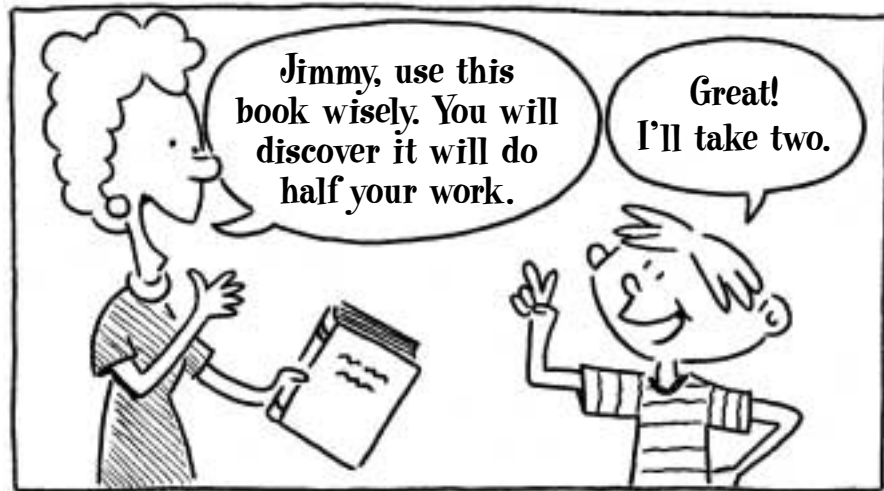


How to Use This Book



—Helen Rudin

Teaching Students to Read Nonfiction provides 22 easy lessons that can be used during reading time or content area instructional time. The book includes:

- Easy-to-Use Text Feature Lessons
- Kid-Friendly Text Structure Lessons
- High-Interest Content Area Selections
- Assessment
- Purposeful Independent Practice
- Connections to Writing
- Tips for Choosing the Right Lesson

What's in a Lesson?

There are two types of lessons in this book: Text Feature lessons and Text Structure lessons. Text Feature lessons focus on the typographical and visual elements commonly found in nonfiction. Or, to put it another way, how the text looks on the page. Students are guided through the process of using these visual tools with a portion of text. For ease of use, we have provided the text on a color transparency for each Text Feature lesson. Students will encounter these same text features as part of a longer selection in the following lesson, which focuses on text structures. The lessons are organized so that each Text Feature lesson is

followed by a Text Structure lesson that embeds the text feature of the previous lesson. The selections we have chosen are the type of nonfiction text that is typical of students' content area reading.

Text Structure lessons teach students how to identify the organization of a piece of writing. Repeated practice will help students internalize text structures so that they can use them more effectively to get information from their content area reading.

Lesson 7 Text Feature • Primary Sources

How to Read Primary Sources

What Are Primary Sources?
A primary source is an account of an event by someone who witnessed it. Letters, journals, photographs, interviews, newspaper accounts, and speeches are examples of primary sources. Sometimes you will find that a secondary source, such as a biography, includes primary source materials, such as photographs of and quotes by the person.

Why Are They Useful?
Primary sources are usually very informative because they reveal the thoughts and feelings of people who were "on the scene." They provide snapshots in time of how people lived and what they thought about the current events. Primary sources help to personalize historical events for the reader.

Materials

- Model Text, "The Shaky Letters," pp. 80-81
- Text Structure Transparency #
- Bookmark, p. 159

Direct Instruction

- Distribute the Primary Sources lesson, pages 80-81. Have students read it silently before discussing the model text together. Then, display the color transparency and use it to guide students as they read and use the Reading Tools.
- Use the MiniLesson on page 79 to teach the text feature.

Comprehension QuickCheck

After you have completed the lesson, you may use the following questions to check students' comprehension:

- What are primary sources? (firsthand accounts of an event written by a person who witnessed it)
- Why are primary sources helpful? (They tell the thoughts and feelings of people who experienced an event.)
- What do these letters reveal? (They tell what life was like for a doctor's wife in the California mines of the 1850s.)

78

Text Feature lesson, see pages 78-79

Lesson 20 Text Structure • Cause and Effect

Reading "Journey Beneath the Earth"

Materials

- Model Text, "Journey Beneath the Earth," pp. 144-147
- Graphic Organizer, p. 145

Build Background

Students will read a section of a science textbook about Earth's plates and a giant ring of more than 300 volcanoes. In order to comprehend the text, students need to know what lies below the surface of the earth. Create a Blank Smart Chart and distribute copies or create one on butcher paper. Use the routine on page 24. Through your questioning, guide the discussion to identify students' knowledge and/or misconceptions about what lies between the earth's surface and the center of the earth.

If students have not read "What Is Under Earth's Surface?" on page 141, they will need to know the information below. The gaps in their prior knowledge should determine what information you share.

- Earth is made of three major layers.
- The outer layer is called the **crust**, which is made up of rock. The crust is covered by soil or water.
- The bottom of the crust is hot enough to melt some of the rock. The melted rock is called **magma**.
- Earth's middle layer is called the **mantle**. The mantle is mostly solid hot rock. This layer is much thicker than the crust and twice as hot.
- The deepest layer is the **core**, made up of two parts—the outer core and the inner core. The outer core is liquid metal and hotter than the mantle. The inner core, which is the center of the earth, is solid even though it is the hottest of Earth's layers.

Concept Circles

Draw the following concept circles on the overheads one at a time. Have students read the two words in the circle and then add a related vocabulary word to complete the circle. Ask students to explain the basis for their choice.

Preteach Vocabulary

Preteach the following words from "Journey Beneath the Earth" using the Vocabulary Routine on page 29. Or you may wish to use the concept circles shown in the sidebar. Define each word and provide an example sentence. Also point out multiple meanings and related words.

142

Text Structure lesson, see pages 142-144

LEARNING ABOUT TEXT FEATURES

Let's take a closer look at the organization of a Text Feature lesson. It focuses students' attention on how to navigate the text and how to identify and use "tools," such as headings and boldfaced words, that serve as an aid to comprehension. In addition, many students need advance preparation in how to read and interpret the graphic aids they are most likely to meet in nonfiction text—maps, charts, graphs, diagrams, and time lines. Therefore, the lesson also includes one type of graphic aid and teaches students how to read and interpret it. The model text for each Text Feature lesson is included on a color transparency. Later, in subsequent lessons, the same feature will be embedded in authentic text just as students would encounter it in their science and social studies textbooks. At this stage, students will practice reading text, stopping to refer to a graphic, and then returning to the text.

Student Materials

For each Text Feature lesson, students will receive a step-by-step guide called **Reading Tools** on how to read the featured graphic aid. The accompanying **color transparency** of the graphic aid will facilitate group instruction and discussion.

The Reading Tools are summarized on a **Bookmark** for later reference. These are provided on pages 159-160. Students can cut out each bookmark and save it in an envelope labeled **Reading Tool Kit**. Students will find these brief "memory joggers" helpful when they come upon the same graphic aid in Text Structure lessons and in their content area reading.

The lessons covered in Teaching Students to Read Nonfiction help students read:

- * *Diagrams*
- * *Maps*
- * *Charts*
- * *Time Lines*
- * *Primary Sources*
- * *Graphs*
- * *Social Studies Textbooks*
- * *Science Textbooks*
- * *Encyclopedia Articles*
- * *Online Sources*
- * *Text with Multiple Features*

Read About Social Studies

Reference Sources

Imagine that you have a homework assignment to write a report. Before you can begin, you have to do research about the topic you have chosen. Where would you look for the information you need? You would look in **reference sources**. Encyclopedias, books of fiction, and Internet Web sites are sources that contain information about many different topics.

An **encyclopedia** gives you general information about important people, places, things, and events. An encyclopedia may be a set of books, or it may be stored on a CD-ROM.

Notification books provide in-depth information.

Articles in recent **periodicals** supply the most up-to-date information about a topic.

The **Internet** allows you to access many sources of information from a computer. Many government departments, museums, other organizations, and newspapers have sites that you can go to for information.

A reference source is not meant to be read through from cover to cover. You have to locate the part of the book that contains the information about your topic. For example, let's say you are writing a report about wolf packs, and you have a book about the wild animals of North America. You would look in the table of contents or the index to find the pages about wolves.

Reading Tools

In this lesson, you will be reading a section of a reference book about blizzards. When reading reference sources, use the Reading Tools below to help you.

- Look in the **table of contents** or the **index** to find the pages related to your topic.
- **Preview** the text as you would do with any nonfiction. Pay attention to the chapter title and headings.
- Then **read the text** to learn about your topic. Attend to any special features, such as boldfaced words, maps, diagrams, photographs, and so on.
- Look for **primary source** material. A primary source reveals the thoughts and feelings of a person who was on the scene.
- If the text includes **photographs**, study them carefully. Photographs are a primary source that can provide details and additional information about a topic. Be sure to read the captions, as well.

Remember to use these Reading Tools when you read a reference source.

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Blizzard Warning!

Snow Plus Wind

Although many people use the term "blizzard" to describe any weather with a lot of snow, blizzards are really a special type of storm. In a true blizzard, the combination of falling and blowing snow plus sustained winds or frequent gusts of at least thirty-five miles an hour must lower the visibility to 1/4 mile or less for at least three hours in a row. Temperatures well below thirty-two degrees are typically associated with blizzards, too.

Snow Blowers

Strangely enough, blizzard conditions can occur without any snow actually falling from the sky. Strong winds can blow previously dumped snow, reducing the visibility to create blizzard conditions. Antarctica, which has some of the worst blizzards in the world, actually only gets a few inches of snow each year. But incredibly cold temperatures mean the snow never melts. So when the wind blows, it's stirring up years' worth of old snow.

A snowed day through the snow in Farmington, Connecticut, after the blizzard of 1888.

Snowblows reach 214 inches in Marchand, Minnesota, after winter storm in 1997 (right).

In the winter of 1888, a fifteen-year-old boy, Q.W. Meier, and his two younger brothers battled a blizzard in Lincoln, Nebraska. Many years later, Mr. Meier still remembered that storm.

Beautiful big white flakes were falling fast that morning of the fateful day. At the last recess, the snow was about two feet deep. As swiftly as lightning, the storm struck the north side of the schoolhouse. The whole building shivered and quaked.

In an instant the room became black as night. The teacher said: "Those who lie south may put on their coats and go, but the rest of you must stay here in this house."

We had not gone 16 feet when we found ourselves in a heavy drift of snow. We took hold of each other's hands [and] pulled ourselves out. The cold north wind blew us a half mile south. My brothers and I could not walk through the deep snow in the road, so we

walked down the rows of corn stalks to keep from losing ourselves till we reached our pasture fence. . . . For nearly a mile we followed the fence till we reached the corral and pens. The roaring wind and falling snow blinded us so that we had to feel through the yard to the door of our house. It was shaking the ice and snow from his coat and boots. He had gone out to meet us but was forced back by the storm.

That was an awful night on the open Plains. Many teachers and school children lost their lives in that blinding storm, while trying to find their way home. The blizzard of 1888 has not been forgotten.

—from *American Life Histories: Reminiscences from the Federal Writers' Project, 1936-1940*
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Lesson 9

How to Read Reference Sources

- ✓ Look up your topic in the **table of contents** or **index**.
- ✓ **Preview** the text.
- ✓ Use the **special features** as you read.
- ✓ Think about what information the **primary sources** add.

Reading Tools, Model Text, and Bookmark for a Text Feature lesson

LEARNING ABOUT TEXT STRUCTURE

Now let's focus on a Text Structure lesson. Informational texts have both a content and a structure. The structure is the organizational pattern *within* the text. It ties the ideas together. Understanding both the content and the structure is essential for comprehension. The first task is being able to identify the structure of a piece of text. The next task is knowing how to use that structure to organize the content (Just and Carpenter, 1987).

The 5 Most Common Structures of Nonfiction

Just like fiction, which has plot structure that students must learn and recognize, nonfiction follows basic structures, as well. Five kinds of text structures, or patterns of organization, are commonly found in informational texts:

1. **Description or listing** provides information, such as facts, characteristics, and attributes about a subject, event, person or concept. This organization is the most common pattern found in textbooks (Niles, 1965; Bartlett, 1978). Here is an example:

The dinosaurs were four to eight feet long, about the size of kangaroos. They had small heads and long necks, and they walked on two or four legs.

2. **Sequence or time order** presents a series of events that take place in a time order. The author traces the sequence or the steps in the process. An example is:

Trouble had been brewing for more than 10 years. In 1763 Britain defeated France in the French and Indian War. Britain then tried to tighten control over its 13 American colonies and tax the colonies more heavily.

3. **Compare and contrast** points out the likenesses and/or differences between two or more subjects. For example:

The cheetah can run 70 mph. In the 1996 Olympic Games, Michael Johnson set a world record and captured the gold medal when he ran 200 meters in 19.32 seconds. That's 23 mph.

4. **Cause and effect** attempts to explain why something happens; how facts or events (causes) lead to other facts or events (effects). A single cause often has several effects. Also, a single event may have several causes. This paragraph describes causes and effects:

As the left plate slides down into the earth, it enters the hot mantle. Rocks in the sliding plate begin to melt, and they form magma.

5. **Problem and solution** describes a problem and presents one or more solutions to that problem. The following is an example:




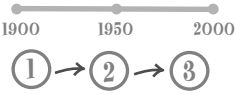
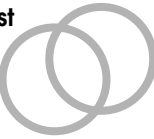
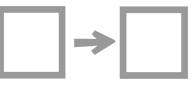
Environmentalists are battling to save remaining native species. Scientists and private citizens are attempting to preserve 4,000 acres on the island of Hawaii by literally fencing them off against alien invader species.

Things would be nice and simple if every piece of expository text were neatly written in one clearly identifiable pattern. However, informational text is often complex, and an author may not use one text structure exclusively throughout a long piece of writing. It is more likely that only a section of text will be organized in a single pattern. For example, a chapter about weather in a science textbook may

- first discuss different kinds of weather conditions (*description/listing*),
- then go on to explain the patterns that result in particular kinds of weather (*cause and effect*),
- follow up with a discussion of when a snowstorm officially becomes a blizzard or when a rainstorm is classified as a hurricane (*compare and contrast*), and finally
- close with what to do in the event of severe weather, such as a tornado (*problem and solution*).

The goal of text structure instruction is to enable students to recognize and use these structures flexibly so that they can make meaning from nonfiction texts.

Signal Words A good writer connects ideas within the text with words and phrases. These *connectives*, or *ties*, can act as signals to an informed reader who is trying to identify the text structure. The chart below shows some of the connectives that authors use to signal different text structures and the message they transmit to the reader.

Text Structures		
Text Structure	 Signal Words	 Signal to Reader
Description or list 	<i>to begin with, for example, for instance, most important, in front, beside, near</i>	A list or set of characteristics will follow.
Sequence or time order 	<i>first, second, third, before, on (date), not long after, after that, next, at the same time, finally, then, following</i>	A sequence of events or steps in a process is being described.
Compare and contrast 	<i>like, unlike, but, in contrast, on the other hand, however, both, also, too, as well as</i>	Likenesses and differences are being presented and/or discussed.
Cause and effect Problem and solution 	<i>therefore, consequently, so, this led to, as a result, because, if ... then</i>	Evidence of cause(s) and effect(s) will be given or problems and solutions will be described.

This chart is Transparency 1

Text Structure Lessons

We can see why readers must be explicitly taught to recognize and use text structures. Text structures are critical for constructing meaning, yet they are often difficult to identify for the developing reader. Therefore, in the Text Structure lessons, two things happen:

1. **Students focus their attention on text structure.** They

are taught what the text structures are and what clues they can use to identify the organization of a particular piece of writing. Students will get multiple exposures to each of the text structures discussed above. And, of course, they'll have many additional opportunities to apply what they have learned in their classroom content area reading. The repetition will give students the multiple exposures they need in order to internalize the skill and become sufficiently proficient to use it independently.

2. **The selection provides students with another opportunity to practice and apply the skills** that were previously taught. The same features and graphic aids are embedded in informational text. A chart, for example, might be part of a science article just as students would encounter it in their content area reading. Students will practice integrating information from the chart with the information in the text.

USING HIGH-INTEREST CONTENT AREA SELECTIONS

As we have pointed out, the model texts provide students with an opportunity to apply their knowledge of text features to new texts. These pieces have been carefully selected to match grade-level science and social studies standards. For example, in social studies, fifth graders will be reading about United States history; sixth graders will explore the wonders of the ancient world.

Some of the topics covered in this book include:

- Science:** fossils and geology
- Social Studies:** U.S. geography, ancient civilizations and many more!

Assessment: Comprehension QuickCheck

Following the reading of each selection, the questions that are provided ask students to apply the skill in some or all of the following ways:

- identify the text feature and text structure
- explain the purposes of both
- use the text feature to get information
- generate other situations in which the text feature would be appropriate

Coming to America

United States has often been called a nation of immigrants. In 1923, 47% of the population were immigrants or the children of immigrants. In America's largest cities, the number was even higher with immigrants forming more than 70% of the population. Most were fleeing from poverty and starvation, religious persecution, and tyrannical governments. What they saw in America was freedom and the opportunity to make a better life for themselves and their families.

Welcome to Ellis Island
From 1852 to 1954, over 12 million immigrants from Europe entered the country. For most of them, Ellis Island in New York harbor was their first stop. Ellis Island was the main immigration center in the United States at that time. In the early years, between 1902 and 1954, thousands passed through Ellis Island daily. It is recorded that in one single day in 1907, 11,247 hopeful arrivals filed through the center. Immigrants were required to pass a series of inspections before they could set foot on America's shores. Men, women, and children lined up in a huge room called the Great Hall as they waited to be examined by doctors and questioned by government officials. To determine whether the immigrants were healthy and mentally fit, they were given many physical and mental tests. The experience was often nerve wracking. However, despite crowded and difficult conditions, the majority of immigrants made it through the battery of tests in a few hours, and they were allowed to enter the country.

Angel Island, the "Ellis Island of the West Coast"
At the same time immigrants from Europe were crossing the Atlantic, almost a million Asian immigrants were making the three-week trip across the Pacific Ocean. From 1910 to 1940, Asian immigrants entered the United States by way of Angel Island, located in San Francisco Bay. Angel Island was sometimes called "the Ellis Island of the West Coast," but immigrants there had a far more difficult time than the Europeans entering at Ellis Island. Officials at Angel Island were not welcoming to the Asians. They set up many barriers for Asian immigrants trying to enter. Immigrants faced extreme crowding, endless questioning, and days and days of waiting at the Angel Island Immigration Station. Those who were detained the longest were the Chinese, who often waited for weeks and even months. The Chinese were the largest group to come from Asia. They had first begun to arrive in California in

Origins of Immigrants in California in 2000

1849 when news of the discovery of gold spread throughout the world. Like many other immigrants, they left lives of poverty to journey to what they called "Gold Mountain." Even after the hope of striking it rich faded, Chinese workers continued to flock to California for the opportunity to work on the building of the transcontinental railroad, which would run across the country and link the eastern part of the United States with the West. In 1869, when the last spike was hammered into place at Promontory Point in Utah, thousands of Chinese were left unemployed. Most of them made their way back to California, Washington, and Oregon where they found work on farms and ranches.

A Place to Wait
In later years, between 1910 and 1940, about 175,000 Chinese passed through Angel Island. Their first sight of a pleasant hillside with palm trees gave them no clue as to what awaited them. The buildings in which the immigrants were detained were wooden barracks surrounded by guard towers and barbed-wire fences with locked gates. Immigrants were separated by nationality and gender into crowded rooms. Husband and wives were not allowed to see each other and both had been denied to enter the country. Facing the prospect, many of the Chinese detainees expressed their sadness, anger, and pain by writing poems, which they carved on the wooden walls.

There are tens of thousands of poems composed on these walls. They are all sites of complaint and sadness. The day I am rid of this prison and attain success, I must remember that this chapter once existed.
—By One from Singapore (Photo #1)

Preserving History
Ellis Island closed in 1954 and was placed under the care of the National Park Service in 1965. Twenty years after that, work began on its restoration. The building had been abandoned for so long that walls were crumbling, windows were broken, floors were rotting, and weeds were growing in the corridors. After eight years of careful and extensive rebuilding, the Ellis Island Immigration Museum opened to give visitors a first-hand look at the history of Ellis Island and the story of American immigration. Over 100 million Americans can trace ancestors to someone who passed through Ellis Island, so it is no surprise that the museum has almost two million visitors a year. On the West Coast, a raging fire at Angel Island caused the station to be moved to San Francisco in 1962. Since then, people have worked to restore the building as a testimony to Asian immigrants. The wooden barracks, with their first hand accounts carved on the walls, have already been restored and opened to visitors. About seventy-five percent of the Chinese and Japanese in California have their roots in Angel Island. They and many others hope that Angel Island will eventually be made a national landmark. People want Angel Island to be a center that preserves the history of Asian immigrants, just as Ellis Island keeps the story of European immigration alive. Both places are an important part of America's past to be studied by all of us.

Model text for Text Structure lesson, Lesson 6

APPLYING THROUGH PURPOSEFUL INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

A true measure of students' knowledge is their ability to use a particular skill on their own. Not only do we teach students to use text features, but we also provide opportunities for them both to practice getting information from these features in novel situations and to create graphic features of their own—such as charts, diagrams, and time lines—to organize information learned from a text.

A **reproducible** is provided for each Text Structure lesson. The reproducible can be used either in class, in learning centers, or for homework. The purpose of this reproducible is to check students' comprehension of the text they read, using a graphic organizer to record new learning. These graphic aids, such as main idea charts, summary charts, and Venn diagrams, are useful ways for students to organize the information in any text and serve as valuable models.

In addition, some of the **extension activities** at the bottom of the reproducibles ask students to organize new text using the text feature they learned about. For example, if students read about 19th century American life using a time line, they may be asked to read about a different time period in our country's history and create a time line to represent the major events. Repeated opportunities to read and create these text features will help students organize their thinking when reading and writing independently. And, these features can be applied to written reports and oral presentations!

CONNECTING TO WRITING

One of the ways to assess students' understanding of nonfiction text is by having them write **summaries**. Summarizing is an important reading strategy and critical writing skill. It involves selecting, organizing, and synthesizing the most important elements in a piece of text; and by using their own words, students demonstrate what they have learned. Summaries synthesize key ideas and details, are brief, do not contain the student's opinions, and are organized in a logical sequence. Summaries can be oral or written.

Summaries also require the reader to use all that he or she knows about the content of the text, as well as the text structure and its many features. Summaries are not easy for many students. Writing a good summary requires a great deal of modeling and guided practice (Hidi and Anderson, 1986).

In order to write a summary, a reader must be able to:

1. select the most important information in a text, thereby discarding the least important.
2. condense information by combining ideas or replacing a

Possible Answers

Lesson 10 Reading Black Blizzard

Cause and Effect

Use the graphic organizer below to record the causes and effects of the Dust Bowl.

Cause

In 1931-1935, there was a drought in the Plains states.

Effects/Causes

Crops failed and farmers had no income.
Soil became dry and loose.
Wind storms blew away topsoil.

Effects

Farm families moved West.
The area became a Dust Bowl.

Extension Activity

Do research about the old Route 66. List (1) the states it went through and (2) one city on Route 66 for each state on your list.

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general term for a group of specific terms (i.e., “transportation” instead of “cars, trains, and planes”).

3. record the most important ideas on paper in their own words.

Have students follow these steps to create a summary:

- Determine the main ideas, such as the main topic of the text. Use headings to help identify these main ideas.
- Look for information that is repeated. Be sure it is included only once. In addition, look for ideas that can be grouped.
- Look for the main idea sentence for each important section of text. It often appears in the heading or at the end of a paragraph.
- If you can’t find a main idea sentence, think of one yourself.
- Write your summary. Be sure to use your own words and be brief (Cooper, 1993).

In addition, a great way to help students internalize important aspects of nonfiction is to have them apply these aspects to writing by **creating text using nonfiction structures and features**. For example, when teaching students how to read a text using sequence as its organizing structure, a great follow-up activity is to have them write a text using the same structure. (See chart below.) As students gain more experience using these text structures and features in their writing, they will begin to internalize them. Therefore, when they encounter these structures and features while reading, these texts will be easier to navigate and comprehend. The extension activities provide opportunities for students to apply their learning.

Remember—reading and writing are reciprocal!

Writing Assignment	Text Structure/Text Feature
Biography	Chronological order with time line
Report about a country or state	Description with map
Article for school newspaper about a school-related issue	Problem and solution
Report about a life cycle	Sequence with diagram
Essay about how something has changed over time, such as your town, clothing style	Compare and contrast
Speech about the effects of a new law or important news event	Cause and effect

Tips for Choosing the Right Lesson

How you use the lessons in this book will depend on your classroom set-up and your preferences. You may follow the sequence presented in the book or, since each lesson can stand alone, you may choose to dip in wherever you see fit. Here are several options that will work:

- **If your classroom is self-contained**, and you teach the content areas as well as reading and language arts, you may wish to approach each lesson as you would any reading skill—on a weekly or bi-weekly basis, following the sequence presented in this book. You can use the lessons to preteach text features and text structures, and later apply those skills to new text in social studies or science textbooks and periodicals. For example, you begin with Overview Lesson 1 on page 38 that introduces the text feature diagrams. At a later date, let's suppose your students are about to read a chapter about the water cycle in their science textbooks. You can first review the features of a diagram and then students can apply what they have learned to the new material in their textbooks.
- **As an alternative, you can teach the lessons in this book during your social studies or science block.** Preview the science or social studies textbook lesson for the week and identify the text features and structures your students will encounter. Then preteach those skills using the appropriate lessons in this book. For example, if the social studies chapter includes a two-tier time line showing the events in America and in Europe from 1770 to 1790, you can preteach with Lessons 17 and 18—the text feature lesson on time lines and the text structure lesson on sequence.
- **Another approach is to dip into just one part of a lesson.** You may use only a portion of the lesson based on student needs, reading levels, and time constraints.

IF ...	THEN...
You teach in a self-contained classroom	Use the lessons in the sequence provided. You may want to revisit a particular lesson when students need to apply the skill to a new text.
You are a content area teacher	Use the lesson that is appropriate to the reading demands of the particular chapter you are using in your textbook.
You need more flexibility	Pick and choose portions of lessons to meet your current instructional needs.