help teachers include explicit teaching steps within their lessons. This template reminds teachers of steps to use before, during, and after instruction for explicit teaching.

Instructional Template for Explicit Teaching Procedures (Simmons, Fuchs, and Fuchs, 1991)

Before Instruction

- Note time allocated for instruction (total instructional time and estimated time for teacher-directed instruction).
- Determine lesson objective (the student will be able to . . .).
- List preskills to review (“Before we begin, let’s review . . . ”).

During Instruction

- Frame lesson (“Today we’re going to learn . . . ” “This is important because . . . ”).
- Present target skill (“Listen and watch as I show you . . . ”).
- Guide practice (“Let’s try this one together.”).
- Correct errors and provide feedback (correct response—“That’s right”; hesitant response—“Good” and repeat the rule or procedure; and incorrect response—use prompts on process errors and model correct response on factual errors).
- Prepare for independent practice (“Let’s do the first one together.”).

After Instruction

- Monitor independent practice (circulate throughout the room and provide feedback to students through brief interactions).
- Review new skills (review skills at the end of the lesson and systematically throughout the instructional year).

Simmons, D.C., Fuchs, D., and Fuchs, L.S. (1991). Instructional and curricular requisites of mainstreamed students with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 24*, 354–360.

Teachers are often inclined to revise teaching strategies before having tried to change the learning environment or alter instructional materials. Revising teacher strategies often requires significant change in teaching behavior. This effort may not be warranted if students are successful with the first two levels of **C-A-R-E-S** adaptations.

Assuming that the initial instruction included the characteristics described by Simmons, Fuchs, and Fuchs, and a student is unable to perform a learning or assessment task, the teacher may want to consider the following strategies:

1. Provide additional presentation of target skills and information. Students may not have acquired a skill or information previously presented by a teacher for a variety of reasons. For example, a student may have been absent or attending a different school when a teacher originally presented a lesson. Teachers must be willing to provide repeat instruction on target skills in such cases.

2. Increase practice opportunities. Students require different amounts of practice to master skills or content. When a skill is newly introduced, students should have brief massed practice sessions on that skill. In subsequent lessons, the student should practice the objective at more interspersed intervals.

3. Increase motivation for successful performance of task. Given that not all academic tasks are reinforcing for every student, teachers must be able to identify methods to effectively motivate students to succeed in performing learning tasks. Below is a list of some intrinsic and extrinsic reinforcers. Teachers can use this hierarchy of potential reinforcers to find alternative ways to increase motivation for completing the task.

Hierarchy of Potential Reinforcers With Classroom Examples

Reinforcers	Classroom Examples
Intrinsic reinforcers	challenge of learning, sense of accomplishment
Knowledge of results	feedback on accuracy, confirmation, number or percentage correct
Social reinforcers	attention, praise, approval, calls and notes to parents
Activity reinforcers	special privileges, duties, free time, games
Token reinforcers	letter grades, points, check marks, stars, signatures which can later be exchanged for other reinforcers
Concrete reinforcers	toys, prizes, school supplies, awards
Primary reinforcers	food, candy, treats

The timing of consequences is also important. Collecting all the work at the end of the day only to discover that some of the children made errors on more than 50 percent of the items does not result in efficient learning. Teachers can, for example, permit students to finish one row of problems, then self-check by comparing their answers to those provided by the teacher.

Modifications (adapted task requirements)

E Exchange task requirements that define successful performance. Modifying the requirements that define successful performance of a task is the fourth alternative to consider when adapting instruction. A task can be modified along several dimensions of performance criteria and conditions under which the task is completed. The exchange task requirements form on the next page can be used for considering what dimensions of a learning task may be adapted by exchanging task requirements. The form contains components of clearly specified task requirements, including those components required by federal law to be included in a short-term objective of an individualized education program (IEP).

Task conditions refer to the circumstances under which the student must perform a task. The condition may specify which materials may be used to do the task, how the task may be accomplished (e.g., from memory, from the textbook, etc.), and the location of the performance.

- *Change presentation mode.* Read the items aloud to the student rather than expect the student to read the items independently.

Task characteristics specify what the student must perform, do, or produce that is used to evaluate the achievement of the task.

- *Change response mode.* For students who have difficulty with fine motor responses (such as handwriting), the response mode can be changed to underlining, selecting from multiple choices, sorting, or marking. Students with fine motor problems can be given extra space for writing answers on practice sheets or can be allowed to respond on individual chalkboards.

Criteria for successful performance refer to the standard toward which the student can strive. If students are not achieving acceptable performance levels, teachers may need to change the criteria of acceptable performance. Performance criteria can be changed by adjusting requirements for quantity, rate, accuracy, frequency, and/or duration.

- *Change quantity.* The number of problems, questions, or tasks can be reduced or increased.
- *Change rate.* If rate is a relevant aspect of performance, time limits for completing tasks can be extended or shortened.
- *Change accuracy expectation.* A lower or higher rate of accuracy can be established.
- *Change frequency expectation.* The number of times a task is to be performed can be reduced or increased.
- *Change duration expectation.* Expectations for how long a task should be performed can be reduced or increased.

Evaluation procedures refer to the methods by which the teacher will use to collect data to determine whether a student can accomplish the task.

Schedule refers to how frequently the teacher will collect data to determine whether a student can accomplish the task.

Exchange Task Requirements Form

Original Task: Given a reading passage written at 3.5 grade level, general education students will read aloud at a rate of 150 words per minute with 95 percent accuracy over three consecutive days by May 2001 as measured by daily one-minute timings.

	Original Task	Adapted Task
Task Conditions	Given a reading passage written at 3.5 grade level.	
Task Characteristics	General education students will read aloud.	
Criteria for Successful Performance	At a rate of 150 words per minute with 95 percent accuracy.	
Evaluation Procedures	As measured by daily one-minute timings.	
Schedule	Over three consecutive days.	

S Select an alternate task that more closely matches student's present levels of performance. Selecting an alternate learning or assessment task represents the most extreme form of adaptation. An alternate task might be either a prerequisite task or a task not directly related to the original target task.

Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1956, p. 90) can be used for planning alternate tasks. Given a student's present levels of educational performance, you may want to consider tasks at a lower level of cognitive complexity to ensure students have the prerequisite skills. For example, comprehending an idea or concept is essential to applying it, analyzing, or using it creatively or evaluatively. Teachers should assess whether students understand an idea before asking them to use it.

Because Bloom's Taxonomy is organized from simple to complex, some educators interpret it as a ranking from trivial (knowledge) to important (synthesis, evaluation). However, this is not the intent of taxonomy. Different levels of tasks are appropriate for different purposes and for students at different stages of development. If a student fails to perform at one of the higher levels of the taxonomy, teachers should determine if prerequisite knowledge and skills at the lower levels is a problem.

The I-C-U-E Adaptation Planner for Reading

Accommodations (adapted task conditions)	
Change the learning environment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce extraneous noise. • Use peer-mediated learning (e.g., partner reading).
Alter instructional materials and activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish a purpose for all reading assignments.
Clarify directions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preview reading material to assist students in establishing purpose, activating prior knowledge, budgeting time, and focusing attention. • Demonstrate how new content to be learned related to content previously learned.
Scaffold the learning task.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When discussing stories, paraphrase material to clarify content. • Highlight key words and phrases (e.g., color coding) and concepts (e.g., outlines, study guides). • Utilize visual aids (e.g., charts, graphs) to supplement reading tasks.
Revise teaching strategies.	
Provide additional presentations.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create vocabulary lists and preteach these words before the lesson to ensure that students can use this vocabulary rather than just recognize it.
Increase practice opportunities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use brief individual conferences with students to verify comprehension.
Increase motivation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage feedback from students to check for understanding.
Modifications (adapted task requirements)	
Exchange task requirements.	
Change conditions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instead of reading an entire assignment, have student specialize in a specific topic in an alternate text.
Change presentation mode.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tape text reading or have it read orally to a student. Consider the use of peers, volunteers, and/or professionals in this process.
Change response mode.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide page numbers where specific answers can be found in a reading comprehension/content assignment.
Change quantity criteria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce or increase the number of pages of a reading assignment.
Change rate criteria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce or increase the number of words read per minute.
Change accuracy criteria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase the criteria for the number of words read correctly.
Select an alternate task.	
Substitute a similar but easier task.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rewrite material to simplify its reading level, or provide chapter outlines or summaries. • Locate lower-level supplements in the same topic so that tasks can be adapted to be multilevel and multimaterial.
Substitute a prerequisite task.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure that the readability levels of the textbooks and trade books used in class are commensurate with the student's language level.
Substitute an important task not necessarily related to the target task.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide instruction in the use of test-taking strategies.

Adapting Assessment Tasks for Reading

Just as learning tasks should be adapted in light of the unique needs of students, so should the assessment tasks. The annual IEP conference should include a discussion for assessment adaptations. The 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires special education students either to participate in state and district assessments or participate in an alternate assessment. The decision to exempt a special education student from such assessments must be made during the IEP meeting.

Students with disabilities frequently have difficulty displaying their knowledge or skills on assessments. In some cases, tests can be adapted in ways that can help teachers assess students with disabilities fairly and with a reasonable amount of accuracy. Adaptations for assessments are usually accommodations. That is, they represent changes in the conditions (e.g., environment or process) under which the assessment is administered.

It is important to note that not all adaptations are appropriate for criterion- or norm-referenced tests. For example, there is less flexibility for adapting norm-referenced achievement tests like the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. The importance of following the instructions in the directions for administration cannot be overemphasized. Unless the test is administered in exact accordance with the standard directions, the test results will contain an indeterminate amount of error and thereby prevent proper interpretation.

Teachers have far more flexibility in adapting the classroom assessments they design themselves or other informal assessments they obtain from other sources. Teachers can use the **I-C-U-E** process and the **C-A-R-E-S** approach to make sure that classroom-based assessment results reflect special education students' knowledge and skills, not their disabilities. Many of these adaptations will also benefit students who do not have disabilities. A chart showing some adaptations organized according to the **C-A-R-E-S** approach is on the following page.

The I-C-U-E Adaptation Planner for Reading

Accommodations (adapted task conditions)	
Change the learning environment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce extraneous noise. • Use peer-mediated learning (e.g., partner reading). • Establish a purpose for all reading assignments. • Ensure physical accessibility. • Allow for isolation during assessment.
Alter instructional materials and activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enlarge type size. • Mask extraneous content.
Clarify directions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Record assessment directions. • Underline key words in directions. • Give samples at start of task.
Scaffold the learning task.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Record assessment items. • Use capital letters for matching or multiple choice. • Underline key words in assessment items. • Provide manipulatives.
Revise teaching strategies.	
Provide additional presentations.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow for reassessment.
Increase practice opportunities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide audiotapes of lectures. • Provide notes from lectures. • Familiarize students with assessment format.
Increase motivation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide options for completing task. • Provide feedback. • Pair task with positive consequences. • Assign grade based on amount of improvement over prior assessment grade.
Modifications (adapted task requirements)	
Exchange task requirements.	
Change conditions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow use of dictionary. • Allow use of calculator or other math manipulatives.
Change presentation mode.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Present content in different medium (e.g., film, book, video, etc.). • Allow use of video instead of reading. • Give assessment in Braille. • Give assessment orally.
Change response mode.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral report instead of essay. • Allow for dictation of responses. • Allow the student to use pocket charts or study cards for the assessment. • Allow student to demonstrate or dramatize.
Change quantity criteria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assign small sections of the task. • Use shortened assessment that contains same concepts.
Change rate criteria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give students additional time on assignments. • Provide additional time if power assessment.
Change accuracy criteria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adjust cut score for passing. • Grade only relevant concepts.
Select an alternate task.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assess student from a different domain.

The Washington State Assessment System

The Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction administers a comprehensive assessment system in accordance with state law. Three key components are norm-referenced tests (e.g., the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills [ITBS] and the Iowa Tests of Educational Development [ITED]), the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL), and assessment resources such as the Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence (CBE) found in the assessment toolkits developed originally by the Commission on Student Learning.

Both the WASL and the CBEs are designed to provide information about how well students have acquired the knowledge and skills needed to meet specific components of the essential academic learning requirements. The table below shows which EALRs in reading are assessed in the WASL and CBEs. Since not every EALR is tested by either the WASL or the CBE, teachers will need to create their own assessments to determine whether their students have achieved EALRs not included in the WASL or CBE.

Assessment Component	Grade Level	Reading EALRs Assessed
Washington Assessment of Student Learning		
• Early Years	4	1.2, 1.4, 1.5, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3
Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence		
• “On the Road to Reading”	K–2	1.1, 1.2, 1.3
• “Reading Narrative Text”	1/2	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.3, 4.1, 4.2, 4.3
• “Reading Informational Text”	3–5	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.5, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 3.1, 4.1, 4.2, 4.3

The table on the next two pages shows the relationship between the EALR components and how they are assessed on the WASL and the Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence.

The abbreviation or term SM in the table refers to student masters.

**How the Essential Learnings in Reading
Are Assessed in the Benchmark 1 WASL and CBEs**

	WASL Example Test Items (Grade 4)	“On the Road to Reading”	“Reading Narrative Text”	“Reading Informational Text”
1.1 use word recognition and word meaning skills to read and comprehend text (such as phonics, context clues, picture clues, and word origins; roots, prefixes, and suffixes of words)		Reading Passages 1–18, Concepts of Print, Phonemic Awareness, Word Recognition	SM 4 SM 6 SM 7 SM 8 SM 9	SM 5 SM 12 SM 14a–b SM 15 SM 16 SM 17a–b
1.2 build vocabulary through reading	12	Reading Passages 1–18, Word Recognition	SM 4 SM 9	SM 5 SM 7a SM 14a–b SM 15 SM 16 SM 17a–b
1.3 read fluently, adjusting reading for purpose and material		Reading Passages 1–18, Reading Fluency		SM 10a–b
1.4 understand elements of literature—fiction (such as story elements, use of humor, exaggeration, and figures of speech)	2, 4, 11, 13		SM 10 SM 11 SM 12 SM 14a–b SM 15	SM 1a–c
1.5 use features of non-fiction text and computer software (such as titles, headings, pictures, maps, and charts to find and understand specific information)	18, 26, 27, 28, 30			SM 3 SM 8a–c SM 18 SM 19
2.1 comprehend important ideas and details	1, 5, 7, 8, 9, 15, 22, 23, 25		SM 1a–c SM 3a–b SM 12 SM 14a–b SM 15	SM 10a–b SM 12
2.2 expand comprehension by analyzing, interpreting, and synthesizing information and ideas	3, 10, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21			SM 4a–b SM 7a SM 8a–c SM 9a–c SM 12 SM 20
2.3 think critically and analyze authors’ use of language, style, purpose, and perspective	6, 24, 29			SM 8a–c SM 9a–c SM 13 SM 20

3.1 read to learn new information (such as reading science and mathematics texts, technical documents, and for personal interest)				SM 1a–c SM 3 SM 4a–b SM 7a SM 8a–c SM 9a–c SM 10a–b SM 18 SM 19 SM 20
3.2 read to perform a task (such as using schedules, following directions, filling out job applications, and solving problems)				
3.3 read for literary experience in a variety of forms (such as novels, short stories, poems, plays, and essays to understand self and others)		Reading Fluency	SM 1a–c	
4.1 assess strengths and need for improvement			SM 3a–b	SM 6 SM 11
4.2 seek and offer feedback to improve reading			SM 3a–b	SM 6 SM 11
4.3 develop interests and share reading experiences			SM 13	SM 1a–c SM 9a–c

How Reading Is Assessed on the WASL

The purpose of the Washington Assessment of Student Learning is to measure students' level of proficiency in selected essential academic learning requirements.

Twenty targets related to the reading EALRs are assessed by the WASL. Ten targets are related to literary selections and ten targets are related to informational and task-oriented selections. For both sets of ten targets, five are designed to assess comprehension of important ideas and details and five are designed to assess how well students analyze, interpret, and think critically. A summary of these targets appears on the following page.

Each form of the WASL reading assessment given to fourth graders contains six reading selections. Two to three of the selections are literary selections and three to four are informational and task-oriented reading selections. The reading selections contain up to 600 words written at a difficulty level appropriate for fourth grade students. There are several alternate forms of the WASL and each form contains different reading selections.

Each reading selection is followed by questions that are answered in one of three response modes: multiple-choice, short-answer, and extended-response. Each form of the WASL includes 18 to 22 multiple-choice items worth one point each; seven to nine short-answer items worth two points each; and two extended-response items worth four points each. Short-answer items are scored using a three-level scoring guide (0–2) in which students receive either full credit, partial credit, or no credit. Extended response items are scored using a five-level scoring guide (0–4), in which student responses are determined extensive, essential, partial, minimal, and unacceptable/nonresponsive.

WASL Points for Extended-Response Items

Points	Level	Description
4	Extensive	Response provides extensive evidence of interpretation called for in the prompt.
3	Essential	Response provides adequate evidence that the student has made the essential interpretation.
2	Partial	Response provides incomplete evidence of interpretation.
1	Minimal	Response provides little evidence of interpretation.
0	Unacceptable/ nonresponsive	No evidence of understanding or interpretation.

Students receive a total reading score that is used to determine whether or not the student met the standard. These scores range from 150 to 600, with a score of 400 being the minimum score for meeting standard. The assessment also includes two subscale reports: *Reading for Literary Experience* and *Reading to Learn New Information and to Perform a Task*.

**How the Reading Assessment Links
To Washington’s Essential Academic Learning Requirements
“Reading for Literary Experience”**

Strand 1—Comprehends important ideas and details.

Given a literary text to read silently, learners respond to items in which they:

1. Demonstrate understanding of theme or message and supportive details (EALR 2.1).
2. Summarize with evidence from the reading (EALR 2.1).
3. Make inferences or predictions based on the reading (EALR 2.1).
4. Interpret vocabulary critical to the meaning of the text (EALR 1.1).
5. Order steps, sequence, or parts from the reading (EALR 2.2).

Strand 2—Analyzes, interprets and thinks critically.

Strand 2a—Analyzes and interprets.

Given a literary text to read silently, learners respond to items in which they:

6. Demonstrate understanding of literary elements (genres; story elements, such as plot, character, setting; stylistic devices) and graphic elements/illustrations (EALR 1.4).
7. Compare and contrast elements of text (EALR 2.2).
8. Make connections within and among texts (EALR 2.2).

Strand 2b—Thinks critically.

Given a literary text to read silently, learners respond to items in which they:

9. Analyze author’s purpose and evaluate effectiveness for different audiences (EALR 2.3).
10. Extend information beyond text (apply information, give a response to reading, express insight gained from reading) (EALR 2.1).

“Reading to Learn New Information and to Perform a Task”

Strand 3—Comprehends important ideas and details.

Given an informational or task-oriented text to read silently, learners respond to items in which they:

11. Demonstrate understanding of major ideas and supportive details (EALR 2.1).
12. Summarize with evidence from the reading (EALR 2.1).
13. Make inferences or predictions based on the reading (EALR 2.1).
14. Interpret vocabulary critical to the meaning of the text (EALR 2.1).
15. Order steps, sequence, or parts from the reading (EALR 2.2).

Strand 4—Analyzes, interprets and thinks critically.

Strand 4a—Analyzes and interprets.

Given an informational or task-oriented text to read silently, learners respond to items in which they:

16. Demonstrate understanding of text features (titles, headings and other information divisions, table of contents, captions) and graphic features (EALRs 1.5; 2.2).
17. Compare and contrast information presented (EALR 2.2).
18. Make connections within and among texts (EALR 2.2).

Strand 4b—Thinks critically.

Given an informational or task oriented text to read silently, learners respond to items in which they:

19. Analyze author’s purpose (including distinguishing between fact and opinion) and evaluate effectiveness for different audiences (EALR 2.3).
20. Extend information beyond text (apply information, give a response to reading, express insight gained from reading) (EALR 2.3).

How Reading Is Assessed in the CBEs

The Washington Model for Classroom-Based Evidence provides activities, discussion questions, assessment suggestions, and scoring criteria for teachers to gather information about reading skills and strategies. The models are designed to help teachers assess student skills and strategies as outlined in the essential academic learning requirements. Three CBEs in reading have been developed for the early years grades: “On the Road to Reading,” “Reading Narrative Text,” and “Reading Informational Text.”

“**On the Road to Reading.**” The CBE for “On the Road to Reading” includes 18 graded passages and numerous suggestions for classroom activities that are designed to help teachers assess concepts of print, phonemic awareness, word recognition, and fluency. This CBE is designed to be appropriate for use with students in kindergarten through second grade. A plus (+), check (), and minus (-) scale is used for documenting student proficiency in using reading awareness strategies

Rating Scale for “On the Road to Reading”

Points	
+	Student consistently applies targeted reading skill.
	Student generally applies the targeted reading skill.
-	Student lacks an overall understanding of this phase of the reading process or is unwilling to participate in activities.

The activities for concepts of print are designed to provide evidence regarding the following skills:

- Demonstrates book knowledge (i.e., the organization of books and the sequence of words).
- Identifies upper and lower case letters of the alphabet.
- Identifies words and sentences.
- Identifies simple punctuation (e.g., periods, question marks, and exclamation points).

The activities for phonemic awareness are designed to provide evidence regarding the following skills:

- Discriminates between sounds by observing how and where sounds are formed.
- Uses sounds and/or syllables in words.
- Recognizes sound patterns in rhyming words.
- Creates words by adding or deleting sounds at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of word parts.

The activities for word recognition are designed to provide evidence regarding the following skills:

- Matches spoken words to their written forms.
- Recognizes letter patterns in frequently used words.
- Uses context clues and prior knowledge to confirm unknown words.
- Sounds out words that are not immediately recognized.

The activities for reading fluency are designed to provide evidence regarding the following skills:

- Reads words in groups of two to four words instead of word by word.
- Matches reading flow/intonation to punctuation marks encountered in the text.

- Rereads text for increased fluency.

“Reading Narrative Text.” The CBE for “Reading Narrative Text” includes 20 activities based on the skills and strategies needed by students to read gain meaning from narrative text. This CBE is designed to be appropriate for and challenging to first- and second-grade readers. Teachers are advised to use individual reading inventories, running records, and to determine whether the materials are at an appropriate level of difficulty.

These skills and strategies are organized into four categories:

- How students approach the text before reading.
- How students act upon the text and monitor comprehension during reading.
- How students apply what has been learned from the text after reading.
- How students approach new words.

A three-point scale is used for determining student proficiency in using strategies for before, during, and after reading as well as for building vocabulary.

Rating Scale for “Reading Narrative Text”

Points	Description
2	Student consistently uses strategies.
1	Student generally uses the strategies or shows some understanding of how to employ the strategies.
0	Student lacks an overall understanding of this phase of the reading process or is unwilling to participate in activities.

The 20 activities appear as student masters that a teacher would use to evaluate student use of skills and strategies. The scoring criteria for “Reading Narrative Text” appear in the table on the following page.

Scoring Criteria for “Reading Narrative Text”

Student Master	Scoring Criteria
1a. Look, Listen, Think	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activates prior knowledge to prepare for reading.
1c. Stop, Look, Listen, Think	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognizes whether he/she has achieved purpose for reading.
2a–e. Reading Selection: “Jennifer Bing, Why Won’t You Sing?”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grasps purpose for reading, showing an understanding of the type of reader he/she needs to be to get the most from text. • Considers what he/she knows about the subject of the reading. • Considers what he/she wants to find out about the subject. • Seeks answers to the questions he/she generated before reading. • Uses dictionaries, glossaries, and other such references when appropriate.
3. How Do I Read?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grasps purpose for reading, showing an understanding of the type of reader he/she needs to be to get the most from text. • Makes logical (not necessarily correct) predictions about what the reading will include. • Activates prior knowledge to prepare for reading. • Applies appropriate strategies during reading. • Strives for accurate decoding and comprehension. • Further relates content of the reading to prior knowledge.
4. A New Word to Know	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strives for accurate decoding and comprehension. • Uses dictionaries, glossaries, and other such resources when appropriate. • Increases reading vocabulary.
5a–b. Thinking About Jennifer Bing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes logical (not necessarily correct) predictions about what the reading will include. • Activates prior knowledge to prepare for reading.
6. Sounds in Words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses phonological/phonemic awareness skills (e.g., decoding, letter-to-sound association, syllabication, and rhyming). • Uses a variety of strategies to determine word meanings (e.g., context clues, picture clues, affixes, roots, word origins).
7. Counting Syllables In Words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses phonological/phonemic awareness skills (e.g., decoding, letter-to-sound association, syllabication, and rhyming). • Uses a variety of strategies to determine word meanings (e.g., context clues, picture clues, affixes, roots, word origins).
8. Rhyming Words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses information gained in a meaningful way, discussing ideas in the reading and how they fit with what he/she knew before reading. • Evaluates and extends the reading.
9. Words, Words, Words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retells important ideas and details from the reading.
10. Story Parts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifies story elements.
11. What a Character!	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retells important ideas, elements, and details from the story.
12. Looking at Characters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retells important ideas, elements, and details from the story.
13. What I Think About the Story	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retells important ideas, elements, and details from the story. • Compare and contrast one story elements to those of another story.
14. Act It Out	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extends the reading (considers reading more about a subject, more of a particular author’s works, more of a particular genre).
15. Story Map	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extends the reading (considers reading more about a subject, more of a particular author’s works, more of a particular genre).

“Reading Informational Text.” The CBE for “Reading Informational Text” includes 15 activities based on the skills and strategies needed by students to read gain meaning from narrative text. This CBE is designed to be appropriate for and challenging to third- to fifth-grade readers. Teachers are advised to use individual reading inventories, running records, and to determine whether the materials are at an appropriate level of difficulty.

These skills and strategies are organized in four categories:

- How students approach the text before reading.
- How students act upon the text and monitor comprehension during reading.
- How students apply what has been learned from the text after reading.
- How students approach new words.

A three-point scale is used for determining student proficiency in using strategies for before, during, and after reading as well as for building vocabulary.

Rating Scale for “Reading Informational Text”

Points	Description
2	Student consistently uses strategies.
1	Student generally uses the strategies or shows some understanding of how to employ the strategies.
0	Student lacks an overall understanding of this phase of the reading process or is unwilling to participate in activities.

The 20 activities appear as student masters that a teacher would use to evaluate student use of skills and strategies. The scoring criteria for “Reading Informational Text” appear in the table on the following page.

Scoring Criteria for “Reading Informational Text”

Student Master	Scoring Criteria
1. Looking for Information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Considers purpose for reading.
2. Reading Selection “Year of the Emperor”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grasps purpose for reading, showing an understanding of the type of reader he/she needs to be to get the most from text. • Considers what he/she knows about the subject of the reading. • Considers what he/she wants to find out about the subject. • Seeks answers to the questions he/she generated before reading. • Uses dictionaries, glossaries, and other such references when appropriate.
3. Predicting Content of Article	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grasps purpose for reading, showing an understanding of the type of reader he/she needs to be to get the most from text. • Makes logical predictions about what the reading will include. • Compares predictions about what the reading will include with what it actually includes.
4. Using K-W-L Chart	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grasps purpose for reading, showing an understanding of the type of reader he/she needs to be to get the most from text. • Considers what he/she knows about the subject of the reading. • Considers what he/she wants to find out about the subject. • Seeks answers to the questions he/she generated before reading. • Uses dictionaries, glossaries, and other such references when appropriate.
5. Collecting Vocabulary Words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses what he/she reads to figure out the meanings of unknown words. • Uses a variety of strategies to determine word meanings. • Keep track of new words learned in reading; for example, by keeping a word list.
6. Checklist of Reading Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognizes whether and how often he/she uses during-reading strategies.
7. Group Activities for After Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognizes whether he/she has achieved purpose for reading.
8. Retelling What You Read	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retells important ideas and details from the reading.
9. Group Discussion for After Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses information gained in a meaningful way, discussing ideas in the reading and how they fit with what he/she knew before reading. • Evaluates and extends the reading.
10. Finding Answers to Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retells important ideas and details from the reading.
11. Evaluating Use of Reading Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decides whether purpose for reading has been achieved. • Evaluates the reading (according to personal preference or criteria set by themselves or others).
12. Picture This	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pictures what is read in mind.
13. Similes (Author’s Purpose and Craft)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looks for relationships between and among elements of the text.
14. Using a Dictionary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses a variety of strategies to determine word meanings. • Uses dictionaries, glossaries, and other such references when appropriate.
15. Suffixes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses a variety of strategies to determine word meanings.
16. Using a Thesaurus and a Dictionary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses a variety of strategies to determine word meanings. • Uses dictionaries, glossaries, and other such references when appropriate.

17. Activities for Vocabulary Study	• Uses a variety of strategies to determine word meanings.
18. Using Maps (Social Studies)	• Looks for relationships between and among elements of the text.
19. Using Graphs (Mathematics)	• Looks for relationships between and among elements of the text.
20. Research Activities	• Extends the reading (considers reading more about a subject, more of a particular author's works, more a particular genre).

How to Use CBEs

Like other instructional materials, CBEs are developed so teachers can (1) use these materials as they have been prepared, (2) use them with adaptations, or (3) use them to create other high-quality assessments.

Use CBEs as is. You can use the classroom-based evidence models taking into account the current performance levels of your students. Specific instructions are provided for teachers in each of the CBEs. It is important to note that CBEs were not designed for students to work through without teacher guidance and support. Furthermore, it is important to know the grade level which each of the CBEs were intended for. Most CBEs specify the grade level for which they have been written.

Using CBEs with adaptations. You can tailor the classroom-based evidence models to your students' needs by supplementing them with your own assessment materials and strategies. Some of the student masters are designed specifically to go with the reading selection that accompany the model; other student masters may be used with any reading selections you may want to use with your students.

Marilyn Friend and William Bursuck (1996) identified adaptations that may be used before, during, and after the assessment period. The table below identifies some of the possible adaptations that can be used to enhance the use of the CBEs.

Before Assessment	During Assessment	After Assessment
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Study guides.• Practice assessment.• Teaching assessment-taking skills.• Modified assessment construction.• Individual tutoring.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Alternative forms of response.• Alternative means of response.• Alternative sites.• Direct assistance.• Extra time.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Change letter or number grades.• Change grading criteria.• Use alternatives to number and letter grades.• Follow-up instruction.

Adaptations before the assessment. When using CBEs or administering any other classroom-based assessments to a group of children that includes students with disabilities, teachers should consider how easily a classroom assessment can be adapted for use with the students.

- *Study guides.* Teachers can develop study guides for students to use as they complete an assessment from the CBE. Such study guides would define words, draw student attention to key concepts, and basically lead the student through the materials in a way that supports successful completion of the tasks.
- *Practice assessments.* Teachers can prepare activities similar to those found in the student masters and help students become familiar with the assessment tasks prior to using the student masters with the rest of the class. Like a study guide, the practice assessment provides support for the student in terms of an additional practice opportunity.

- *Teaching assessment-taking skills.* Teachers can provide students with direct instruction on specific assessment-taking strategies. Part of such instruction might include helping students understand the vocabulary used in assessments. A list of key words used in short-answer and extended-response items and their definitions follows.

Key Words in Short-Answer or Extended-Response Questions

Key Word	Definition
Compare	Show similarities.
Contrast	Show differences between things.
Define	Give the formal meaning of a term.
Describe	Tell in detail about something.
Diagram	Give a drawing and label it.
Discuss	Give details and, if relevant, the positive and negative points of a subject as well as evidence for these positions.
Evaluate	Give the positive and negative points of a subject as well as your judgment about which outweighs the other and why.
Illustrate	Explain by giving examples.
Interpret	Explain the meaning of something.
List	Give a series of points and number them 1, 2, 3
Outline	Give the main points and important secondary points. Put main points at the margin and indent secondary points under the main points. Relationships may also be described with logical symbols, as follows: 1. _____ a. _____ b. _____ 2. _____
State	Give the main points.
Summarize	Give a condensed account of the main points.

Adapted from *Reading and Study Skills* (2nd ed.) by J. Langan, 1982, p. 193, New York: McGraw-Hill.

- *Modified assessment construction.* Teachers can adapt the response mode for items. For example, to adapt a multiple-choice assessment item, the teacher could reduce the number of choices. The table below shows some additional options to the traditional assessment formats.

Options for Modifying Assessment Construction

Format	Alternative Response Forms
Multiple-choice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide yes-or-no questions. • Reduce the number of choices. • Provide more information from which to make a choice. • Use matching items.
Short-answer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide a listing of facts and information to use in the answer. • Allow the student to list information or choose from several prepared short answers. • Use the cloze technique in prepared paragraphs. • Scramble information to be arranged.
Essay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide a partial outline for the student to complete. • Allow the student to tape record answers, note important points to be included in the response. • Use take-home assessments to allow for extra time.

Adaptations during the assessment. An important question for teachers to ask regarding classroom-based assessment for a student with a disability is whether the student can be

appropriately and meaningfully assessed using the same conditions under which the CBE is completed by other students.

- *Alternative presentation modes.* CBEs may be adapted in improved type, large-type, Braille, and audiocassette versions for those with visual disabilities. Teachers may want to consider providing a reader or a cassette tape of the assessment items. Tapes allow the student to hear instructions and items as well as read them. Also, tapes are convenient for assessment make-ups.
- *Alternative means of response.* An amanuensis (a scribe), a sign language interpreter, and a tape recorder to register answers are adaptations that might be used by a student to complete a CBE.
- *Alternative sites.* Teachers may need to consider alternative locations for students to complete a CBE. Moreover, some accommodations permit continued administration in group settings while others require individual administration.
- *Direct assistance.* Clarifying directions or the meaning of key vocabulary are examples of direct assistance teachers may provide for students completing CBEs.
- *Alternative times.* Time limits can be enforced, extended, or waived altogether for students completing CBEs. Students also may be given extra rest pauses.

Adaptations after the assessment. When a teacher adapts a CBE for an individual student, caution should be exercised in interpreting results. Results of an adapted CBE are best interpreted by developing hypotheses as opposed to making decisions. The goal of any interpretation of an adapted CBE should be an expected result on the comparable CBE. Teachers need to know how the person taking an adapted form of a CBE would have performed if he or she could have taken the assessment under standardized conditions.

- *Change letter or number grades.* Use language reflecting performance levels rather than letter grading (e.g., A, B, C, etc.).
- *Change grading criteria.* Grade on improvement over present levels rather than in terms of grade-level criteria.
- *Use alternatives to number and letter grades.* Use narrative reports to provide explicit feedback on areas of strength and weakness.
- *Follow-up instruction.* Provide group-based or tutorial lessons on areas of skill deficiency.

Using CBEs to create high-quality assessments. Teachers can use the classroom-based evidence models to create their own high-quality assessments. This is advisable for several reasons. First, developing classroom assessments can increase teacher understanding of the EALRs and help them recognize the characteristics of quality work that define the standards in the various subject areas.

Second, standardized achievement tests offer teachers limited options for adapting assessment tasks. In contrast, teachers have much flexibility in designing and constructing responsive classroom assessments. For example, teachers may use alternative response forms when existing formats appear to be a barrier to student performance on classroom assessments. Such modifications often allow students to demonstrate their achievements more effectively.

Teachers may also want to create their own assessments to evaluate broader outcomes for their students. Typical tests tend to overassess student “knowledge” and underassess student “know-how with knowledge.” For example, a more traditional map reading assignment would have students compute the mileage between several cities using a mileage key. In contrast, activities found in CBEs would have students create their own maps, within a real context, to show how well they can apply what they have learned to an actual problem.

Developing classroom assessments can increase teacher understanding of the EALRs and help them recognize the characteristics of quality work that define the standards in the various subject areas.

Developing and evaluating tasks for performance-based assessments.

Performance-based assessments, like standardized assessments and curriculum-based assessments, must be carefully designed and scored so that they can provide information that is helpful for instruction and that is viewed with credibility by parents, students, and administrators. Grant Wiggins (1992) outlined a number of considerations in designing, administering, and scoring performance-based assessments:

1. Assessment tasks should be, whenever possible, authentic and meaningful—worth learning.
2. The set of tasks should be a valid sample from which apt generalizations about overall performance of complex capacities can be made.
3. The scoring criteria should be authentic, with points awarded or taken off for essential successes and errors, not for what is easy to count or observe.
4. The performance standards that anchor the scoring should be genuine benchmarks, not arbitrary cut scores or provincial norms.
5. The context of the problems should be rich, realistic, and enticing—with inevitable constraints on access to time, resources, and advance knowledge of the tasks and standards appropriately minimized.
6. The tasks should be validated.
7. The scoring should be feasible and reliable.
8. Assessment results should be reported and used so that all customers for the data are satisfied.

Adapted tasks for CBEs. A list of adapted tasks for each student master has been developed to illustrate possible ways of adapting the CBE for “Reading Narrative Text” and “Reading Informational Text.” A “guiding question” summarizes the overall task included in the student master. The adapted task illustrates one possibility for collecting information to the guiding question.

Adapted Task Forms for “Reading Narrative Text”

Guiding Question	Adapted Task
1a. What do students think the story will be about?	Instead of completing the student master as a paper-pencil activity, students answer questions orally as part of a class discussion or teacher

	conference.
1b. How do students think the story will end?	Instead of completing the student master as a paper-pencil activity, students answer questions as part of a class discussion or teacher conference.
1c. How was the ending of the story like students thought? How was the ending different than students thought?	Instead of completing the student master as a paper-pencil activity, students answer questions as part of a class discussion or teacher conference.
2a–e. Reading Selection: “Jennifer Bing, Why Won’t You Sing?”	Instead of the teacher reading the story to the students, the students read the story independently.
3a–b. What strategies do students use when they read a story?	Instead of completing the student master as a paper-pencil activity, students answer questions as part of a class discussion or teacher conference.
4. What new and interesting words did students find in the book or article while they were reading? What do students think the words mean? Do the words have prefixes and suffixes?	Instead of completing the student master as a paper-pencil activity, students answer questions as part of a class discussion or teacher conference.
5. Can students use context clues to spell words from a story?	Provide students with a list of the words needed to spell the words.
6. Can students tell how many syllables are in words from a story?	Teachers use pictures (not printed words) as exemplars.
7. Can students write words that rhyme with words from a story?	Teachers use pictures (not printed words) for students to match.
8a–c. Can students write nouns, adjectives, and verbs and then use the words to write sentences?	Teachers use pictures either with or without the printed words for students to sort by parts of speech.
9. Can students identify characters, setting, problem, and solution? Can students locate author, illustrator, and copyright information?	Teacher uses illustrations from story to prompt child.
10. Can students describe a story character based on what the character said, what the character did, and how other characters feel about the character?	After students have finished, the teacher prompts, “What else do you remember?”
11. Can students tell who the story is mainly about? Can the students name other persons in the story and what they did? Can the students explain why they think the other persons are important to the story?	Show illustrations from the story and ask students to name characters and identify which illustrations show the main character(s).
12. Can the students tell why they like a story, what they would change in the story, what other stories are students reminded of by the story, and whether and why the students would or would not recommend the story to friends?	Make available copies of books that student has previously read or have been read aloud to the student. Have the student explain how the text he or she has just completed reading is both similar and different.
13a–b. Can students act out parts of the story to show how story characters think, feel, and behave?	
14. Can students complete a story map to create their own stories?	Instead of completing the activity independently, the students complete the activity with peer or adult support.

Adapted Task Forms for “Reading Informational Text”

Guiding Question	Adapted Task
1a. What do you do when you want or need to find information?	Have students discuss a topic they would like to learn more about.
1b. What are some things you can read to find information?	Show students a dictionary, encyclopedia, newspaper, and nonfiction book about a topic (e.g., dinosaurs). Have students discuss the advantages and disadvantages for finding information about dinosaurs.
1c. How is reading for information different from reading a story?	Place five books on the table that you have read or that the student has read. Have both narrative (fiction) and informational (nonfiction). Hold up each book and ask the student if the book is fiction or nonfiction.
2a–e. “Year of the Emperor.”	Read the selection aloud to students instead of students reading the selection independently.
3. What are the parts of an informational book or article and how can the parts be used to preview the article?	Show students an informational book and have them identify the following text features: title, subheadings, captions, maps, charts, or diagrams. Have students explain how these features can help them preview a text.
4a–b. What do you know about the subject of a book or article before reading? What do you want to find out about the subject of the book or article while you are reading? What did you learn about the subject of the book or article after reading?	Have students create a list of sentences they predict will appear in an informational book. Have them read the book to see if the sentences actually appear in the book.
5. What new and interesting words did you find in the book or article while you were reading? What do you think the words mean? Do the words have prefixes and suffixes?	Show students a list of words that appear in an informational text. Have students dictate sentences that may possibly appear in the text that contain those words.
6. Can students self-assess their reading strategies?	Have students create their own list of strategies they use when what they are reading does not make sense.
7. Can students complete a timeline listing what happens in the book or article?	Provide students with sentence strips containing events that occur in an informational book. Have students organize the strips in the sequence they appeared in the book.
8. Can students retell important ideas and details found in the book or article?	Write statements of main ideas and details on sentence strips and have students sort them.
9a–c. Can students answer questions about specific information found in the book or article?	Write statements of facts and opinions on sentence strips and have students sort them.
10. Can students self-assess the accuracy of responses to comprehension questions?	Write answers to end-of-selection questions on sentence strips and have students identify on which page the answer could be found.
11. Can students self-evaluate their use of skills and strategies needed to read informational text?	Have students keep a log of the skills and strategies they used to read.

12. Can students picture in their mind what they read?	Provide students with sentence strips (some containing descriptive statements that appeared in text along with descriptive statements that did not appear in the text). Have students sort sentences.
13. Can students identify an author's use of similes?	Have students explain why an author would use a simile to make a comparison.
14. Can students use a dictionary to find word meanings? Word pronunciation?	Have students explain their understanding of multiple-meaning words and dictionary respellings.
15. Can students identify the meaning of words that contain common suffixes?	Have students explain their understanding of suffixes.
16. Can students use a thesaurus to locate synonyms for words found in informational books?	Have students compare and contrast a thesaurus and a dictionary.
17. Can students increase their vocabulary from reading information books?	Have students build a word bank containing index cards with words they have encountered in reading which they have written on one side of the card along with their definitions on the other side of the card.
18. Can students use maps to increase their understanding of informational text?	Have students create their own maps based on their reading of an informational text.
19. Can students use graphs to increase their understanding of informational text?	Have students create their own graphs based on their reading of an informational text.
20. Can students extend their understanding of informational text by doing additional research on a topic?	Have students identify aspects of a topic not dealt with by an author in a given text.

Alternate Teaching Strategies for Reading

This section of the resource guide presents alternate teaching procedures that have been research-validated and originally appeared in such research journals as the *Elementary School Journal*, *Exceptional Children*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *Journal of Special Education*, and *Learning Disabilities Quarterly*. Teaching strategies have been described only for those components of the essential learnings for which a research study was located that specifically addressed the component.

Essential Academic Learning Requirement	Alternate Teaching Strategy
1.1 use word recognition and word meaning skills to read and comprehend text (such as phonics, context clues, picture clues, and word origins; roots, prefixes, and suffixes of words)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mnemonics Phonics (Ehri, Deffner, and Wilce, 1984) • Visual Phonics (Schworm, 1979) • Sight Word Categories (Falcon and Simms, 1985) • Direct Teaching of Vocabulary/SCANR (Jenkins, Matlock, and Slocum, 1989)
1.2 build vocabulary through reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Synonym Match (Pany, Jenkins, and Schreck, 1982) • Semantic Feature Analysis (Toms-Bronowski, 1982)
1.3 read fluently, adjusting reading for purpose and material	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Previewing Target Text (Singh and Singh, 1984) • Teacher Modeling of Oral Reading (Smith, 1979) • Segmenting Text (O'Shea and Sindelar, 1987) • Oral Reading Prompts (Roberts and Smith, 1980) • Oral Reading Corrective Feedback (McCoy and Pany, 1986) • Repeated Reading (Dowhower, 1987)
1.4 understand elements of literature—fiction (such as story elements, use of humor, exaggeration, and figures of speech)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Story Maps (Idol and Croll, 1987) • Plans-and-Goals (Sachs, 1984a)
1.5 use features of non-fiction text and computer software (such as titles, headings, pictures, maps, and charts to find and understand specific information)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visual-Spatial Displays (Darch and Carnine, 1986)
2.1 comprehend important ideas and details	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-Questioning (Wong and Jones, 1982) • Reading POSSE (Englert and Mariage, 1991) • Expository Text Frames (Armbruster, Anderson, and Ostertag, 1987) • Writing Before Reading (Marino, Gould, and Haas, 1985) • TELLS, Fact or Fiction (Idol-Maestas, 1985) • Metacomprehension Training on Main Ideas (Graves, 1986) • Paragraph Restatements (Jenkins, Heliotis, Stein, and Haynes, 1987) • Analyzing Main Concepts (Sachs, 1984b) • Pre-Paragraph Questions (Wong, Wong, and LeMare, 1982)

2.2 expand comprehension by analyzing, interpreting, and synthesizing information and ideas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Question-Answer Relationships (Raphael and Wonnacott, 1985)
2.3 think critically and analyze authors' use of language, style, purpose, and perspective	
3.1 read to learn new information (such as reading science and mathematics texts, technical documents, and for personal interest)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Semantic Feature Analysis (Toms-Bronowski, 1982)
3.2 read to perform a task (such as using schedules, following directions, filling out job applications, and solving problems)	
3.3 read for literary experience in a variety of forms (such as novels, short stories, poems, plays, and essays to understand self and others)	
4.1 assess strengths and need for improvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-Questioning (Wong and Jones, 1982) • Self-Instruction on Comprehension Monitoring (Miller, 1985) • Self-Recording Reading Behaviors (Swanson, 1981)
4.2 seek and use feedback	
4.3 develop interests and share reading experiences	

Mnemonic Phonics **(Ehri, Deffner, and Wilce, 1984)**

Essential Learning

1.1.1 Apply phonetic principles to read including sounding out, using initial letters, and using common letter patterns to make sense of whole words.

Background and Research Question

Linnea Ehri, Nancy D. Deffner, and Lee S. Wilce were interested in helping prereaders to make some meaningful associations between letters and their sounds. They conducted two experiments to determine whether using a picture of an object would help the child learn the letter-sound association more effectively.

Training in the first experiment was conducted in 20-minute sessions over a period of six days. Each training session included a review of the letter learned the previous day plus an introduction to a new letter. On the sixth day, all five letter-sound associations were reviewed. The pictures were designed so that the shape of the relevant letter appeared as a visual feature in the drawing. For example, the letter *w* formed part of the wings of an insect. Thus, the name of the picture began with the target phoneme. The initial sound of *wing* is /w/.

In the second experiment, the children were assigned to three groups. One group of students received instruction using pictures that incorporated the letter into a picture card (e.g., letter *f* drawn as the stem of the flower) and whose name (flower) began with the letter's sound. The second group of students were instructed using picture cards that did not include the letter explicitly in the drawing. The third group learned associations with picture names but no pictures.

Children taught with pictures integrating the letter into a picture learned more letter-sound associations and more letter-picture associations than did the other two groups. There were no significant differences between the children taught without letter shapes and the children taught without pictures (names only). The pictures that integrated the letter with the picture of an object was more effective because they linked two otherwise unconnected items in memory.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Tell children they will be learning some letters and the sounds they make. They will see pictures and the names of the objects on the pictures will give them clues about the sounds of letters.
2. Explain to the children that the shapes of pictures will give them clues about what the letters look like. Show the picture of the object.
3. Ask the students to listen and repeat the object name plus its initial sound.
4. Direct children's attention to the important part of the picture explaining what was going on (e.g., "The glasses look like this when they are on the heads of people and dogs. They look like this when they are not on their heads.")
5. Give students a sheet with the letter printed next to a simplified drawing of the object.
6. Call the children's attention to how the picture was drawn to have the shape of the letter. Tell the children that thinking of the flower will help them remember what sound the letter *f* makes.

7. Have the children notice the shape of the letter.
8. Have the children name the object, point to the letter, and pronounce its sound.
9. Have the children practice writing the letter, first by following preprinted broken lines, then by drawing it freehand.
10. Have the children convert their freehand letter into the simplified drawing by adding the details.
11. On the following day, before the next letter is introduced, review letter *f*. Children draw the picture of the flower twice from memory, segment the first sound of flower, trace the letter *f* twice either on top of or beneath their drawings, and write the letter two more times.

Here are procedures to assess mnemonic phonics:

1. Say: “Now I want to see whether you have learned what each letter says. When I show you the letter, you tell me what sound it makes. Try to think of the picture (word) I told you that goes with the letter. This should help you remember the sound. But don’t say the word out loud. Just tell me the first sound.”
2. Present each letter and have children tell what sound the letter makes. Then ask them to name the picture (word) that goes with the letter. If unsuccessful, tell them the name that went with the letter.
3. Have the children pronounce the name of the picture and segment its initial sound once more.

Source

Ehri, L.C., Deffner, N.D., and Wilce, L.S. (1984). Pictorial mnemonics for phonics. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 880–893.

Visual Phonics (Schworm, 1979)

Essential Learning

1.1.1 Apply phonetic principles to read including sounding out, using initial letters, and using common letter patterns to make sense of whole words.

Background and Research Question

Children with decoding problems usually have few difficulties visually differentiating one word from another, but they do have trouble identifying and remembering sound-symbol correspondences. These children have special difficulty learning vowel patterns such as *ai*, *ee*, *ea*, *oi*, and *oy*. Dr. Ronald Schworm was interested in finding a method for increasing children's ability to identify and retain vowel patterns by directing attention to the spelling patterns and medial positions of words. Spelling patterns were selected because of their regular pronunciation and their repeated appearance in words found in elementary texts.

Translating Research Into Practice

The visual phonics program consists of three steps. Step 1 teaches students to attend to words. Step 2 teaches students where to attend to spelling patterns in words. Step 3 teaches students how to blend vowel patterns to form words.

Step 1. Teaching students to attend to words includes the following steps:

1. **Introduce spelling patterns.** Present spelling pattern on flashcard. Have students look at the flashcard. Name the spelling pattern and have students name the spelling pattern. *Mastery criterion:* Each student should correctly name each spelling pattern ten times.
2. **Drill.** Show students the spelling pattern and have students name the spelling pattern. If the student makes a mistake or hesitates for five seconds, correct the mistake and have the student repeat the name correctly. *Mastery criterion:* Each student should correctly name the spelling pattern without prompting. Efficient performance = accuracy + time (two seconds or less for each pattern).
3. **Drill.** Show students the spelling pattern quickly with one second or less exposure. Have each student name the spelling pattern. *Mastery criterion:* Each student names each spelling pattern within two seconds.
4. **Discrimination of spelling patterns from nonspelling patterns.** Show students spelling patterns and nonspelling patterns in random order. Have students say "yes" if the flashcard has the correct spelling pattern; have students say "no" if the flashcard has incorrect spelling pattern. *Material:* set of flashcards with both spelling patterns and nonspelling patterns. For example, *ai*, *ia*, *oi*, *io*. *Mastery criterion:* Each student correctly discriminates spelling patterns from nonspelling patterns three times without hesitation.

5. **Recognition of spelling patterns.** Place two, three, or four spelling patterns in front of students. Have the students look at each. Name one spelling pattern in front of students. Have the students point to spelling pattern named by teacher. *Mastery criterion:* Each student points to each spelling pattern correctly three consecutive times without hesitation.

Step 2. Teaching students where to attend to spelling patterns in words includes the following exercises:

1. **Recognition of spelling patterns in whole words.** Show students word with spelling pattern in medial position. Have students look at the flashcard. Say: “Look in the middle of the word. (Pause.) Name the spelling pattern.” Have students name the spelling pattern. *Material:* Use spelling patterns that students can name automatically. Use one-syllable words. Vary the words. *Mastery criterion:* Each student should correctly name spelling patterns in words without hesitation.
2. **Recognition of spelling patterns in whole words.** Show flashcards of words with spelling patterns for one second or less. Show card a second time if student is incorrect, and prompt student to look in the middle of the word. Student names spelling pattern in word. *Mastery criterion:* Each student names spelling patterns without hesitation.

Step 3. Teaching students how to blend vowel patterns to form words, which includes the following exercises:

1. **Backward blending.** Show students a flashcard of a word with spelling patterns and prompt students to “look in the middle of the word.” Have students name spelling pattern, final consonant, and beginning consonant to form whole word. Have students rehearse sequence if student is incorrect. *Material:* Use one-syllable words with beginning and ending consonants, for example, *rain, towel, firm, beat*. Use pseudo words if the student knows the words by sight, for example, *birm, weat*, etc. Use multisyllabic words as student becomes efficient. *Mastery criterion:* Each student should blend and name words correctly using the sequence repeatedly, without prompting, and without hesitation.
2. **Practicing word naming without prompting.** Show students words with spelling pattern. Have students name each word. Prompt students if necessary. *Mastery criterion:* Each student names each word presented in less than five seconds without prompting. (Continue activity using multisyllabic words.)
3. **Practicing word naming in context.** Teacher has student read sentences. Student reads as directed. Teacher prompts student to look in middle of word if student hesitates. Student uses backward blending procedure for all words not named within five seconds. *Material:* Passages that contain words with target spelling patterns. *Mastery criterion:* Student searches for spelling patterns in words and uses blending procedures independently when encountering words.

Source

Schworm, R. (1979). The effects of selective attention on the decoding skills of children with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 12(10), 5–10.

Sight Word Categories (Falcon and Simms, 1985)

Essential Learnings

- 1.1.3 Use meaning, context, and pictures to comprehend story.
- 1.1.4 Identify and discuss reading strategies including working out unknown words, self-correcting, and re-reading when necessary to comprehend.

Background and Research Question

High frequency sight words are a relatively small number of words that account for a high percentage of all running text. Studies of print have found that just about 109 words account for nearly 50 percent of all words in textbooks. Children sometimes have difficulty learning these words because many of the words are low imagery function words such as *the*, *and*, *of*, etc. Dr. Rochelle Simms and Susan Claire Falcon conducted a study to see whether grouping sight words into logical categories would help children learn the high frequency words more effectively.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Divide any list of sight words into categories such as *talk words* (e.g., call, say, tell, said, ask, etc.) and *size words* (e.g., big, light, little, long, small, etc.). For words that don't always fit into categories, create a category called *other words*.
2. Preassess students on their knowledge of the high frequency words.
3. Record results on a chart to show which word categories have and have not been learned.
4. In small groups, introduce the word categories in which children knew few or no words.
5. Students work on their own or in small groups to master a word category before advancing to another category.
6. Introduce each new category and discuss the words. Make the words meaningful to enhance children's learning.
7. Have children prepare their own set of word cards after introducing each category.
8. Schedule practice opportunities for children to learn the words.
9. Prepare a progress chart that lists the categories and includes a space for the child to mark off or place a sticker when each category is mastered.

Source

Falcon, S.C. and Simms, R.B. (1985). A word-category approach to teaching sight words. *Reading Improvement*, 20, 126–137.

Word Categories

Action Words: pick, put, pull, buy, carry, open, use, show, start, stop, wash

Away Words: away, down, far, out, there, from

Connecting Words: because, but, and, with, too

Feeling Words: want, hurt, kind, laugh, thank, wish, like, funny

Little Words: if, of, or, so, to, as, for

Number Words: one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten

Question Words: who, which, where, why, how, can, may, what, when, could, would, shall

Sharing Words: let, gave, give, get, bring, take, help, together

Temperature Words: cold, warm, hot

Amount Words: a, all, an, both, every, many, much, some, the, only, just, any

Be Words: be, am, are, been, is, was, were

Do Words: do, did, does, done, make, made, try, must, will, sleep, sit

Good Words: fast, best, better, clean, yes, good, pretty, well, very, please, new

Moving Words: came, come, play, jump, go, goes, ran, going, run, walk, ride, fly, went, fall

Other People Words: he, him, she, his, their, them, they, you, your

School Words: draw, know, word, write, sing, read, think

Size Words: round, big, light, little, long, small

When Words: before, after, once, again, old, soon, first, about, always, then, today, now

Anything Words: that, it, this, these, its, those

Color Words: black, blue, brown, green, red, white, yellow

Eating Words: ate, cut, drink, eat, full

Life Words: live, see, look, saw, grow

No Words: don't, never, no, not

Possession Words: had, found, got, has, have, hold, keep, own, find

Self Words: I, me, myself, our, we, us

Talk Words: call, say, tell, said, ask

Where Words: at, around, by, in, into, on, over, right, under, up, upon, here, off

Direct Teaching of Vocabulary/SCANR (Jenkins, Matlock, and Slocum, 1989)

Essential Learnings

- 1.1.3 Use meaning, context, and pictures to comprehend story.
- 1.1.4 Identify and discuss reading strategies including working out unknown words, self-correcting, and re-reading when necessary to comprehend.

Background and Research Question

Joseph R. Jenkins, Barbara Matlock, and Timothy Slocum examined the effectiveness of two approaches to vocabulary instruction with 135 fifth grade students. One approach was a format for directly teaching the individual meanings of sets of unfamiliar words. The second approach taught students how to derive word meaning from sentence context rather than teaching specific meanings.

Translating Research Into Practice

Direct teaching of individual word meanings. To teach students individual word meanings, the researchers followed the teaching format below:

Before Instruction:

1. Select target words from reading selections that children are unlikely to know.
2. Prepare an overhead transparency with the target words, their definitions, and two sentences containing each word.

During Instruction:

1. Read each of the target words and its definition to the class.
2. Have students read each word and definition aloud in unison.
3. Cover the definition and ask students to read the word and supply the definition themselves.
4. Cover the words and have the students read each definition and provide the corresponding target word.
5. Have students read each sentence with the target word and reread the sentence substituting the definition or a synonym for the target word.

Below is the cycle of instruction used to distribute practice for target words.

Day 1: Introduce first set of words.

Day 2: Review Day 1 words and introduce second set of words.

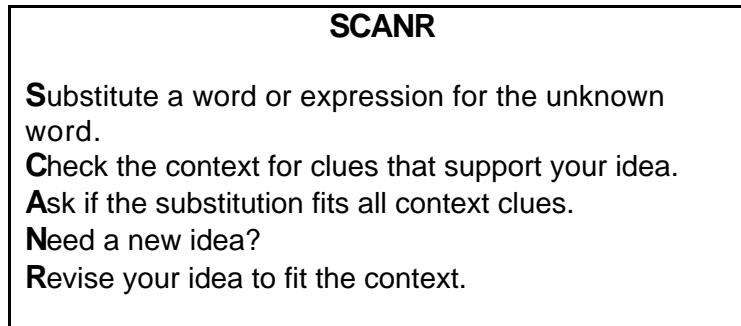
Day 3: Review Day 1 and Day 2 words and introduce third set of words.

Day 4: Review Day 1, Day 2, and Day 3 words and introduce fourth set of words.

Day 5: Review Day 2, Day 3, and Day 4 words and introduce fifth set of words.

*Deriving word meaning from context using SCANR (s*ubstitute, *c*heck, *a*sk, *n*eed, *r*evise). To teach students to derive word meanings from context, the researchers had the students learn the following strategy using the following steps:

1. Prepare a chart that includes the steps of the SCANR strategy:



2. Show the class an overhead transparency that has a sentence containing an unfamiliar word.
3. Read the sentence aloud, and ask students to give the meaning of the unknown word.
4. Ask students to substitute a meaning for the target word and to check whether it fits the context of the sentence.
5. Model the context-checking procedure by asking students to guess a meaning. Have them revise their guesses if necessary, and continue to solicit possible meanings until students offer at least one substitution that fits the context of the sentence.
6. Uncover the next sentence containing the same target word. Read aloud the new sentence and lead students through the SCANR procedure again. This time ask students to check that their proposed meaning fits both sentences and revise it if necessary.
7. Let the students know at the end whether anyone inferred the correct meaning. If no one succeeds in inferring the meaning from context, provide the definition of the target word as used in the two sample sentences, and proceed to the next target word and sentence.

Source

Jenkins, J.R., Matlock, B., and Slocum, T.A. (1989). Two approaches to vocabulary instruction: The teaching of individual word meanings and practice in deriving word meanings from context. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24(2), 215–235.

Synonym Match **(Pany, Jenkins, and Schreck, 1982)**

Essential Learning

1.2.1 Build reading vocabulary by interpreting context clues and using dictionaries, glossaries, and other sources.

Background and Research Question

Teachers typically introduce vocabulary in reading selections by displaying the word, giving a definition, and then providing a sentence that highlights the word in context. Darlene Pany, Joseph R. Jenkins, and Janice Schreck compared this traditional procedure with two other approaches: (1) a strategy for deriving meanings from context and (2) a technique called “synonym match.”

Results indicated that students learned and retained more words from synonym match instruction than from either providing meanings or deriving meanings. Average students learned some word synonyms under all conditions except the noninstructional control condition; students with learning disabilities required more direct instruction to produce any learning. Although vocabulary training was found to transfer to comprehension of single sentences, on two of three measures of passage comprehension no effects were observed that could be attributed to vocabulary instruction.

Translating Research Into Practice

Synonym match involved the following seven steps:

1. The student reads a word printed on an index card, and the teacher states a synonym and a sentence using the target word.
2. The student then repeats the target word and the synonym.
3. After four words are presented, the teacher reviews the words and then shuffles the cards.
4. The teacher then presents all four cards, one at a time.
5. One student reads the words and attempts to state their synonyms.
6. The procedure continues until the student has given the correct synonym for all target words on three consecutive trials.
7. The teacher repeats the process with the next student.

Source

Pany, D., Jenkins, J.R., and Schreck, J. (1982). Vocabulary instruction: Effects on word knowledge and reading comprehension. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 5, 202–214.

Semantic Feature Analysis **(Toms-Bronowski, 1982)**

Essential Learnings

1.2.1 Build vocabulary through reading (build reading vocabulary by interpreting context clues and using dictionaries, glossaries, and other sources).

3.1. Read to learn new information (such as reading in science and mathematics texts, technical documents, and for personal interest).

Background and Research Question

Susan Toms-Bronowski conducted a study that compared the effectiveness of three vocabulary teaching strategies: semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis, and contextual analysis on general vocabulary acquisition. The subjects were fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in 43 classrooms from three suburban midwestern school districts. The three treatment condition groups included 12 classrooms at each grade level.

The students were taught a set of 15 target words for each of three weeks. Classes were assessed at the end of each week to measure word knowledge and then were reassessed at the end of the fourth week of the study on all 45 words previously taught. Results showed that semantic feature analysis was more effective than semantic mapping which, in turn, was more effective than contextual analysis.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Select a category topic. Begin with a category that is familiar to students. A category topic like “shelters” is an example of such a category.
2. Prepare a semantic feature analysis matrix similar to the one shown below. Have the matrix duplicated for the students as well as one written on the chalkboard or on an overhead transparency.
3. List, in a column at the left, some words that relate to the topic.
4. List, in a row along the top, features shared by some of the words in the column.
5. Have students put pluses or minuses in the grid to indicate whether or not each word that is listed in the column shares each of the features that is listed along the top. A question mark can also be used to mean “maybe” or “not sure.”
6. Encourage students to add additional words and features and complete the expanded matrix with pluses and minuses to indicate whether each word shared each feature.
7. Discuss the uniqueness of each word. Ask the students questions such as: “What category members are most alike or most different?” Have students think of additional category members or features to add to the matrix.

Category Topic: *Shelter*

Category Members	Features				
	cloth	wood	brick	glass window s	wooden doors
igloo					
tent					
apartment					
teepee					

Source

Toms-Bronowski, S. (1982). *An investigation of the effectiveness of semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis with intermediate grade level children* (Program Report No. 83-3). Madison, WI: Wisconsin Center for Education Research.

Previewing Target Text (Singh and Singh, 1984)

Essential Learnings

1.3.1 Read familiar text with ease.

1.3.2 Read word by word or line by line when incorporating new skills or reading new materials.

Background and Research Question

Nirbhay N. Singh and Judy Singh examined the effects of three approaches to previewing narrative text on oral reading performance of four children with mental retardation. The approaches to previewing included (1) previewing the target text, (2) previewing an unrelated text, and (3) a no-preview control condition. When the children previewed the target text with the teacher, oral reading errors decreased and self-corrections increased. No changes in oral reading performance were observed as a result of implementing previewing and no-previewing conditions.

Translating Research Into Practice

Previewing target text required the teacher to spend three to four minutes providing background to the story and talking about the story with the children in the following manner:

1. Use the title of the story as a cue (e.g., “This is a story about . . .”).
2. Explain unfamiliar words in the title.
3. Look at the pictures accompanying the text.
4. Introduce new words, phrases, and expressions orally but do not identify them visually in the text.
5. Discuss the meanings of new words in the text.
6. Answer all the students’ questions about the story.
7. Instruct students to read the story with as few errors as possible.

Source

Singh, N.N. and Singh, J. (1984). Antecedent control of oral reading errors and self-corrections by mentally retarded children. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 17(1), 111–119.

Teacher Modeling of Oral Reading (Smith, 1979)

Essential Learnings

1.3.1 Read familiar text with ease

1.3.2 Read word by word or line by line when incorporating new skills or reading new materials.

Background and Research Question

Deborah Deutsch Smith (1979) conducted two experiments to investigate the effects of having a classroom teacher model oral reading for students. In the first experiment, the teacher read a passage for a minute then had the students finish reading the passage. The technique resulted in increasing both student rate and accuracy.

During the second experiment, the teacher read the beginning of the passage, then had the students reread the beginning before finishing the rest of the passage. In addition, the students were corrected when an error was made and were provided the correct word when they did not know it. The procedures resulted in improving the students' correct and error rates.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Collect baseline data on student's oral reading performance by having student read from a passage. Determine the number of words correctly read during one minute of reading as well as the number of errors the student makes.
2. After establishing baseline rates, model the reading of assigned passages by reading the beginning of the selection from the child's passage for one minute.
3. Have the student continue to read the passage, including the beginning part that you modeled.
4. Correct the student when errors are made and provide the correct word when the student does not know it.

Source

Smith, D.D. (1979). The improvement of children's oral reading through the use of teacher modeling. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 12(3), 39–42.

Segmenting Text **(O’Shea and Sindelar, 1987)**

Essential Learning

1.3.1 Read familiar text with ease.

1.3.2 Read word by word or line by line when incorporating new skills or reading new materials.

Background and Research Question

Children who have strong word identification skills are able to direct attention to the meaning of a passage. In contrast, children who have difficulty with word identification frequently are unable attend to the syntactic relationship of words and phrases. Lawrence J. O’Shea and Paul T. Sindelar conducted a study to determine whether the comprehension of good and poor readers in the primary grades could be improved by segmenting sentences into meaningful phrase units.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Present a sentence for students to read. Then present the same sentence that has been segmented into meaningful phrases. Model the reading of segmented text to highlight how meaningful phrases or thought units are read with pauses. Explain that skilled readers mentally “chunk,” or segment, what they read into meaningful phrases. Below is a sentence that could be used to model chunking:
 - By the end of November the bears had returned to their caves where they were getting ready for a long winter’s rest.
 - By the end of November / the bears had returned to their caves / where they were getting ready / for a long winter’s rest.
2. Prepare additional segmented texts for students and explain to them that they will be learning how to “chunk” or segment what they read into phrases. Emphasize that chunking will help them read more fluently and to comprehend more of what they read.
3. Have students practice reading together similar passages that include chunked and not chunked sentences. Ask students to compare their reading of segmented and unsegmented passages.
4. Eventually train students to segment the text into meaningful units themselves. Emphasize that skilled readers mentally segment text into meaningful phrase.

Source

O’Shea, L.J. and Sindelar, P.T. (1983). The effects of segmenting written discourse on the reading comprehension of low- and high-performance readers. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 18(4), 458–465.

Oral Reading Prompts (Roberts and Smith, 1980)

Essential Learnings

1.3.1 Read familiar text with ease.

1.3.2 Read word by word or line by line when incorporating new skills or reading new materials.

Background and Research Question

Michael Roberts and Deborah Deutsch Smith worked with eight students with learning disabilities to study the relationship among oral reading and comprehension. The study consisted of systematically introducing and evaluating three intervention packages.

The first phase of the study addressed improving correct reading rate. The second phase addressed reducing student errors. The third phase was designed to improve comprehension. Each of the three interventions included explicit instructions on expected academic behaviors, modeling of correct academic responses, and token reinforcement for exhibiting the desired behaviors. The combination of tactics substantially improved the students' reading performance.

Translating Research Into Practice

General conditions. In each of the interventions, students read aloud to the teacher. Remind students that they are going to read aloud and be asked comprehension questions. Explain to students that they will be told any proper names they do not know. If they hesitate on a word for five seconds, tell the student to go on.

Correct rate intervention. This intervention is designed to increase the number of words students read correctly. Before asking students to read aloud, tell the students to read as fast they can and skip words that they do not know. Explain that they will be evaluated in terms of how correctly they read. Use the following prompt: "Read more words correctly."

Error rate intervention. This intervention package is designed to reduce the number of student errors. To help reduce the error rates, tell students to slow down and concentrate on reading each word correctly, sound out unfamiliar words, and go back and correct a word when they realize they have made an error. Use the following prompt: "Reduce number of reading errors."

Comprehension intervention. This intervention is designed to increase their correct responses to comprehension questions. Before asking students to read aloud, tell them to read all the words because a missed word might be the one needed to answer a question correctly. Use the following prompt: "Answer more comprehension questions."

Source

Roberts, M. and Smith, D.D. (1980). The relationship among correct and error oral reading rates and comprehension. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 3, 54–64.

Oral Reading Corrective Feedback (McCoy and Pany, 1986)

Essential Learnings

1.3.1 Read familiar text with ease.

1.3.2 Read word by word or line by line when incorporating new skills or reading new materials.

Background and Research Question

When teachers listen to children read, what should they do about mistakes? To answer this question, Kathleen McCoy and Darlene Pany reviewed nine studies of the effect of corrective feedback during oral reading on word recognition and comprehension.

Five of the studies compared different feedback procedures to determine their relative effects on word recognition accuracy. Four of the studies compared feedback and no-feedback procedures in the studies. In four of the five studies comparing feedback to no feedback, corrective feedback was associated with more accurate word recognition. Most corrective feedback with remedial readers showed a positive or neutral effect on the children's comprehension.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Have the student read a passage, and record errors on index cards.
2. After the student has completed reading the passage, have the student practice the words he or she missed.
3. Have the student review and drill the cards until they can be read two times without errors.
4. For long-term review practice, develop flash cards with the words in phrases and have the student practice reading these cards.

Source

McCoy, K.M. and Pany, D. (1986). Summary and analysis of oral reading corrective feedback research. *Reading Teacher*, 39, 548–554.

Repeated Reading (Dowhower, 1987)

Essential Learnings

1.3.1 Read familiar text with ease.

1.3.2 Read word by word or line by line when incorporating new skills or reading new materials.

Background and Research Question

Sarah Dowhower was interested in examining the effects of two types of repeated readings on the fluency and comprehension of second grade students. Dr. Dowhower found that after doing a series of five practice stories written at the second grade level, students had a comprehension increase of 66 percent to 88 percent on preassessment and postassessment unpracticed passages. She also reported that children began to read in longer phrases and with more expression.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Choose, or help each student choose, a fairly comfortable, interesting selection to practice reading. It should be too long to memorize: 100 or so words for younger children, 200 or more words for older ones. Trade books and previously read basal stories are good.
2. Monitor the word recognition level of the passages. On the first reading, the child should read with 85 percent accuracy or better before starting practice; otherwise, the passage is too hard.
3. Prepare a chart for each pupil.
4. Time each reader's first unrehearsed oral reading passage. Mark the chart for Timed Reading 1.
5. Instruct the readers to practice the passage aloud as many times as possible for the next day or two. Let them practice in pairs, independently, and at home.
6. Time the reading again and mark the chart for Timed Reading 2, and show the students how to mark their own charts.
7. Continue timing at intervals of several days. As the rate increases for the first passage, help each child set a new rate goal.
8. When the reader reaches the goal, begin a new passage of equal (not greater) difficulty. Successive portions of a long story are perfect. Repeat steps 3 through 6.
9. Keep the practice passages at the same level of difficulty until an acceptable rate of speed and accuracy is reached on the first or second reading. Then move the child to harder passages.
10. Use the read-along approach when the children are reading with few errors but below 45 words per minute. The model gives the children support and a sense of the proper phrasing and speed of fluent reading.

11. As soon as the children reach a rate of over 60 wpm on their first reading of a practice passage, use the independent Repeated Reading (RR) procedure (unassisted) where they reread without a model or tape—these students need more practice than support.
12. Predetermining the mastery level for speed seems to be particularly appropriate for very slow word-by-word readers and remedial students. The students move to a new passage once they reach the goal (a set rate of speed) on the passage they have been practicing. A 100 wpm criterion was effective with second graders who read below 50 wpm.
13. Setting a specific number of rereadings rather than a criterion seems appropriate for children who are reading at relatively high rates.

Source

Dowhower, S.L. (1987). Effects of repeated reading on second-grade transitional readers' fluency and comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22(4), 389–406.

Analyzing Main Concepts (Sachs, 1984b)

Essential Learnings

1.3.1 Read familiar text with ease.

2.1.3 Connect previous experiences and knowledge when reading to understand characters, events, and information.

Background and Research Question

Arlene Sachs examined the effects of two previewing conditions on poor readers' oral reading miscues. One previewing activity was to have students read a motivation statement prior to reading a passage. In the other previewing activity, the teacher and students analyzed the main concept. Dr. Sachs found that the concept analysis activity significantly decreased oral reading miscues and increased oral reading speed.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Write the central concept of the reading selection or word list the students will be assigned to read on a sheet of paper.
2. Underneath the concept, write "examples" and "nonexamples."
3. Have students generate examples and nonexamples and list them on the paper.
4. Have students define the concept.
5. Write the definition on the sheet of paper.
6. Have students read the passage.

Source

Sachs, A. (1984b). The effects of previewing activities on oral reading miscues. *Remedial and Special Education*, 5(3), 45–49.

TELLS, Fact or Fiction (Idol-Maestas, 1985)

Essential Learning

- 1.1.4 Identify and discuss reading strategies including working out unknown words, self-correcting, and re-reading when necessary to comprehend.
- 1.5.1 Find and sort information for a specific topic or purpose.

Background and Research Question

Several approaches have been developed to help students get ready to read, such as previewing strategies, giving purpose-setting directions, and prereading to teach children to predict what will happen in stories.

Dr. Lorna Idol-Maestas conducted two experiments designed to evaluate the effectiveness of a strategy designed to help students decide what a story might be about before they read it. The TELLs, Fact or Fiction strategy improved the comprehension responses for all students and their performance on a standardized assessment of reading. The strategy also improved the listening comprehension of five of the six students.

Translating Research Into Practice

The following plan outlines the steps used by Dr. Idol-Maestas in her study:

1. Do comprehension probing—TELLs, Fact or Fiction (15 minutes). Students read each step in the strategy prompt. Have the student answer both independently and orally. Provide teacher assistance for any items that the student is unable to answer correctly.

T	Title	What is the title? Does it give a clue as to what the story is about?
E	Examine	Look through each page of the story. Skim for clues.
L	Look	Look for important words. Talk about what they mean.
L	Look	Look for hard words. Practice saying them and talk about what they mean.
S	Setting	What is the setting of the story? When did it take place? Where did it take place?
	Fact or Fiction	Is this story true? (fact) Or is this a pretend story? (fiction)

2. Read story orally (20 minutes). Students read a new selection each day at their instructional level.
3. Take timed sample (two minutes). After students have completed reading the passage, have them reread a portion of the text aloud for one minute in order to monitor their reading fluency.
4. Ask oral comprehension questions (five minutes). Prepare ten questions for each selections (five factual, two sequential, and three inferential). Factual questions include one of each of the five categories: who, what, where, how, and why. Sequential questions contain one of the following words: when, before, or after. Answers to both factual and sequential questions should be explicitly stated in the selection. Inferential questions are derived from information implied within the text but not explicitly stated.

5. Correct any reading errors from timed sample (three minutes). Have students practice the words they had read incorrectly during the timed sample.
6. Record data (two minutes).

Source

Idol-Maestas, L. (1985). Getting ready to read: Guided probing for poor comprehenders. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 8, 243–253.

Story Maps (Idol and Croll, 1987)

Essential Learnings

- 1.4.3 Understand story elements (plot, characters, setting, point of view, problem, solution).
- 2.1.1 Demonstrate basic comprehension of the content of literary, informational, and task-oriented texts (such as plays, newspaper articles, and instructions).
- 2.1.3 Connect previous experiences and knowledge when reading to understand characters, events, and information).

Background and Research Question

Lorna Idol taught third- and fourth-grade students with poor comprehension skills to use a diagram to describe the setting, the problem, the goal, the action, and the outcome of stories. A story mapping strategy was used to effectively improve reading comprehension in heterogeneous groups of third/fourth graders, including five students who were learning disabled and low-achieving.

Group averages maintained above 80 percent when students were no longer required to use the strategy.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Prepare overhead transparencies of the following questions and of the story map diagram.

1. Where did the story take place?
2. When did the story take place?
3. Who were the main characters in the story?
4. Were there any other important characters in the story? Who?
5. What was the problem in the story?
6. How did ___ try to solve the problem?
7. Was it hard to solve the problem? Explain.
8. Was the problem solved? Explain.
9. What did you learn from reading this story?
10. Can you think of a different ending?

2. Display the questions on the overhead, and explain that the questions should be kept in mind as students read narrative passages.
3. Have students read narrative passages.
4. Display the transparency of the story map and distribute duplicated copies of the story map.
5. Complete the story map, calling on individual students for responses.
6. Have students complete their own copies of the story map.
7. Collect completed story maps and have students answer the ten comprehension questions individually.
8. Score the comprehension questions.

9. When students reach an average of 80 percent correct answers for two consecutive days, the group no longer uses the story maps.

Source

Idol, L. and Croll, V.J. (1987). Story-mapping training as a means of improving reading comprehension. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 10, 214–229.

Plans-and-Goals (Sachs, 1984a)

Essential Learning

1.4.3 Understand story elements (plot, characters, setting, point of view, problem, solution).

Background and Research Question

Prior to silently reading narrative selections, 24 students with learning disabilities (aged 8 to 9 years) were exposed to one of two previewing activities: (1) a plans-and-goals activity that focused on story characters' motivations and actions and (2) a conceptual-overview statement activity that briefly described for students what the story was about.

The plans-and-goals students then read a narrative selection and were administered a test that assessed knowledge of the main character, the main character's plans, the main idea of the story, and scriptal information about each story idea. The plans-and-goals activity was found to affect the children's reading comprehension significantly. Results of the study suggest that before students read narrative text, it is more beneficial for students to become aware of the plans and goals of the characters of a story than to receive a general overview of the story.

Translating Research Into Practice

Prior to reading a narrative selection, the teacher conducts a previewing discussion that focuses on the plans and goals of the main character. The discussion includes the following questions:

1. What is the main character in this story likely to want?
2. How is the main character going to accomplish the goals?
3. What do you think the main character should do?

The teacher should record students' responses on chart paper so the statements can be easily read. Students should thumb through the story to make predictions, read the story, then complete a comprehension test that includes the following questions:

1. What was the main character's plan?
2. Would you have done the same?
3. How would you go about accomplishing this goal?
4. Have you ever had a similar experience?
5. What was the main idea of the story?
6. Why did the story end the way it did?

Source

Sachs, A. (1984a). Accessing scripts before reading the story. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 7(3), 226–228.

Visual-Spatial Displays (Darch and Carnine, 1986)

Essential Learning

1.5.1 Find and sort information for a specific topic or purpose.

Background and Research Question

Craig Darch and Douglas W. Carnine examined the relative effectiveness of two methods of instruction: visual displays plus group study versus reading from text plus group study. The investigation involved 24 students in Grades 4, 5, and 6 who experienced learning problems. Significant advantages were found for the visual display strategy on probe tests and on posttests. On a posttest measure, the display group had a mean of 86 percent correct and the text group had a mean of 56 percent correct.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Read the text passage to determine the vocabulary, concepts, ideas, generalizations, events, details, facts, etc., that you wish to preteach to your students.
2. Organize the concepts in a visual representation that reflects the structure of the content to be taught.
3. Design a completed visual-spatial display.
4. Create a partially completed visual-spatial display.
5. Create a blank visual spatial display.
6. Divide the class into teams and give a copy of completed visual spatial display to each of your students.
7. Place a transparency of the completed visual display on an overhead projector.
8. Introduce the information on the visual-spatial display, proceeding in a logical order, stressing the relationships between the vocabulary, concepts, events, details, facts, etc.
9. Ask the students to put away their completed displays. Distribute a blank visual spatial display.
10. Give students displays with all the words deleted. Divide into groups of three or four. Have students take turns throwing the dice and naming the items on the display that correspond to their dice roll.

Source

Darch, C. and Carnine, D. (1986). Teaching content area material to learning disabled students. *Exceptional Children*, 53, 240–246.

Expository Text Frames **(Armbruster, Anderson, and Ostertag, 1987)**

Essential Learnings

2.1.1 Demonstrate basic comprehension of the content of literary, informational, and task oriented texts (such as plays, newspaper articles, and instructions).

2.1.2 Demonstrate comprehension of the main idea and supporting details; summarize ideas in own words.

Background and Research Question

Bonnie B. Armbruster, Thomas H. Anderson, and Joyce Ostertag conducted a study to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction in text structure and summarization on comprehension of expository text.

A group of 82 fifth graders were assigned to one of two groups: (1) an experimental group that received instruction on reading and recognizing the problem/solution structure and organizing written summaries of what they had read and (2) a group that read, discussed, and answered questions on the same material used by the experimental group.

Students instructed in text structure and summarization significantly outperformed the control group on two measures: (1) a main idea essay test over a problem/solution passage read independently and (2) two written summaries produced for two problem/solution passages.

Translating Research Into Practice

Day 1. Explain that social studies texts contain many problems and solutions. Learning about problem/solution structures will help students to focus on main ideas and remember important information.

These questions are always associated with the problem/solution frame.

- Who has a problem?
- What is the problem?
- What actions were to be taken?
- What were the results of those actions?

Introduce the problem/solution frame and tell the students that the diagram will help them organize answers to the four problem/solution questions. Demonstrate how answers to discussion question can be recorded in the frame.

Day 2. Conduct a brief review. Lead a discussion of a second passage, recording answers to problem/solution questions in a frame on an overhead or the blackboard.

Explain that one way to learn from reading textbooks is to summarize the information. Explain the guidelines for summarizing problem/solution passages and model writing and checking summaries based on the two passages previously framed. Students copy the summaries in their notebooks.

Lead a discussion of a third passage, recording information in a frame on the overhead or blackboard. Elicit a summary from the class and record it on the board. Have the class use the guidelines to check the summary. Have students copy the summary into their notebooks.

Days 3–9. Have students practice additional passages using these three steps:

1. Read the passage silently.
2. Record notes on the passage in the pattern.
3. Write a summary of the framed information.

Monitor students' work on their frames and summaries, providing corrective feedback and assistance as needed. Remind students to check their own summaries using the guidelines.

As students complete their frames and summaries, ask them to copy them on the chalkboard or overhead transparency.

Problem/Solution Frame

PROBLEM = something bad; a situation that people would like to change.

ACTION = what people do to try to solve the problem.

RESULTS = what happens as a result of the action; the effect or outcome of trying to solve the problem.

How to Summarize Problem/Solution Passages

Sentence 1—Tells who had a problem and what the problem is.

Sentence 2—Tells what action was taken to try to solve the problem.

Sentence 3—Tells what happened as a result of the action taken.

Pattern for Writing a Summary of a Problem/Solution Passage

_____ had a problem

because _____

_____.

Therefore, _____

_____.

As a result _____

_____.

**Guidelines for
Checking Summaries
of Problem/Solution Passages**

Check to see that:

1. Your summary has all of the information that should be in a summary of a problem/solution passage. (See “How to Summarize Problem/Solution Passages” on p. 70.) Compare your summary with the original problem/solution passage to make sure that the summary is accurate and complete.
2. You have used complete sentences.
3. The sentences are tied together with good connecting points.
4. The grammar and spelling are correct.

Source

Armbruster, B., Anderson, T.H., and Ostertag, J. (1987). Does text structure/summarization instruction facilitate learning from expository text? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22, 331–346.

Paragraph Restatements (Jenkins, Heliotis, Stein, and Haynes, 1987)

Essential Learning

2.1.2 Demonstrate comprehension of the main idea and supporting details; summarize ideas in own words.

Background and Research Question

Joseph R. Jenkins, James D. Heliotis, Marcy Stein, and Mariana Haynes conducted a study with 32 elementary students with learning disabilities in which one group of students was trained to use a comprehension monitoring strategy and one group worked on regularly assigned seatwork materials.

The research team was interested in answering two questions: (1) Do students who are trained to use paragraph restatements in assessment situations use the strategy when not explicitly prompted to do so? (2) Does paragraph restatement training affect students' reading comprehension under conditions that did not permit overt application of the strategy?

Students who were trained in the paragraph restatement strategy exhibited better comprehension than did the control students on both a reading comprehension test administered immediately after training as well as on two subsequent reading comprehension tests.

Translating Research Into Practice

Paragraph restatement training consists of three phases. Phases one and two require materials in which narrative reading selections are typed with lined spaces between each paragraph. Phase three requires students to have narrative text without lined space between each paragraph. Students proceed to subsequent phases when the group reaches 80 percent correct. Training is completed in ten to 15 days with lessons lasting about 20 minutes.

Phase 1. For this phase, prepare narrative reading selections with a lined space between each paragraph. As a full-group activity, tell students to use the lined space to name the most important person in each paragraph and state the major event that occurred.

Guide students to formulate their restatements by remembering two questions: (1) Who? and (2) What's happening? If students do not generate a restatement, have them reread the paragraph. If students identify a relatively unimportant event from a paragraph, ask "Was that the most important thing that happened in the paragraph?"

Phase 2. Help students to condense restatements to include the fewest possible words (usually three or four) which convey the gist of the major event. Have students practice writing brief restatements after each paragraph of reading assignments. Check students' work and give corrective feedback as necessary. When students finish, read the restatements back to the student, and ask the student to elaborate on the paragraph content.

Phase 3. Assign passages and show students how to record restatements on a separate sheet of paper.

Source

Jenkins, J.R., Heliotis, J.D., Stein, M.L., and Haynes, M.C. (1987). Improving reading comprehension by paragraph restatements. *Exceptional Children*, 54(1), 54–59.

Metacomprehension Training on Main Ideas (Graves, 1986)

Essential Learning

2.1.2 Demonstrate comprehension of the main idea and supporting details; summarize ideas in own words.

Background and Research Question

Students with learning disabilities are often unaware of the necessity to read for meaning or that sentences are the units of meaning used to convey a general picture of the text. Such students do not appear to engage in active monitoring and evaluating their own comprehension.

Dr. Anne Graves conducted a study to compare the effectiveness of two interventions for finding main ideas: (1) direct instruction and (2) direction instruction plus self-monitoring. The 24 students with learning disabilities who participated in the study demonstrated adequate decoding skills but had difficulty with reading comprehension, particularly finding main ideas. Eight students were assigned to one of three groups:

- Direct instruction training. Direct instruction training provided systematic instruction on identifying the main idea of reading passages.
- Direct instruction plus metacomprehension training. Metacomprehension training emphasized mechanical self-monitoring as a routine way of recording one's own progress during an academic task. In mechanical self-monitoring, children monitor themselves continuously with a question such as "Do I understand?" or "Is what I have just done right or wrong?"
- A control group in which students were told to read stories and answer questions about the main idea of stories. These students were not given any specific instruction about main ideas.

Each group followed four sessions of training: reading aloud, a test, four additional sessions of training reading silently, and a test. Students were then reassessed on a delayed test. During each training session, students read two stories that were followed by a multiple-choice question about the main idea of the story.

Graves found that metacomprehension training (self-questioning and self-monitoring) was superior to direct instruction or the control condition. However, Graves also found that students who received the direct instruction training significantly outperformed the control group students.

Translating Research Into Practice

The formats used by Dr. Graves to teach students how to find main ideas and monitor their reading appear on the next page.

Direct Instruction Format for Finding Main Ideas

Teacher	Student
We're going to learn about main ideas. A main idea tells what the whole story is about. What does the main idea tell?	What the whole story is about.
Read the story out loud. Keep reading until I say to stop. Ready. Begin (student reads). Read the statement at the end of the story and the first answer.	The main idea of the story is that men once believed divining rods could find water.
Does that answer tell about the whole story? Read the statement at the end of the story and the second answer.	The main idea of the story is that a divining rod is a stick shaped like a Y.
Does that answer tell about the whole story? Why not?	No. Because it tells just one part of the story.
Read the statement at the end of the story and the third answer.	The main idea of the story is that divining rods were owned by many ancient peoples.
Does that answer tell about the whole story? Why not? (REPEAT FOR FOURTH ITEM)	No. Because ancient people are not mentioned in the story.
Read the statement at the end of the story and the first answer.	The main idea of the story is that men once believed divining rods could find water.
Does that answer tell about the whole story?	Yes.
So, is it men once believed divining rods could find water the main idea of this story?	Yes.
Why?	Because it tells what the whole story is about.

Direct Instruction Plus Self-Monitoring Format for Finding Main Ideas

Teacher	Student
Today, as you read, I want you to ask yourself if you understand what the whole story is about. I want you to stop twice during your reading, put your finger on your place, and ask yourself: "Do I understand what the whole story is about?"	
What will you ask yourself?	"Do I understand what the whole story is about?"
If you do not understand, start the story over again. If you do understand keep reading.	
What will you do if you do <i>not</i> understand.	Start the story over again.
What will you do if you do understand?	Keep reading.
Look at this card. It has the question: "Do I understand what the whole story is about?" Make a check like this () on one of the lines each time you stop to ask yourself the question (make a check on a card).	
What will you do when you stop to ask yourself the question? Read the story out loud. Ready. Begin.	Make a check on the card.

Self-Monitoring Card

Do I understand what the whole story is about?

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Source

Graves, A.W. (1986). Effects of direct instruction and metacomprehension training on finding main ideas. *Learning Disabilities Research, 1*(2), 90–100.

Pre-Paragraph Questions (Wong, Wong, and LeMare, 1982)

Essential Learning

2.1.2 Demonstrate comprehension of the main idea and supporting details; summarize ideas in own words.

Background and Research Question

Bernice Wong, Roderick Wong, and Lucy LeMare conducted two related experiments to see if reading performance could be improved by giving students clear and specific information about how their reading performance would be assessed.

In both experiments, students with and without learning disabilities were randomly divided into the treatment and control conditions. Both groups of students read the same passages, but students in the treatment condition were given passages that included a question preceding the text. The questions were models for questions on comprehension on the passage that were later administered. The strategy nearly doubled the number of comprehension questions students answered correctly and the number of ideas they recalled. According to Wong and her colleagues:

“What the teacher intends the children, in particular learning disabled children, to learn or accomplish at the end of studying or working on a given assignment should be clearly conveyed to the children. Instructions such as ‘read carefully the assignment’ are insufficient in inducing appropriate learning activities in children. To promote optimal learning, teachers must inform students of the specific objectives of the assignments” (p. 126).

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Prior to assigning a reading selection, identify the information that students will be responsible for learning (e.g., information that will appear on a quiz or worksheet).
2. Locate the information in the selection and prepare a question that elicits the information.
3. Insert the question before the paragraph in which the answer is found.
4. Tell the students:

“Read the passage before you carefully and pay special attention to the pre-paragraph questions. Read to answer these questions. They are model questions for questions on a comprehension test on this passage that you will get later. Feel free to study in ways you think best. Study as long as you want. If you don’t know how to say a word or what it means, ask me. When you are ready for the comprehension test, raise your hand.”

Source

Wong, B.Y.L., Wong, R., and LeMare, L. (1982). The effects of knowledge of criterion task on comprehension and recall in normally achieving and learning disabled children. *Journal of Educational Research*, 76(2), 119–126.

Reading POSSE (Englert and Mariage, 1991)

Essential Learnings

2.1.2 Demonstrate comprehension of the main idea and supporting details; summarize ideas in own words.

2.1.4 Make inferences and predictions based on the reading text.

Background and Research Question

Carol Sue Englert and Troy Mariage developed an instructional procedure called **POSSE**. Using the POSSE procedure, students are trained to (1) **predict** what happens in a text, (2) **organize** those predictions, (3) **search** for main ideas, (4) **summarize** the ideas, and (5) **evaluate** the story.

Englert and Mariage evaluated the effectiveness of POSSE with 28 fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students with learning disabilities. Students trained on POSSE recalled significantly more ideas and produced better-organized written recalls than students in the control group. POSSE students also surpassed control students on a measure of reading strategy knowledge.

Translating Research Into Practice

Provide students with POSSE strategy sheet. Explain that the strategy sheet highlights each step in the strategy and includes a concept map to assist students in organizing their thoughts and searching for the structure of the text.

Tell students that the strategy sheet is organized with two activities to complete before reading (i.e., predict, organize background knowledge) and three activities to complete during reading (i.e., search, summarize, and evaluate).

Predict: activating background knowledge. Have students brainstorm what the text will be about using cues from the title, headings, pictures, or initial paragraphs. Assist in the process by asking questions such as “What do you think this text is going to be about?” “What clues from the text helped you make your prediction?”

Organize background knowledge. Have students prepare for reading by organizing their brainstormed predictions into the semantic map found on the strategy sheet. Discuss with students what new ideas students have learned about the topic.

Provide students with a POSSE cue card. Explain that the cue card is used to guide discussions about the texts they read. Demonstrate how to use the cue card to discuss a reading assignment. Highlight the following:

Search for the text structure. Tell students that they are to read the text to confirm their predictions about the ideas in the text.

Summarize. Have students state what each paragraph is mainly about.

Evaluate. Evaluate includes four processes: question, compare, clarify, and predict.

- *Question.* Have students turn the summary statements into questions. The answer is recorded on the strategy sheet.
- *Compare.* Have students compare the semantic maps they prepared before reading the text with the maps they prepared as part of the discussion.
- *Clarify.* Have students ask questions about unfamiliar vocabulary, unclear referents, and information not provided by the author of the text.
- *Predict.* Have students predict what the next section of text will be about.

Have students summarize the entire passage by reviewing the categories and details in the text map on their strategy sheet. Have students compare their prior knowledge with the text maps they prepared during the discussion.

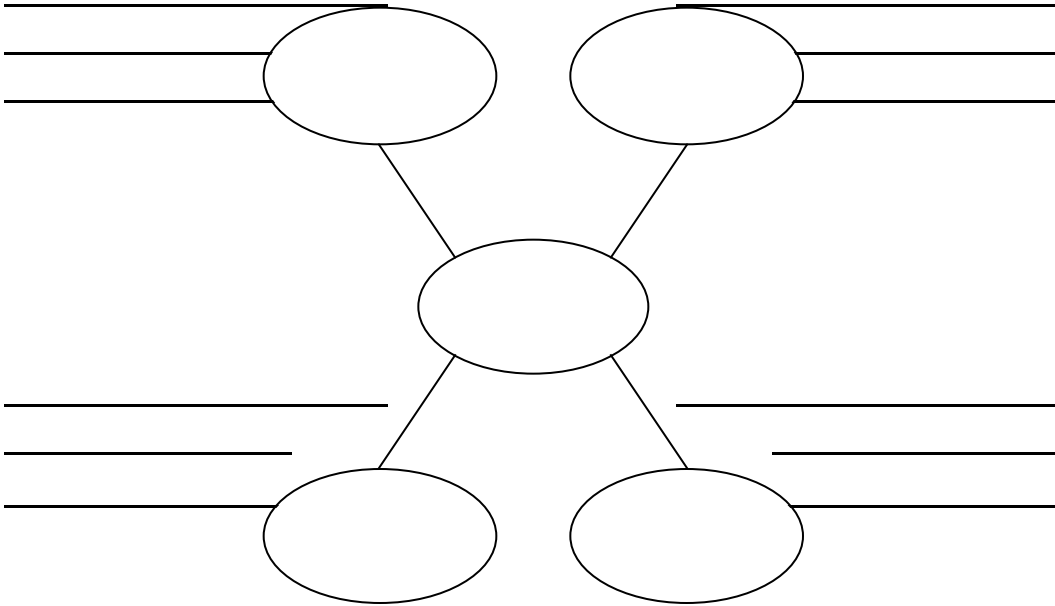
Gradually transfer control for the reading, discussion, and mapping to the students in the discussion groups. Englert and Mariage stress that the successful application of **POSSE** is dependent upon effective lesson dialogue and student leadership in the dialogue.

POSSE Strategy Sheet

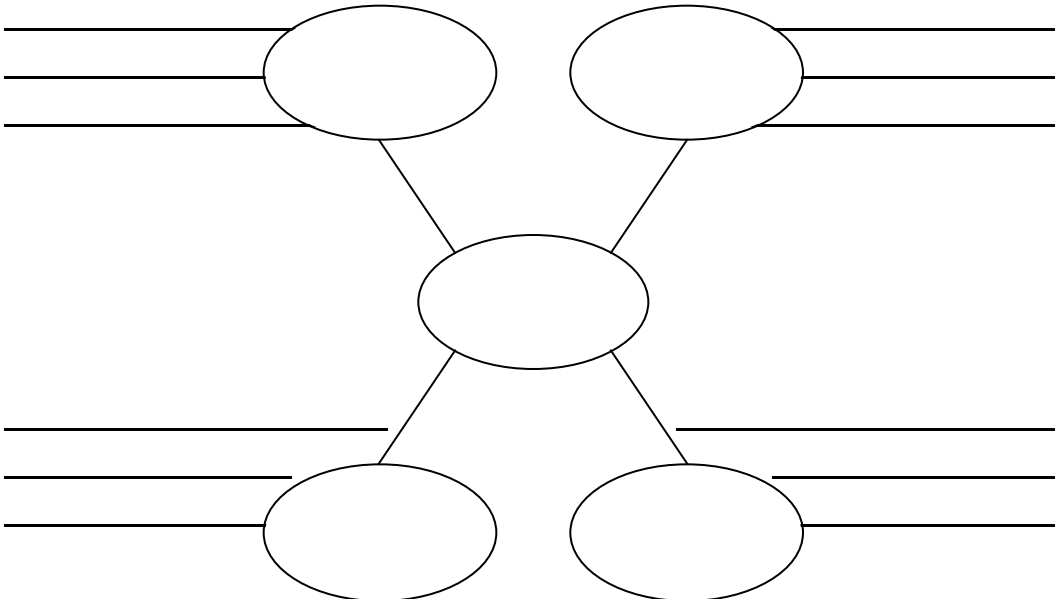
Predict what ideas are in the story.

Questions.

Organize your thoughts.



Search for the structure.



Summarize. Summarize the main idea.
Ask a “teacher” question about the main idea (check details).

Evaluate. Question. Compare. Clarify. Predict.

<p style="text-align: center;">POSSE Cue Card</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Predict</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I predict that . . .</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I'm remembering . . .</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Organize</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I think one category might be . . .</p> <p style="text-align: center;">A detail for that category is . . .</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Search/Summarize</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I think the main idea is . . .</p> <p style="text-align: center;">My question about the main idea is . . .</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Evaluate</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I think we did (did not) predict this main idea (compare)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Are there any clarifications?</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I predict the next part will be about . . .</p>

Source

Englert, C.S. and Mariage, T.V. (1991). Making students partners in the comprehension process: Organizing the reading “POSSE.” *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 14, 123–138.

Writing Before Reading (Marino, Gould, and Haas, 1985)

Essential Learning

2.1.3 Connect previous experiences and knowledge when reading to understand characters, events, and information.

Background and Research Question

There are many benefits to connecting reading and writing instruction. Significant gains in reading comprehension have been reported when teachers use writing activities or exercises related to the reading assignment. Researchers studied the effects of a writing assignment to orient students to their reading assignment. The team found that the students that completed a prereading writing assignment had better comprehension than students who did not complete such an activity.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Prior to having students read a selection, develop a writing prompt that requires them to place themselves into a setting similar to the setting they will be reading about. The prompt should include a brief description of a main character of the story and require the students to project themselves into the setting and somehow interact with the main character.
2. Have students complete writing. The writing assignment should be considered an initial draft and not necessarily intended for students to revise and edit. The primary focus of the writing assignment is for students to activate what they already may know about what they are going to read.

Source

Marino, J.L., Gould, S.M., and Haas, L.W. (1985). The effects of writing as a prereading activity on delayed recall of narrative text. *Elementary School Journal*, 86(2), 199–205.

Question-Answer Relationships (Raphael and Wonnacott, 1985)

Essential Learning

2.2.1 Find similarities and differences in stories; understand relationship between parts of a text or between two simple texts.

Background and Research Question

Some children mistakenly believe that questions they are asked about a reading selection are answered using only information explicitly stated in the selection. These children may not realize that the answers to some questions require putting together several pieces of information from the reading or using their background of experience plus the information to draw inferences. Dr. Taffy Raphael conducted a study to determine whether training in knowledge of information sources improved students' sensitivity to task demands of questions and their ability to answer comprehension questions. Dr. Raphael found significant differences favoring the students she had trained with students who had received no training but were otherwise comparable.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Prepare a chart that identifies the following question types:
 - **Right there.** The answer is found within a single sentence in the text.
 - **Putting it together.** The answer is found in several sentences in the text.
 - **On my own.** The answer is in the student's background of knowledge.
 - **Author and me.** A combination of information from the text and the reader's background is required to answer the question.
2. Explain how questions can be identified and how the procedure works. A student will read a selected portion of text or it may be read aloud as students listen. Begin with only one or two sentences or very short paragraphs, gradually increasing the length of text.
3. Model the procedure. Following reading, the teacher asks a question and answers it using one of the categories.

The focus of the question-answer relationship (QAR) strategy is to help students understand that answers are found from a variety of sources. Students may use self-questioning to determine QAR or work in small groups. Students are given extensive training in locating the source of the answer. Initially, they work with sentences and very short paragraphs, but they progress to 400-word selections. In subsequent research, Raphael recommended starting with two categories of answers: "In the Book" and "In My Head." This would be especially helpful when working with primary students. "In the Book" includes answers that are **right there** or require **putting it together**. "In My Head" items are **on my own** and **author and me** answers.

Source

Raphael, T.E. and Wonnacott, C.A. (1985). Heightening fourth-grade students' sensitivity to sources of information for answering comprehension questions. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20, 282–296.

Self-Recording Reading Behaviors (Swanson, 1981)

Essential Learning

4.1 Assess strengths and need for improvement.

Background and Research Question

Lee Swanson conducted three experiments to investigate the effects of self-recording, tokens, and contingent free time on reading comprehension in students with learning disabilities. In the first experiment, Dr. Swanson found that self-recording and token reinforcement decreased the percentage of oral reading errors but did not effect comprehension scores. In the second experiment, Dr. Swanson found that contingent free time and self-recording increased silent independent reading rate but produced only slight increases on comprehension scores. In the third experiment, Dr. Swanson found that use of contingent free time and self-recording increased comprehension scores.

Translating Research Into Practice

1. Prepare passage reading tests.
2. Have students read the passages. For each word mispronounced, substituted, omitted, or hesitated on for five seconds, instruct children to place their finger over the unknown word, covering all letters except the initial sound. Ask students to pronounce the sound of the first letter then move their finger to the right to reveal the remaining letter(s) sounds, then pronounce the word. If the student is unable to provide the word within two seconds, provide the word.
3. Have students record the numbers of omissions, substitutions, and insertion errors. Tell students that they will receive tokens for (1) correctly recording oral reading errors for each sentence read, (2) correcting own reading errors (five seconds were allowed) before you initiate sound blending procedures, and (3) performing at or below the criterion you establish. In the Swanson study, tokens could be redeemed by the student for minutes in free time, allowing the child to engage in activities, or be redeemed for pennies.
4. After every sentence, ask the child to tally the number of reading errors for that sentence.
5. Ask literal and inferential questions after the student completes reading the passage. Count as correct only verbatim or approximate synonym answers. Students write their answers to questions asked by the teacher.
6. Students score their own work to see how many questions they answered correctly. For each question answered correctly, the student receives a token for 1/2 minute of free-time activity.

Source

Swanson, L. (1981). Modifications of comprehension deficits in learning disabled children. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 4, 189–202.

Self-Questioning (Wong and Jones, 1982)

Essential Learning

2.1.1 Demonstrate comprehension of the main ideas and support details; summarize ideas in own words.

4.1.1 Use strategies to monitor reading progress and to overcome reading difficulties with guidance from the teacher.

Background and Research Question

Bernice Y.L. Wong and Wayne Jones (1982) investigated the effects of teaching 120 students (eighth and ninth graders with learning disabilities and sixth graders without learning disabilities) how to generate their own questions to monitor their comprehension. Students who received the training were more successful than control students in predicting the kinds of information that would be included in a test of comprehension, answering comprehension questions, and recalling the material.

Translating Research Into Practice

The first step in their procedure was to teach main idea identification until the students achieved 80 percent accuracy. The students then received explanation, modeling, and guided practice on the following five-step questioning procedure:

1. What are you studying this passage for? (So you can answer some questions you will be given later.)
2. Find the main idea/ideas in the paragraph and underline it/them.
3. Think of a question about the main idea you have underlined. Remember what a good question should be like. (It's so important that it would appear on a test.)
4. Learn the answer to your question.
5. Always look back at the questions and answers to see how each successive question and answer provide you with more information.

Source

Wong, B.Y.L. and Jones, W. (1982). Increasing metacomprehension in learning disabled and normally achieving students through self-questioning training. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 5(3), 228–240.

Self-Instruction on Comprehension Monitoring (Miller, 1985)

Essential Learning

4.1.1 Use strategies to monitor reading progress and to overcome reading difficulties with guidance from the teacher.

Background and Research Question

Dr. Gloria Miller conducted a study to examine the degree to which training students in self-verbalization would increase self-monitoring during reading. Dr. Miller was interested to determine whether students internalize statements about the routine to follow to detect inconsistencies while reading. These statements are about such activities as defining what the task is, designing an approach for its completion, evaluating the approach taken, and deciding whether the task has been completed.

Translating Research Into Practice

Train students to find possible inconsistencies in their reading assignments by learning to verbalize the following five steps:

- **Problem definition:** “First, I am going to decide if this story has any problems in it, like if one sentence says one thing and another sentence says something different or opposite.”
- **Problem approach:** “Second, as I read, I will ask myself, ‘Is there anything wrong with the story?’”
- **Evaluate approach:** “Third, okay I will read two sentences and stop and ask if anything is wrong.”
- **Self-reinforcement:** “Fourth, so far so good, I am doing a great job. Now I will read the whole story and decide if there are any problems in the whole story.”
- **Task completion:** “Did I find any problems in this story?”

Source

Miller, G.E. (1985). The effects of general and specific self-instruction training on children’s comprehension monitoring performances during reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20(5), 616–629.

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Guidelines for Adapting Materials for Students With Disabilities (Archer, 1977)

Rating Scale:

1 = Inadequate

2 = Adequate

3 = Excellent

M = Easily Modified

Effectiveness of Materials: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Is information that indicates successful fieldtesting or class testing of the material provided?
- Yes No Has the material been successfully fieldtested with students similar to the target population?
- Yes No Are testimonials and publisher claims clearly differentiated from research findings?

Prerequisite Skills: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Are the prerequisite student skills and abilities needed to work with ease in the material specified?
- Yes No Are the prerequisite student skills and abilities compatible with the objectives of the material?
- Yes No Are the prerequisite student skills and abilities compatible with the target population?

Content: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Does the selection of subject matter, facts, and skills adequately represent the content area?
- Yes No Is the content consistent with the stated objectives?
- Yes No Is the information presented in the material accurate?
- Yes No Is the information presented in the material current?
- Yes No Are various points of view, including treatment of cultural diversity, individuals with disabilities, ideologies, social values, gender roles, and socioeconomic status, represented objectively?
- Yes No Are the content and the topic of the material relevant to the needs of students with disabilities?

Sequence of Instruction: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Are the scope and sequence of the material clearly specified?
- Yes No Are facts, concepts, and skills ordered logically?
- Yes No Does the sequence of instruction proceed from simple to complex?
- Yes No Does the sequence proceed in small, easily attainable steps?

Standards: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Does the selection of subject matter, facts, and skills adequately represent the content area?
- Yes No Is the content consistent with the stated objectives?
- Yes No Is the information presented in the material accurate?

Initial Assessment and Placement: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Does the material provide a method to determine initial student placement in the curriculum?
- Yes No Does the initial assessment for placement contain enough items to place the learner accurately?

Ongoing Assessment and Placement: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Does the material provide evaluation procedures for measuring progress and mastery of standards?
- Yes No Are there enough evaluative items to measure learner progress accurately?
- Yes No Are procedures and/or materials for ongoing record keeping provided?

Teaching Procedures: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Are instructional procedures for each lesson either clearly specified or self-evident?
- Yes No Does the instruction provide for active student involvement and responses?
- Yes No Are a variety of cueing and prompting techniques used to gain correct student responses?
- Yes No When using verbal instruction, does the instruction proceed clearly and logically?
- Yes No Does the material use teacher modeling and demonstration when appropriate to the skills being taught?
- Yes No Does the material specify correction and feedback procedures for use during instruction?

Practice and Review: 1 2 3 M

- Yes No Does the material contain appropriate practice activities that contribute to mastery of the skills and concepts?
- Yes No Do practice activities relate directly to the desired outcome standard?
- Yes No Does the material provide enough practice for students with learning problems?
- Yes No Are skills systematically and cumulatively reviewed throughout the curriculum?

Archer, A. (1977). *Instructional materials for the mildly handicapped: Selection, utilization, and modification*. Eugene, OR: Northwest Learning Resources System, University of Oregon. Permission to reproduce granted by author.

Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain

Level of Objective	Task	Examples
Knowledge —Remembering information in about the same form as it was presented; recognizing and recalling vocabulary and details on a literal level. Previously memorized facts, names, figures, places, ideas, and phenomena must be stated.	Define, describe, identify, label, list, match, name, outline, recall, reproduce, select, state.	Knows common terms. Knows specific facts. Knows methods and procedures. Knows basic concepts. Knows principles. Defines "main idea."
Comprehension —Being able to put answers in one's own words; translating information from one form to another to interpret and estimate future trends. The student is required to explain a directly stated main idea, to compare and contrast, or tell the sequence of events in a story.	Convert, defend, distinguish, estimate, explain, extend, generalize, give examples, infer, paraphrase, predict, rewrite, summarize.	Understands facts and principles. Interprets verbal material. Interprets charts and graphs. Translates verbal material to mathematical formulas. Estimates future consequences implied in data. Justifies methods and procedures. Identify the main idea of a story.
Application —Using learned material in new and concrete situations; using rules and generalizing. Information learned previously must be used to arrive at a correct answer or action in a new situation.	Change, compute, demonstrate, discover, manipulate, modify, operate, predict, prepare, produce, relate, show, solve, use.	Applies concepts and principles to new situations. Applies laws and theories to practice situations. Solves mathematical problems. Constructs charts and graphs. Demonstrates correct usage of a method or a procedure. Identifies the main idea of a newspaper article.
Analysis —Breaking information into parts to understand its structure. One might be asked to identify someone's motive for an action, to draw a conclusion, or to provide evidence for a prediction about what will happen next in a story.	Break down, diagram, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, identify, illustrate, infer, outline, point out, relate, select, separate, subdivide.	Recognizes unstated assumptions. Recognizes logical fallacies in reasoning. Distinguishes between facts and inferences. Evaluate the relevancy of data. Analyzes the organizational structure of a work (art, music, writing). Gives ways to find the main idea in stories.
Synthesis —Putting elements together into a whole. Students must put together elements and parts to form a new whole that did not exist before.	Categorize, combine, compile, compose, create, devise, design, explain, generate, invent, modify, organize, plan, rearrange, reconstruct, relate, reorganize, revise, rewrite, summarize, tell, write.	Writes well-organized theme. Gives a well-organized speech. Writes a creative short story (poem, music). Proposes a plan for an experiment. Integrates learning from different areas in a plan for solving a problem. Formulates a new scheme for classifying objects (events or ideas). Writes a new story based on the main idea of a story you've read.
Evaluation —Judging against a criterion.	Appraise, compare, conclude, contrast, criticize, describe, discriminate, explain, justify, interpret, restate, summarize, support.	Judges the logical consistency of written material. Judges the accuracy with which conclusions are supported by data. Judges the values of a word (art, music, writing) by use of internal criteria. Judges the value of a work (art, music, writing) by use of external standards of excellence. Judges the author's effectiveness in presenting the main idea of a story.

I-C-U-E Planning and Evaluation Form

Identify student needs for adaptation:

Choose a C-A-R-E-S adaptation strategy:

Intervention Level	Adaptation Strategies	Change Date	Evaluation
<i>Accommodations</i>			
1. Change the learning environment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change physical environment (e.g., classroom and schedule). • Change socio-emotional climate. 		
2. Alter instructional materials and activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarify directions. • Scaffold instruction. 		
3. Revise teaching strategies.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide additional presentations. • Make consequences more attractive. • Increase practice opportunities. 		
<i>Modifications</i>			
4. Exchange task requirements.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change conditions. • Change presentation mode. • Change response mode. • Change quantity criteria. • Change rate criteria. • Change accuracy criteria. 		
5. Select an alternate task.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Select a prerequisite task. • Select a task from a different domain. 		

Use the adaptation strategy with the student.

Evaluate the effectiveness of the adaptation strategy.

Accommodations Checklist for All Students

Scheduling Timeline	WASL	ITBS
• Administer the assessment over the entire testing window.	Yes	Yes
• Adjust materials to attention span.	Yes	No
• Provide frequent breaks.	Yes	Yes
• Allow students to continue working on each subtest as long as they are productively engaged. Time for individual students will vary considerably on a performance assessment.	Yes	No
• Administer the assessment at a time of day most beneficial to students.	Yes	Yes
Settings	WASL	ITBS
• Allow students to use study carrels or other private space.	Yes	Yes
• Use preferential seating (e.g., near the test administrator to see or hear directions better).	Yes	Yes
• Assess students individually or in a small group to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
• Assess students in a familiar school environment that maximizes high performance.	Yes	Yes
• Provide special lighting, furniture, or acoustics.	Yes	Yes
• Allow low level of calming music or nature sounds to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
• Allow freedom for students to move or stand as needed.	Yes	Yes
Aids or Assistance	WASL	ITBS
• Use student's first (primary) language or signing (including ASL) to give assessment directions ONLY.	Yes	Yes
• Reread directions or quietly repeat for individuals.	Yes	Yes
• Clarify language on directions only.	Yes	No
• Have students reread directions.	Yes	Yes
Assist the students in tracking the assessment items by pointing or placing a finger on them. Allow the test administrator or another familiar adult to sit beside students.	Yes	Yes
• Encourage students to sustain effort and remain on task.	Yes	Yes
• Provide physical assistance in turning pages, handling materials, etc.	Yes	Yes
• Secure papers and materials to work area with tape or magnets,	Yes	Yes
• Provide pencils adapted in size or grip.	Yes	Yes
• Underline or mark their booklets with a pencil. Students may NOT use a highlighter on the test booklet (it bleeds through to the other side and may make scanning difficult).	Yes	Yes
• During both days of writing, students are permitted to use published materials such as a dictionary and a thesaurus in print or electronic form (but no spell check).	Yes	Not Applicable
• Tape record directions for use with small groups or individuals.	Yes	Yes
Format	WASL	ITBS
• Use the space available. If students cannot write within available space, their work must be transcribed VERBATIM into the test booklet. Added pages will not be scored.	Yes	Not Applicable

Accommodations Checklist for Special Populations

Scheduling Timeline	WASL	ITBS
• Administer the assessment over the entire testing window.	Yes	Yes
• Adjust materials to attention span.	Yes	No
• Provide frequent breaks.	Yes	Yes
• Allow students to continue working on each subtest as long as they are productively engaged. Time for individual students will vary considerably on a performance assessment.	Yes	No
• Administer the assessment at a time of day most beneficial to students.	Yes	Yes
Settings	WASL	ITBS
• Provide architecturally accessible testing sites.	Yes	Yes
• Assess students in a hospital or institution; home bound students in their home (with appropriate test security procedures).	Yes	Yes
• Allow students to use study carrels or other private space.	Yes	Yes
• Use preferential seating (e.g., near the test administrator to see or hear directions better).	Yes	Yes
• Assess students individually or in a small group to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
• Assess students in a familiar school environment that maximizes high performance.	Yes	Yes
• Provide special lighting, furniture, or acoustics.	Yes	Yes
• Allow low level of calming music or nature sounds to reduce distractions.	Yes	Yes
• Allow freedom for students to move or stand as needed.	Yes	Yes
Aids or Assistance	WASL	ITBS
ESL		
If an ESL student falls within a “limited English speaker range” (based on a state-approved language proficiency test), allow student to:		
• Use a reader to read math assessment items VERBATIM in English.	Yes	No
• Provide published English, native language, or visual dictionaries only on the writing test. Only published thesaurus or dictionary in print or electronic form may be used (no student-created dictionaries).	Yes	Not Applicable
IEP or 504		
If the student’s IEP or Section 504 plan documents a disability that affects reading or written communication, allow the student to:		
• Answer orally, point, use voice recognition technology, or sign in (SEE or ASL) an answer. A scribe records the student’s response VERBATIM (e.g., from written dictation or audio tape) without interpretations, translation, or corrections. If a scribe is used, the scribe should write down the student’s answer VERBATIM without punctuation or capital letters and then the scribe should ask the student to edit the text (directing the scribe to add punctuation and capital letters).	Yes	Yes
• Use appropriate physical supports or assists (e.g., easel, magnifier, arm or stabilizer guide, text-talk converter, communication device to indicate responses, noise buffers, FM or other sound amplification device to assist in hearing directions, slantboard or wedge).	Yes	Yes
• Use a reader to read math assessment items VERBATIM in English, or use SEE sign or ASL.	Yes	No
• Use computer or word processor for recording responses (no spell check or student-created dictionaries) when a computer is indicated on the IEP or Section 504 plan for written communication. Student responses must be transcribed verbatim into the test booklet. Added pages will not be scored.	Yes	Not Applicable
• Isolate portions of the assessment page to focus student’s attention (mask).	Yes	Yes
• Use math manipulatives (except calculators) as indicated. Use calculators only as specifically permitted in test directions.	Yes	Yes
Format	WASL	ITBS
• Allow Braille or large-type editions for the assessment, with appropriate test security measures for all students who use large print.	Yes	Yes

