UNIT 3. LD IN READING.
PART B. READING COMPRENHESION PROBLEMS

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Text adapted from:

Watson, S., Gable, R., Gear, S., & Hughes, K. (2012). Evidence-based strategies for improving the reading comprehension of students: Implications for students with Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 27*(2), 79-89.

Wong, B.Y.L. (2004). *Learning about Learning Disabilities*. London: Academic Press.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In contrast to dyslexia, children with reading-comprehension impairment (often simply referred to as poor comprehenders) can read aloud accurately and fluently at a level appropriate for their age but fail to understand much of what they read. Although this condition has been studied for many years, it still often goes unnoticed in the classroom, because when such children are asked to read a passage aloud they may do so with ease and it is only when they are asked questions about the meaning of what they have read that their problems are revealed. For this reason, reading-comprehension impairment may often be a hidden disability (as other LD). It is likely that many such children and their teachers are unaware that they have a reading problem.

Reading comprehension has been defined as the process that excerpts and, at the same time, creates meaning by having the student interact and be involved with written language (Shanahan et al., 2010). According to Durkin (1993), it has come to be known as the "essence of reading." Reading comprehension requires the reader to make connections with the text and, in addition, to the reader's prior knowledge (van de Broek, Rapp, & Kendeau, 2005). It is a complex task that involves a range of language and cognitive processes and skills that students must master in order to make sense of written text. Not surprisingly, many students identified as having learning disabilities (LD) experience problems in the area of reading comprehension. These students struggle to construct meaning from written text, connect meaning to words, make inferences, draw conclusions, recall and summarize information, and actively monitor their comprehension. These challenges are not necessarily a consequence of problems in decoding; rather, they often are a result of limited working memory (WM) capacity, inhibitory problems, prior knowledge, misconceptions, text structure knowledge, planning, and language difficulties. In sum, students with reading comprehension problems constitute a diverse group of students who have different profiles across a range of literacy tasks and grade levels.

In what follows, we briefly discuss the nature of reading comprehension problems, examine skills that are essential to text comprehension, and highlight the consequences of not being able to understand what is read. We assert that reading comprehension is a multifaceted process and that students need multiple tools to understand what they read. We look at factors essential to reading comprehension and provide evidence-based practices that match the individual needs of students with LD and their specific reading comprehension problems. Finally, we emphasize that, regardless of the strategy, instruction in the area of reading comprehension must be highly structured, explicit, systematic, modeled, scaffolded, and intense.

2. THE NATURE OF READING COMPREHENSION

Reading comprehension is the most critical skill students need to be successful in school. Not surprisingly, deficiencies in comprehension, oral and written, can have a negative effect on a student's classroom performance (e.g., written and oral communication) (Mason, 2004; Pape, 2004). Students who struggle to comprehend the textual material used in classroom instruction may experience a number of deleterious

outcomes. These outcomes range from not learning the subject matter (resulting in failing grades and potential grade retention) to peer rejection and social isolation. Repeated frustration and failure often leads to escape-motivated classroom behavior—students act-out to distance themselves from a highly aversive classroom situation.

To comprehend written language, students must be able to make inferences, to monitor their reading, to make causal connections, to have some knowledge of text structure, to summarize text, and to possess other language (e.g., semantics) and cognitive skills (e.g., self-regulation). For some students, *these skills may not develop naturally* and can result in reading comprehension problems. Indeed, a significant number of students with LD manifest deficits in these areas.

Contrary to conventional wisdom, research has shown that *reading comprehension does not improve simply by having students read more*. Instead, students *need highly structured and explicit instruction on strategy use*.

In recent years, researchers (e.g., Berninger, Abbott, Vermeulen, & Fulton, 2006; Catts et al., 2006) have investigated various aspects of reading, including the relationship between word identification and reading comprehension. Among their findings was that there is strong correlation between reading decoding and reading comprehension, mostly in the early grades. Others have documented the fact that skilled readers comprehend textual material better than less skilled readers. However, studies also have shown that a number of students with comprehension problems possess normal phonological processing skills and perform at a level comparable to children without reading problems; whereas, students with dyslexia or specific word decoding problems evidence difficulties in phonological processing skills (Cain & Oakhill, 2006; Catts et al., 2006; Nation & Norbury, 2005). This suggests that difficulty in reading *decoding, although critical to reading comprehension* (Petscher & Kim, 2011), *is not the only cause of reading comprehension problems*. Students who possess the ability to decode accurately, but cannot understand what they read, have specific reading comprehension problems. These are the students who often are described in the literature as poor comprehenders. One example of students who can decode but not comprehend are hyperlexic children (usually children with autism spectrum disorder), who have problems integrating information and making sense of what is read (Nation, Clarke, Wright, & Williams, 2006; Nation & Norbury, 2005).

Too often teachers of reading in primary grades emphasize phonological awareness, decoding, and fluency skills. This emphasis mirrors the research on beginning reading instruction, which has focused primarily on decoding and fluency skills (Williams, 2005). However, this rather narrow focus can contribute to the performance gap evidenced by students with and without disabilities because it limits their ability to develop comprehension skills. Basic and higher order level skills develop simultaneously and not sequentially (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). When only basic skills are reinforced, students are less likely to acquire strategies and skills to enable them to comprehend more complex texts used in the higher grades. For that reason, teachers may need to provide instruction in reading comprehension.

Students who usually struggle with reading comprehension benefit from explicit instruction in paraphrasing, inferencing, story mapping, and other evidence-based reading comprehension strategies. Some researchers (e.g., Borella et al., 2010;

Swanson et al., 2010) have linked reading comprehension problems to deficits in cognitive skills such as: WM, planning, inhibition, verbal IQ, and language skills (e.g., grammar and vocabulary). Problems in these areas negatively affect a student's ability to summarize text and pose challenges to students with LD in constructing and remembering main ideas of text. The children with poor reading comprehension must be taught with specific strategies in the sense that good readers seem to use them without specific instruction and indeed often without even being aware that they are using them.

ACTIVITY 1. If you know a Primary Education teacher, ask if (s)he considers difficulties in reading comprehension a frequent problem in Primary Education?

ACTIVITY 2. Review a reading textbook from any grade of Primary Education and answer the following question: do you think teachers teach to understand a text?

3. EVIDENCE-BASED INSTRUCTION TO FOSTER READING COMPREHENSION

Today, the main approach to comprehension instruction focuses on teaching evidence-based strategies. Indeed, there is a substantial body of evidence to support the notion that reading strategies enhance student comprehension of text material. Students (with and without LD) must possess multiple skills, including knowledge of text structure, the ability to find the main idea of a text, and to summarize what they read. In selecting strategies for building students´ reading comprehension skills, it is important that *teachers identify the type of problem the student is evidencing in order to match an intervention to that particular problem*. One student may have difficulty with vocabulary, another difficulty making inferences, and a third may have difficulty finding the main idea. Each of these students has a different problem that may require a different intervention. In choosing a particular strategy, selection should be based on the best research-based strategy or strategies should be based on the individual needs of their students.

The effective comprehension instruction should be highly structured, explicit, specific, long-term, scaffolded, and intensive. Moreover, it should include multiple opportunities for practice in order to transfer and generalize the knowledge.

3.1. Finding the Main Idea

Identifying the main idea or "gist" of a text is an essential skill to successful reading comprehension. The identification of a main idea facilitates students 'ability to read critically, to summarize large amounts of information, and to remember the important ideas of a text. Among the growing number of evidence-based strategies that relate to identifying the main idea are the Paraphrasing Strategy and the Summarization Strategy. Paraphrasing and summarization are not the same. Paraphrasing requires the reader to use his or her own words to translate the main idea, while summarizing requires the reader to distinguish between important and unimportant information to

reduce the overall length of the text. Paraphrasing is the basis of summarizing and should be taught before it.

One effective strategy to teach students to paraphrase is the "Paraphrasing Strategy, *RAP*," developed by Schumaker, Denton, and Deshler (1994) for use with expository text. The RAP strategy has been shown to increase student's ability to identify main ideas and to improve reading comprehension skills. By using the acronym RAP, students are reminded of the three steps they must take to find the main idea of a paragraph.

1. Read a paragraph
2. Ask yourself what are the main idea and details of this paragraph?
3. Put the main idea and details into your own words.

Besides teaching students to find the main idea and explain it in their own words, the RAP strategy requires students to monitor their comprehension by asking themselves after each paragraph:

- "What are the main idea and details of this paragraph?" Students are taught to find the main idea of a paragraph by looking at the first sentence of the paragraph and asking themselves

- "Does this sentence tell what the paragraph is about?" If the first sentence of the paragraph is not the main idea, students look for repetition of words in the paragraph.

Once they learn to find the main idea, students learn to find the details by asking themselves, "What information in this paragraph tells me more about the main idea?"

Paraphrasing as in this case of the RAP strategy has proven to be an effective way to increase comprehension of text across multiple age groups and for students with and without disabilities. The RAP strategy can be easily adapted to different age groups, across many content areas, and customized to students' individual needs to increase students' reading comprehension skills.

Summarization, the ability to tell what the text is about in a concise manner, helps students to concentrate on the major points of a text and compact the information to better comprehend and remember what they read. Summarizing requires more than paraphrasing; it requires making inferences and then synthesizing the information. Schumaker, Knight,and Deshler (2007) defined summarization as "Telling a lot of information with just a few words" (p. 29). Summarization requires the reader to understand, analyze, and synthesize information in order to focus on key elements (i.e., main ideas) that need to be remembered. Based on the work of Brownand Day (1983) and their colleagues, the National Institute for Literacy (2007) lists four components or steps of the rule-governed summarizing strategy:

1. Identify and/or formulate main ideas.

2. Connect the main ideas.

3. Identify and delete redundancies.

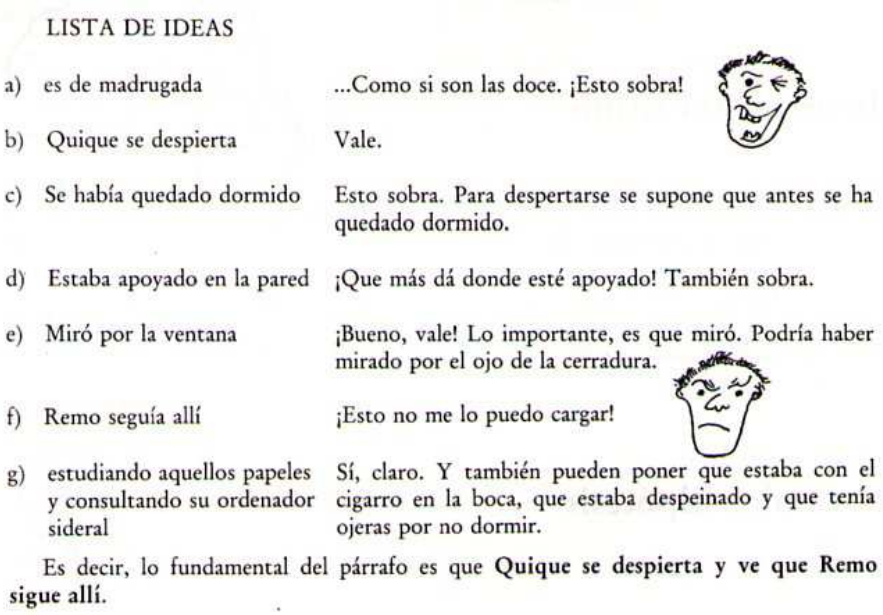
4. Restate the main ideas and connections using different words and phrasings.

The summarization strategy should be taught explicitly, with teacher modeling of each step of the strategy, providing guided practice with controlled materials and

corrective feedback, and finally independent practice. It is important to teach each rule to criterion. The strategy should be taught through the use of sets of short paragraphs. Teacher modeling of the strategy using a "think aloud" process has proven to be a powerful tool for teaching students reading comprehension strategies including the use of summarization.

(Use this link for examples and materials about summarizing activities http://www.readingrockets.org/strategies/summarizing/)

En español, existe un interesante y efectivo programa de intervención de la comprensión lectora realizado por Huerta y Matamala (1996) denominado "Piratas en la galexia". La figura 1 muestra un ejemplo del programa para trabajar la extracción de idea principal analizando párrafo a párrafo. En este caso se pide al niño, en primer lugar, que haga una lista con todo lo que se dice en el texto y, a continuación, se discute acerca de la importancia de las ideas, señalando si son fundamentales o detalles. Finalmente, se destaca lo fundamental de ese párrafo.



LISTA DE IDEAS

a)	es de madrugada	...Como si son las doce. ¡Esto sobra!
b)	Quique se despierta	Vale.
c)	Se había quedado dormido	Esto sobra. Para despertarse se supone que antes se ha quedado dormido.
d)	Estaba apoyado en la pared	¡Que más dá donde esté apoyado! También sobra.
e)	Miró por la ventana	¡Bueno, vale! Lo importante, es que miró. Podría haber mirado por el ojo de la cerradura.
f)	Remo seguía allí	¡Esto no me lo puedo cargar!
g)	estudiando aquellos papeles y consultando su ordenador sideral	Sí, claro. Y también pueden poner que estaba con el cigarro en la boca, que estaba despeinado y que tenía ojeras por no dormir.

Es decir, lo fundamental del párrafo es que **Quique se despierta y ve que Remo sigue allí.**

Figura 1. Ejemplo de actividad dirigida a la enseñanza de la detección de las ideas principales del programa de estimulación de la comprensión lectora de Huerta y Matamala (1996).

3.2. Inferential Processing

A substantial body of research shows that poor comprehenders understand literal meanings provided by the surface code of the text, but have difficulty making inferences that require interpretation or integration of text. The difficulties are apparent even when working memory demands are controlled, in children with good vocabulary and oral language skills, and even when differences in background knowledge are controlled. It may be that inferencing problems do not reflect a fundamental inability to make an inference, but an inability to do so in the context of text comprehension, representing a strategic deficit.

It is asserted that children with reading comprehension difficulties can be taught to effectively use inference-making strategies to enhance their own understanding during

reading. A critical factor for teachers is knowing when and how to give suitable support and feedback to enable children with comprehension difficulties to make appropriate inferences.

There are a lot of ways to help readers make appropriate inferences, for example, a technique called QARs (Question-Answer-Relationships). The technique was used to model and engage students in developing three types of questions to assist them to decide when and how to use their background knowledge to make inferences. The students learned to distinguish between four types of questions:

a- *Right There* QARs: Literal questions whose answers can be found in the text. Often the words used in the question are the same words found in the text, that is, the answer was explicitly stated in the text.

b- *Think and Search* QARs: Answers are gathered from several parts of the text and put together to make meaning, that is, the answers were found in the text but required some linking by searching and making inferential texts connections.

c- *Author and You*: These questions are based on information provided in the text but the student is required to relate it to their own experience. Although the answer does not lie directly in the text, the student must have read it in order to answer the question.

d- *On my own* QARs: These questions do not require the student to have read the passage but he/she must use their background or prior knowledge to answer the question.

How to use question–answer relationship

1. Explain to students that there are four types of questions they will encounter. The teacher must define each type of question and give an example.

2. Read a short passage aloud to your students.

3. Have predetermined questions you will ask after you stop reading. When you have finished reading, read the questions aloud to students and model how you decide which type of question you have been asked to answer.

4. Show students how find information to answer the question (i.e., in the text, from your own experiences, etc.).

You can see the question–answer relationship in action using this link: http://www.vdoe.whro.org/elementary_reading/QAR1-25-2010_F8_FastStart_512k.swf

(More tips for teaching inference in http://www.minds-in-bloom.com/2012/02/tips-for-teaching-inference.html)

3.3. Metacognition and Comprehension: Self-regulation Strategies

An area of focus in comprehension instruction is metacognition, which is concerned with students' awareness of their own thinking and their ability to regulate strategy use while working to comprehend printed material. It is important for students to monitor their own comprehension and to take steps to regain clarity of understanding when meaning breaks down or becomes confused.

Metacognitive strategies will enable students to consider their thinking processes **before, during,** and **after** phases of reading; there is evidence to suggest that most children in classrooms can be effectively taught to monitor meaning and to implement appropriate cognitive strategies as a means of improving reading comprehension.

Self-regulation strategies can be taught using explicit instruction and modelled by teacher. Typically developing readers self-regulate by setting their own appropriate learning goals, monitoring understanding, and reflecting on their learning outcomes. Such readers know how and when to use fix-up strategies during reading to regain meaning when it is lost. For example, when a reader encounters a difficult word in a reading passage a skilled reader may ignore the word and read on to gain some additional contextual cues before deciding on the correct response. Alternatively, when meaning is lost the skilled reader may reread by scanning back to the beginning of the sentence to regain the gist of the sentence.

There are a lot of strategies addressed to metacognition in comprehension; some of them are very simple, for example, students are directed to stop occasionally during their reading to monitor their understanding by asking themselves questions or by trying to summarize (see Figure 2). They are taught to take steps to ensure their understanding by rereading, by trying to connect the material to be learned with what they already know, and by using other general study skills.

Lee el siguiente texto parándote donde veas una señal como esta: STOP Hazte una pregunta sobre lo que has leído y comprueba si está bien. Si te has equivocado vuelve a leer ese trozo y si lo has hecho bien continúa leyendo.

-¡Qué sensación más extraña! -dijo Alicia-. Me debo estar encogiendo como un telescopio. Y así era, en efecto: ahora medía sólo veinticinco centímetros, y su cara se iluminó de alegría al pensar que tenía la talla adecuada para pasar por la puertecita y meterse en el maravilloso jardín. STOP *Primero, no obstante, esperó unos minutos para ver si seguía todavía disminuyendo de tamaño, y esta posibilidad la puso un poco nerviosa.* STOP *«No vaya consumirme del todo, como una vela», se dijo para sus adentros. «¿Qué sería de mí entonces?»* STOP *E intentó imaginar qué ocurría con la llama de una vela, cuando la vela estaba apagada, pues no podía recordar haber visto nunca una cosa así.* STOP *Mientras decía estas palabras, le resbaló un pie, y un segundo más tarde, ¡chap!, estaba hundida hasta el cuello en agua salada.* STOP *Lo primero que se le ocurrió fue que se había caído de alguna manera en el mar. «Y en este caso podré volver a casa en tren», se dijo para sí.* STOP *Sin embargo, pronto comprendió que estaba en el charco de lágrimas que había derramado cuando medía casi tres metros de estatura.* "

Figure 2. Example of self-regulation strategy.

Others effective strategies are more complex, for example: the use of self-monitoring questions. In this case, the students must be taught to generate questions and to think aloud about what they read before, during, and after they interact with the text. Table 1 presents some of the self-question students can ask as they work towards construction and clarifying the meaning of a passage.

Table 1. Self-questions asked before, during and after reading.

Self-Questions Asked Before, During and After Reading

Before reading	During reading	After reading
What will this text be about? Make predictions based on the cover, title, context of book, prior info about the author, etc. ***What do I already know about this topic?*** Relate and explore in terms of background knowledge. Make connections. ***What don't I understand about this text?*** Skim to identify any words that may be difficult. Clarify their meanings. ***What type of text is this?*** Getting a grip on text structure can help me understand the purpose of the text and know what to expect from it. ***What type of graphic organizer would be appropriate for this text?*** Concept map, matrix, cause and effect diagram, numbered steps, etc.	***What is important information?*** Underline important parts of the passage in order to remember where important information is. ***Where does the information fit into my graphic organizer?*** Formulate an ongoing graphic overview. Consider relationships and connections to what I already know. ***What is the author going to say next?*** Make predictions based on your reading so far. ***What will I do if I encounter an unfamiliar word or if I realize I don't understand what I have read?*** Apply "fix-up" strategies: - Sound out the word. Have I heard it before? - Read ahead. - Reread the section that is confusing me. - Vary my pace of reading to better enable comprehension (slow down) or fluency (speed up) - Ask someone to help.	***Can I retell the story or restate the main points in my own words?*** Summarize and self-question. ***What connections does this text have with my life and background knowledge?*** Make links with what I already know. ***What do I need to find out?*** Skimming for a date or name, and looking for a key word or a particular phrase, involves knowing about text structure and layout ***How will I answer comprehension questions after a passage?*** Use a strategy like the 3H Strategy. The answers are either Here, Hidden, or in my Head. ***How can I remember information from the passage?*** Complete the graphic overview

(See self-regulation strategy in action: http://www.readingrockets.org/strategies/think_alouds/)

3.4. Direct Instruction on Background Knowledge

There is ample evidence that knowledge of a topic facilitates student understanding and recall of information on that topic. In fact, Dochy, Segers, and Buehl (1999) have reported that 81 percent of students' test scores are related to prior knowledge. The National Center on Assessing the General Curriculum indicated that the best instructional approaches to support students' background knowledge are direct instruction on background knowledge, student reflection on and recording of background knowledge, and activation of background knowledge through questioning.

This evidence-based approach includes instruction on definitions of unknown vocabulary, clarification of difficult concepts and providing a summary of the text to be read and using oral language activities.

Because many students with LD lack the background knowledge needed to understand certain kinds of texts (e.g., science text), teachers can provide that knowledge by introducing advance organizers, previewing the text by providing a summary of the text, describing characters, and by having students answering

questions about the material. Although prior knowledge is an important part of comprehension, other factors—cognitive and motivational—affect understanding of text as well. Comprehension of text requires more than the activation of students' prior knowledge; students must be able to monitor their own knowledge. Students need to be actively engaged in their learning to be able to connect prior knowledge with new knowledge. Furthermore, successful readers are able to regulate and monitor their own attention, feelings, and behaviors and to facilitate understanding of what they read. These are areas of deficiency evidenced by many students with LD that teachers may need to address by providing instruction on strategies.

3.5. Graphic Organizers

Graphic organizers are visual and spatial displays that facilitate teaching and learning by organizing key concepts. Graphic organizers provide students with a cognitive structure, a framework to relate existing knowledge to new information to be learned. Graphic organizers include semantic and concept maps, semantic feature analysis, Venn diagrams, and story maps. One critical feature of graphic organizers is that they can be used to represent different text structures (e.g., expository vs. narrative text). In addition, a teacher can use graphic organizers to teach any subject (e.g., science, math, literature). In sum, graphic organizers help students to create an organized schema and to connect prior knowledge to the text they are reading. Graphic organizers also help the reader to extract meaning, remember, and retrieve information. For these reasons, the use of graphic organizers is a highly effective way to improve the reading comprehension of students with LD.

One widely researched graphic organizer is the *Story mapping* has been shown to be an effective reading comprehension strategy. In using story mapping, the teacher presents the student with a graphic organizer that contains story elements. Knowledge of narrative story structure, often called "story grammar," facilitates comprehension because it helps the reader understand the elements of *who, where, what, when, and why* in a story (see Figure 3). Teachers model for their student show to locate the elements in the text and explicitly provide "self-instruction statements" to the students, such as "As I am reading the text, I am finding what happens next in the story". After students are taught the story mapping strategy, they usually show increases in basic comprehension. In addition, many students are able to generalize the strategy to a novel passage, continue to use the, and are more likely to exhibit gains in literal and inferential comprehension. Following are procedures recommended to teach story mapping:

1. *Modeling Phase*: During the model phase the teacher demonstrate how to use the story mapping by reading the story aloud and stopping to fill in the story components. Teachers must involve students by asking them to label the parts and the show them how to write the information. When information is implicit, teachers must model how to generate the inference. Students should copy the information in their own graphic organizer, i.e., story map.

2. *Lead Phase*: During this phase of instruction, students should read the story independently and complete their maps and the teacher prompt them during this

stage. The teacher should encourage students to review their maps and to add details they might have omitted.

3. *Test Phase*: In this phase, students read a story, draw their own maps, and answers questions such as: Who were the characters? What was the problem of the story?

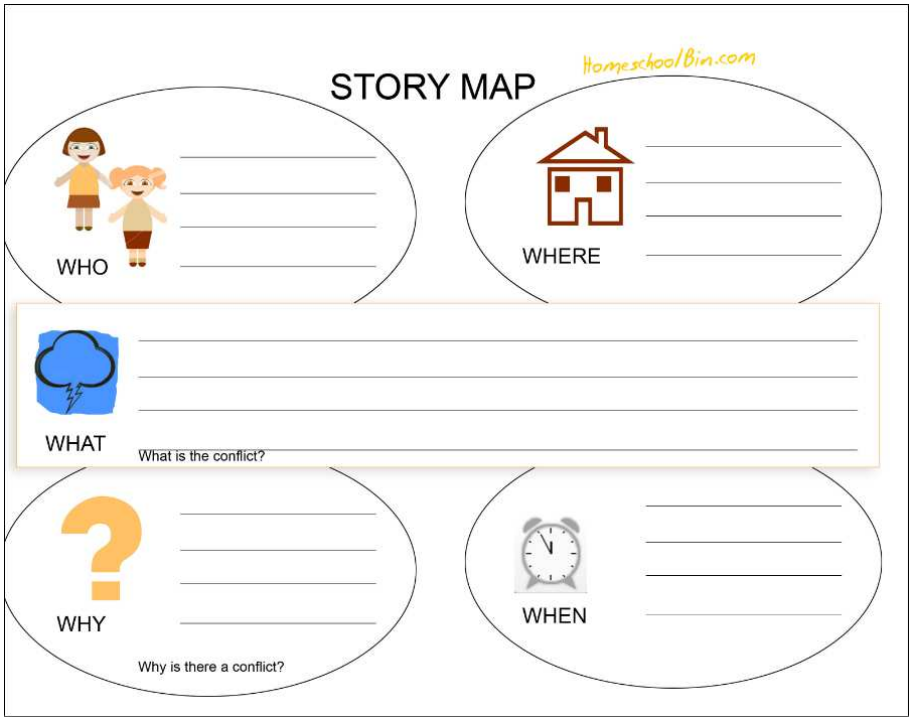


Figure 3. Work template story map.

3.6. Text Structure

Knowledge of ways in which text is organized helps students to better comprehend and remember information from the material they have read. It is important for students to recognize that the structure of narrative text is very different from the several different possible structures of expository texts (e.g., compare-contrast, description, and listing). The multiple and complex structures of expository texts, as opposed to the usual single structure of narrative texts make comprehension challenging for many students with LD.

Different types of texts are organized in different ways. Narrative text can be described as following a single general structural pattern, and informational/ expository texts comes in a variety patterns (e.g., description, sequence, compare-contrast, cause-effect, and problem-solution). Children develop sensitivity to narrative structure early, and they use it to comprehend simple stories before they enter school. But informational text, because it comprises a variety of structures and also because it more often deals with unfamiliar content, is more difficult to comprehend.

The research suggests that teachers should use multiple strategies and different types of graphic organizers to help students comprehend expository texts (see Table 2-3 and Figure 4). For example, Hall et al. (2005) used a graphic organizer in the form of a

matrix and key words (e.g., alike, similar, but) to teach comprehension of compare-contrast expository texts. Williams et al. (2007) taught cause-effect text structure using multiple strategies such as clue words, graphic organizers, and questioning. As the literature documents explicit instruction of text structure positively contributes to student comprehension of both narrative and expository texts.

Table 2. Strategies that support students´comprehension of narrative texts (Wong, 2004).

Types of text	Strategy
• *Stories* • *Drama* • *Poetry* • *Fairy tales* • *Myths* • *Fables* • *Legends*	Focus on descriptive passages featuring noun groups, adjectives, and adverbs that illustrate characters and settings. Develop understandings about story grammar. Explain how narratives are typically structured in terms of orientation, complication, and resolution. Develop appropriate graphic organizers. For example: • sociograms to plot understandings about characters and relationships • storymaps to clarify the sequence of events. Look for nuances, hints of future events, and the implications of happenings. These are often key clues to what will happen in the narrative. Identify main characters and secondary characters. Consider their roles. Explore the relationships between characters. Consider, explore, and visualize the setting. Relate it to the characters. Derive meaning from figurative language. Deconstruct similes, metaphors, and descriptions. Verbalize and reflect on "the movie in your head" (i.e., students' visualization of the narrative). How and why does it change as the text is read? Identify temporal words that connect happenings to clarify the sequence of events. Retell or recount the text using "who, what, when, where, why" questions as a guide.

Table 3. Strategies that support students´comprehension of expository texts (Wong, 2004).

Types of text	Strategies
• *Reports* • *Arguments* • *Procedures* • *Descriptions* • *Explanation* • *Response* • *Discussion* • *Recounts* • *Personal responses*	Build up knowledge of text types in order to understand the social purposes of text and identify important organizational structures & features. Focus on keywords, technical terms, and their synonyms. This key strategy requires development of vocabulary skills. "Read" charts, graphs, pictures, headings, and other graphics. Use graphic organizers. Concept maps, definition maps, flow charts, and structured overviews are all useful organizers for factual texts. Make judgments and be critical. For example: Is this an argument or an information report? Is this a realistic procedure? How concrete are these "facts"? Develop skills in skimming, scanning, and summarizing for understanding text organization and for locating information. Use contents, glossary, indexes, dictionary, and other sources to gather information and clarify vocabulary knowledge.

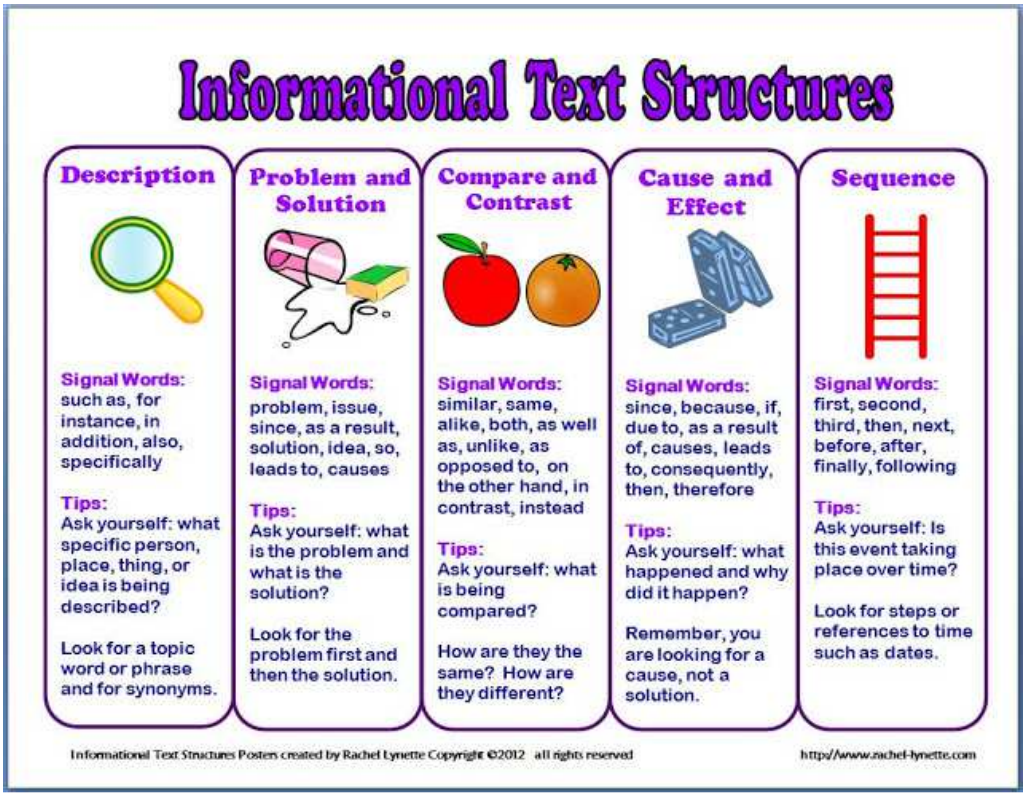


Figure 4. Informational text structures poster.

In conclusion, the role of the teacher is to explicitly teach students how to apply appropriate strategies. This instruction should be overt and should include multiple opportunities for students to practice under quality feedback conditions with the teacher or with able peers before they use strategies on their own. Students should also be taught that there are some instances where strategies are only somewhat useful and other situations where strategies do not fit particular passage. Interactive dialogue is an essential component of strategy instruction. It provides ongoing and systematic feedback to assist students in understanding what they read.