

Spring 2002

## Phrasing in Fluent Reading: Process and Product

Connie Briggs  
*Emporia State University*

Salli Forbes  
*University of Iowa*

*Let us know how access to this document benefits you*

Copyright ©2002 Connie Briggs and Salli Forbes. The copyright holder has granted permission for posting.

Follow this and additional works at: [https://scholarworks.uni.edu/ci\\_facpub](https://scholarworks.uni.edu/ci_facpub)



Part of the [Curriculum and Instruction Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Briggs, Connie and Forbes, Salli, "Phrasing in Fluent Reading: Process and Product" (2002). *Curriculum & Instruction Faculty Publications*. 31.

[https://scholarworks.uni.edu/ci\\_facpub/31](https://scholarworks.uni.edu/ci_facpub/31)

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Faculty Work at UNI ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Curriculum & Instruction Faculty Publications by an authorized administrator of UNI ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@uni.edu](mailto:scholarworks@uni.edu).

# Phrasing in Fluent Reading: Process *and* Product

Connie Briggs, University Trainer, Emporia State University  
Salli Forbes, University Trainer, University of Iowa



Recent national studies (National Reading Panel, 2000; Partnership for Reading, 2001; Snow, 1998) include fluency as one of the critical components of reading development.

Although these sources agree that fluency is important, their definitions describe fluency as a product of reading. They do not address the contribution of fluency to developing reading proficiency. It is only when we look at reading as a complex process that we begin to understand the role that phrased and fluent reading plays in building an effective system (Briggs & Forbes, 2001).

Reading Recovery is one of the very few early interventions which emphasizes the importance of teaching for phrasing in fluent reading and recognizes its contribution in building an effective processing system. The theoretical framework for this program is

based upon reading as a complex process from the start. The complexity is illustrated by Marie Clay's (1991) description of processing and effective reading.

By means of a network of unobservable in-the-head strategies the reader is able to attend to information, from different sources (for example, reading and writing, oral language and visual learning, meaning and phonology). The good reader can work with both internal and external information and make decisions about matches and mismatches in his responses. A dynamic network of interactive strategies allows the reader to change direction at any point of the processing path (p. 328).

The young reader develops a network of competencies through experiences with reading and writing. The network continues to grow in power and generate further learning the more the learner engages in reading continuous text. Phrased and fluent reading is not only the product of this network of competencies but is also an important contributor to developing the network from very early on. That is why we teach for phrasing and fluency with consistency and expectation throughout most of a child's Reading Recovery program. In this article, we will discuss the complex theory and factors that teachers need to consider in order to support the child's efforts to read fluently.

## What Is Fluency?

In 1974, Loberge and Samuels presented a theory of automatic information processing in reading as a two-fold process occurring in milliseconds. First, printed words must be decoded; second, the decoded words must be comprehended. The mediator of these two separate processes is attention. Loberge and Samuel's premise was that readers have only so much attention available at any given time. Therefore, in order to become fluent, one must be able to decode automatically, thus freeing up attention for comprehension. While this research made a valuable contribution to our view of reading in terms of attention and automaticity, it represents only a partial view of fluency.

While automaticity and a rapid reading rate are important components of fluent reading, it also consists of the ability to read sentences expressively, with appropriate phrasing and intonation (Tompkins, 2001). Fluent reading is more than just speed and word recognition. Expression, phrasing, and intonation fall under the main heading of prosodic elements. “Prosody is a general linguistic term to describe the rhythmic and tonal features of speech” (Dowhower, 1991, p. 166). Prosodic features of speech (and oral reading) include juncture, pitch, and stress.

**Juncture** involves slight pauses between words, longer pauses between phrases and clauses, and even longer pauses between sentences. Pauses and changes in speed allow the reader to access the language structure units, such as clauses and phrases, which support the meaning of the passage or book. Many of these junctures (pauses) are indicated by punctuation: commas, periods, question marks, and exclamation marks. The location of punctuation contributes directly to the meaning of a text. Consider the following two examples and the meaning each has, based upon the position of the junctures.

When my sister, called Mary Ann, answered...

When my sister called Mary, Ann answered.

Although commas or semicolons may set off some phrases or clauses, and quotation marks separate and identify direct speech, readers are also expected to segment sentences into syntactic units without these markers.

**Pitch** is associated with raising or lowering the tone of voice and provides clues to the type of sentence being read. In English, most sentences begin with a rise in intonation on the first syllable, then a gradual decline in pitch throughout the sentence with a distinct drop on the last syllable. Interrogative sentences (questions) end with a rising pitch. Within the sentence, a fall-rise pattern is used at phrase boundaries.

**Stress** involves giving relative force or prominence to a syllable or word. Stressing a syllable can indicate a word’s part of speech and sometimes its meaning. For example, Figure 1 demonstrates how a sentence can have five different meanings, based upon which word is stressed.

Occasionally stress is cued by italics, bold type, or the use of all capital letters within the text itself. Most often the reader needs to interpret where the stress belongs based on the meaning of the previously read story, paragraphs, or sentences.

Imlach and Clay (1982) found prosodic distinctions between good and poor readers. In a study of 103 New Zealand children in their third year of school (equivalent to second grade in the United States), they found distinctions between the high, high-middle, low-middle, and low groups as they focused their observations on juncture, pitch, and stress. The high group readers read on average 7.4 words between each juncture (pause), compared to 3.0 words for the high-middle group, 2.1 for the low-middle group, and 1.3 for the low group. Frequency of stress followed a similar trend. High group readers stressed one word in every 4.7, while the lowest 50% of the readers were stressing every word, sometimes with more than one stress per word. High-middle, low-middle, and low group readers used rising pitch inappropriately within sentences and phrases. This study is useful because it demonstrates distinctions between readers of different abilities relative to prosodic features of speech.

Appropriate phrasing (juncture, pitch, and stress) provides access for using language structure and meaning in order to predict a response (Clay, 1993). In *Building a Knowledge Base in Reading*, Braunger and Lewis (1998) state that “successful readers are fluent readers. That is, they are able to rapidly and smoothly process text in what appears to be an effortless construction of meaning” (p. 48). The construction of meaning assists

**Figure 1.**

**Stress can indicate a word’s part of speech and its intended meaning by the speaker. By stressing specific words, five different meanings of the same sentence are illustrated below.**

- She* wore the red dress to school.
- She *wore* the red dress to school.
- She wore the *red* dress to school.
- She wore the red *dress* to school.
- She wore the red dress to *school*.



Connie Briggs and teacher leader Ann Meixner examine teaching records that document children's progress including the development of phrased reading.

emergent readers in developing a network of competencies which allows them to learn more about words, language, and texts and, therefore, facilitates the reading of more challenging texts. When integrating the meaning, language structure, and visual information in the text, readers are able to efficiently monitor their own reading and learn from confirming or rejecting their individual responses.

Efficient processing contributes to the reader's overall comprehension of the text. Braunger and Lewis discuss fluency as more than just automaticity and include Clay's definition, "Fluency is a complex interrelationship of processes that allows the reader to flexibly, rapidly, and often without conscious attention access information while also focusing on gaining meaning from the text" (p. 49). Hence, becoming a fluent reader has as much to do with constructing meaning as it has to do with attending to words on a page (Pinnell et al., 1995).

In summary, fluent reading occurs when a reader is reading with appropriate pauses for breaks between language units and is using appropriate pitch and stress to convey and receive the author's intended message. To accomplish fluent reading, the reader is using all sources of information in an integrated, flexible manner to comprehend text.

### **Contributors to Fluent Reading**

Many sources of information contribute to phrased and fluent reading. Readers must be able to access these sources of information in some integrated way in order to make sense of text. As a reading system is built, the integrated use of sources of information contributes to reading which sounds phrased and fluent (Rumelhart, 1994). When reading is phrased and fluent, it contributes to the development of a self-extending reading system by providing a mechanism for monitoring, cross-checking vari-

ous sources of information, and directing attention to meaning. In order to understand the contribution each source of information plays in developing phrased and fluent reading, we will consider each source separately. However, we emphasize that it is the integration of these sources which builds an efficient processing system for reading.

### **Language Structure**

Language is rule-governed. Even the imperfect, developing language structures of young children are rule-governed. Children are able to use their personal oral language skillfully when they come to school; it is the strongest source of information available to them when they begin reading (Clay, 2001). This knowledge of language structure expands as they become more aware of book language and the more sophisticated language patterns found in a variety of texts.

Phrased and fluent reading is supported by the child's knowledge of how oral language is structured. All language is redundant and predictable and readers use this knowledge to anticipate word order. For example, in the English sentence, "I have a \_\_\_\_\_," we know that the word to be filled in is probably a noun and it might be preceded by an adjective. We know that the word *a* signals a singular noun. Control over English language structure facilitates fluent reading in English because it aids the reader in predicting, anticipating, and hypothesizing what words and phrases might come next in a sentence.

### **Prior Knowledge**

Prior knowledge is the corpus of knowledge stored in a person's memory about concepts, events, emotions, and roles experienced either directly



Salli Forbes leads a discussion of a Reading Recovery lesson. A one-way mirror enables Reading Recovery teachers to observe, discuss, and reflect on the lesson they are observing.

through real life experiences or vicariously through indirect experiences such as reading books, viewing movies, and so forth. When children begin reading they bring with them their collective sets of knowledge to help construct meaning from text. Young readers may be helped when they read by the fact that they have actually experienced a soccer game or picnic firsthand before reading about it in a book. They may relate to particular story structures because they have either heard stories read that have similar structures or have read those stories themselves. For example, a reader might anticipate what a particular character in a story might do next, based on either that same character's previous actions or on similarity to another character in a previously read book. Prior knowledge, including oral language structures and experiential concepts, helps readers predict, hypothesize, and anticipate, thus providing a feed-forward mechanism for constructing meaning (Clay, 1991). Through anticipation and prediction, prior knowledge

contributes to fluent processing and phrased reading.

### **Word Identification**

Fluency is supported by having a large number of easily recognized words. This reading vocabulary of high-frequency words provides visual information which can be integrated with meaning and structural information, reinforcing the processing system. Fast visual recognition of many high-frequency words helps move the reading along, serving as footholds for young readers so that attention is freed up to problem-solve on words that are not known. Children learn to recognize a core of basic sight words that become part of their reading and writing vocabularies and expand as part of the child's literacy development. Quick word recognition contributes to, but is not sufficient to ensure, fluent reading.

### **Graphophonics**

Graphophonics is the relationship between the oral sounds of language and the written form. A young reader must gain an extensive awareness of

sound-symbol relationships at many different levels, including linking individual and chunks of sound with single letters and letter clusters. In order for these links to assist in the processing, a child must be able to analyze words by directing attention serially, across a sequence of words and letters, and by flexibly shifting attention hierarchically, from meaning to language structure to visual information (whole word, clusters of letters, or a single letter) and back to meaning. Readers need to be able to recognize visual information quickly for the graphophonic system to support effective processing.

### **Putting It All Together**

For a reader to be fluent, all the sources of information must come together in some integrated, flexible, balanced way. Clay (2001) stresses the importance of young readers remaining "infinitely flexible and temporarily tentative" as they are developing a proficient processing system (p. 103). Phrased and fluent reading is realized when readers are integrating all sources of information to efficiently process text. This processing is supported and developed by using easy text with the emergent reader. As the integrative processes become more automatic and efficient, the developing reader can begin to use those processes to read increasingly difficult texts. The goal is for the reader to quickly and efficiently integrate all sources of information needed to solve a particular problem or confirm a particular response. How the reader assembles the processing system to accomplish this solution or confirmation will vary from one situation to the next, with the reader assembling the most efficient system for each particular situation.

To reiterate, fluent, phrased reading both contributes to effective processing and indicates that effective processing is occurring. When children's reading is phrased and fluent, meaning and structural information are available to be integrated with visual information. At the same time, text read in a phrased and fluent manner is an indication that all sources of information are being used in a balanced, efficient way for the purpose of gaining meaning. When we teach for phrased and fluent reading, we are calling a child to draw from all sources of information to acquire meaning from text.

### Changes in Phrased and Fluent Reading

As readers progress toward becoming phrased and fluent, changes in behaviors can be observed along the way. While it is useful for teachers to be aware of these changes in behaviors, they should in no way think of this progress in terms of stages; they must keep in mind that teaching decisions are based on the observation of individuals. The following observations are based on general principles.

Beginning readers rely on their natural oral language structures to read, and early attempts often sound more like natural talking than book language. We might call this fluent reading if we were just listening and not closely observing the child and the text to realize that the talk does not always match the text, and the child is not attempting to create a match (Clay, 1991).

A sign of progress is when the reading becomes slow and deliberate, no longer sounding fluent. At this point the reader is attempting to integrate several of the early behaviors, such as

directionality and one-to-one correspondence. It is important to encourage readers to point to each word as they are developing the integration of these early behaviors.

Soon the reader will control word-by-word reading. This indicates that the reader is coordinating the language, visual and motor components of reading continuous text, one word at a time. Clay (1991) states that "once he [the child] has established accurate locating responses with his eyes alone there is reason to discard the finger pointing and to step up the demand for fluency" (p. 167). The teacher's attention needs to turn to the prosodic features of reading: juncture, pitch and stress. "Before long the teacher can begin to require the child to read groups of words together, using phrasing that is natural in normal speech, and the intonation of normal conversation" (Clay, 1993, p. 21).

Allowing the child to persist in pointing to each word, once directional movement and locating responses are established, can interfere with fluent reading (Clay, 1993).

The more readers become consciously locked into word-by-word reading, the less able they are to make sense of what they read, and, in turn, the less able they are to use the flow of language and meaning to help them read quickly and accurately (Zutell & Rasinski, 1991, p. 211).

Although holding children accountable for "reading with your eyes only" is important during this transition period, promoting flexibility is also important. Fluency varies with different types and difficulty levels of text. A sign of a flexible reader is when

both speed and support are adjusted to suit the demands of the text.

### The Sound of Phrased, Fluent Reading

The most challenging aspect of teaching for phrasing in fluent reading is determining if the Reading Recovery student is reading in a phrased and fluent manner. While this seems simple, it requires an awareness of how this child should sound—how efficient processing sounds. While the child's internal processing system is in development, phrasing and fluency are developing also. It is difficult to know if the child is progressing appropriately. For teachers who do not work with average- and high-achieving first graders, an additional challenge is recalling how they sound when their reading is fluent and phrased.

Teachers must learn to listen for fluent reading. One of the best ways to do this is to listen to average- and high-performing students read. The teacher might even tape-record the readings to use as exemplars or as a reminder of how fluent reading sounds. Does the reading sound like talking? If so, the reader is using appropriate juncture (pauses), pitch, and stress.

Teachers may become so familiar with the sound of a child's reading that objective assessment of that child's fluency is difficult. When this happens, the teacher might ask a colleague or teacher leader to observe part or all of a lesson and help the teacher to determine if the child is fluent and phrased.

Since taking a running record does not indicate if the reading is phrased and fluent, teachers need to note how the reader sounded immediately after

the running record, while it is still easy to remember. The notations should be short but explicit. Note if the child paused appropriately, used punctuation, read in phrases, and used pitch and stress consistent with the message of the text. Make notes at the end of the record. The sound of the child's reading will change over time and these notations will document the child's progress. The prosodic features of the child's reading will vary from one book to another, depending on the language, layout, and meaning of the text.

### Text Considerations

Text selection can play a major role when teaching for phrased and fluent reading. Selecting texts with structures and language that promote fluent reading is important, as is selecting the right level of texts to be read.

When working with emergent readers, texts that have natural language patterns are superior to decodable texts that have been written by a formula to keep the readability levels low. Texts written in the manner of how children talk provide opportunities for children to read stretches of text that allow for the practice and maintenance of fluency. Texts with predictable text patterns, rhyming patterns, repeated refrains, or cumulative patterns are supportive when teaching a child about phrasing and fluency. Teachers should be aware that these types of books may hinder the integration of visual processing with other systems if relied on for too long. Once readers show progress on these texts, it is important to introduce other language patterns, as well as give them opportunities to learn to read in a phrased, fluent, flexible manner on all types of texts.

Text reading level is also important in selecting appropriate texts that promote phrasing and fluency. Easy texts that children can read at an independent level (95–100% accuracy), provide practice with the orchestration of all the complex range of behaviors necessary to become a good reader. Children need many, many opportunities to practice reading at their independent level (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Herman, 1985; Samuels, 1985). When children can read at an independent level, it frees them to practice the elements of phrasing and fluency rather than decoding and problem solving. Young readers need opportunities to read a balance of easy texts and texts at instructional level (90–95% accuracy) within each lesson. At no time should emerging readers be asked to read at their frustration level (89% or below accuracy).

### Teaching for Phrased and Fluent Reading: When and How?

We expect children to be able to read for meaning from the beginning of instruction. "Learning how to hold on to a message being processed while searching for information at another level (in words and letters) can be done effectively by young children on stories" (Clay, 1991, p. 262). We also teach for phrased and fluent reading to aid in this search for meaning early in the series of lessons. As soon as correct directional movement and locating responses are firmly established, we should begin to teach for reading in phrases.

In Reading Recovery it is an overriding principle that *as soon as control is firmly established the teacher should begin to call*

*for the flexible use of that control...* It is very easy for children to habituate a slow, staccato, word-by-word habit of reading which is very hard to break. Avoid this (Clay, 1993, p. 52).

Another rationale for attention to phrasing in fluent reading early in the child's reading development is based upon the understanding that fluency supports the orchestration that aids in the development of a self-extending system (Briggs & Forbes, 2001; Clay, 2001).

Reading Recovery lessons provide daily opportunities to achieve twin aims during book reading.

One is to allow the child scope for practicing the orchestration of all the complex range of behaviors he must use (and this is best achieved on familiar texts). The other is to encourage him to use his reading strategies on novel texts and to support his tentative efforts (Clay, 1993, p. 36).

The familiar reading component of the lesson provides a daily opportunity for children to engage in practicing the orchestration of all sources of information in a phrased and fluent manner. It is incumbent upon teachers to provide consistent teaching for phrased and fluent reading and to consistently expect children to read in a phrased and fluent way on familiar text. We look for evidence that the child's reading is gradually becoming more phrased and fluent on the first and second readings of a new book as well.

Clay (1993, pp. 51–52) cautions teachers that there are four ways they might contribute to slow reading in their teaching. In the section below,

these warnings are restated as positive suggestions for teaching. In order to promote fluent reading, teachers should

1. Call for children to flexibly vary reading speed to meet the challenges of the text as soon as early behaviors are firmly established.
2. Direct the reader's attention to meaning and structure in continuous text. Letter and word work should support the reading of continuous text.
3. Give the child many opportunities to read stretches of continuous text. Limit teaching interruptions and choose carefully the "clearest, easiest, most memorable" examples when those interruptions are necessary (Clay, 1993, p. 8). Try to teach in ways that do not interrupt meaning; teach at the end of a page or after the book is read.
4. Avoid asking how the reader problem-solved at point of difficulty. Encourage the child to attend to sources of information when problem-solving instead of verbalizing the processes for solving. The child's awareness of the successful solution through confirmation using a combination of sources of information provides a powerful reinforcement of successful processing. When the child verbalizes the process, attention is directed to the language of the explanation and away from the information needed in the solving or confirming process.

Section 12 in *Reading Recovery: A Guidebook for Teachers in Training* (Clay, 1993, pp. 51–53) provides guidance in how to teach for phrasing in fluent reading. However, before using any of the procedures, the teacher needs to "check that oral language, meaning, visual information and text difficulty are all contributing to successful reading" (p. 51).

If the conditions we have discussed are met and the child is still having trouble with fluency, the teacher must take a closer look. Is the visual perception of letters, letter clusters, parts of words, and words automatic, slow, or inconsistent? If visual recognition is slow, the teacher will need to use procedures from Learning to Look at Print (Section 4) to reinforce the child's speed and flexibility with what is known. Continue to work for fast recognition of letters after taking the running record in the lesson each day.

This is a short segment of a lesson in which children learn to identify all the letter forms but the letters must be overlearned because as well as identifying the letters children need to learn fast and accurate visual responses which require only minimal attention (Clay, 1993, p. 24).

Does the child know how to use visual information efficiently, integrating with other sources of information? The teacher may need to analyze, understand, and support how the child takes words apart in continuous text at difficulty. The teacher will want to use procedures from the sections Linking Sound Sequence to Letter Sequence (Section 10) and Taking Words Apart in Reading (Section 11), which help the child to analyze new words more effectively and efficiently.

Does the child have difficulty orchestrating strategies to monitor and problem-solve while reading continuous text? Does the child have difficulty integrating different sources of information to construct the meaning of the text? If this is the issue, the teacher will need to analyze what the child is doing strategically, what

---

**We expect children to be able to read for meaning from the beginning of instruction.**

---

needs to be reinforced, and what needs to be taught. Reading Books and Teaching for Strategies (Sections 8 and 9) give suggestions for procedures that the teacher can use to support the child's developing working system or system of strategies. It may be appropriate to drop the level of text difficulty for a while until processing is working effectively (Clay, 1993). This decision needs to be considered carefully. The teacher will want to consider the challenges in the book that could support or interfere with phrased and fluent reading: layout, language structures, familiarity of topics, story structure, and so forth. Also, the teacher needs to carefully consider the support given to the child through the book introduction and the teaching on the first reading and after the second reading. Most importantly, the teacher needs to consider how phrasing and fluent reading were taught in the Reading Recovery lesson.

Reading Recovery teachers may select from several suggestions in Teaching for Phrasing in Fluent

The teacher's rereading of a familiar book for the child is a powerful way to communicate how fluent reading sounds and how the child should sound when reading.

Reading (Clay, 1993, pp. 51–53). For all children the teacher can appeal to the child's oral language experience with specific prompts, "Can you read this quickly?" or "Put them all together so that it sounds like talking" (p. 52). Direct speech provides opportunities for making the reading sound like talking.

Sometimes children need demonstrations of the text being read. Demonstrations include using a masking

card to reveal a phrase of two or three words, asking the child to "Read it all." This procedure provides the child with both the language structure and visual support. A card can also be used to discourage finger pointing or voice pointing by sliding it underneath each line, or it can be used to force the child to process more quickly. Another option is to call attention to the purpose of punctuation, so that the child's pauses fit the intended meaning appropriately. After the child has assembled the cut-up sentence, the teacher can give the child an action demonstration of phrasing through rearranging the sentence into phrases (Clay, 1993).

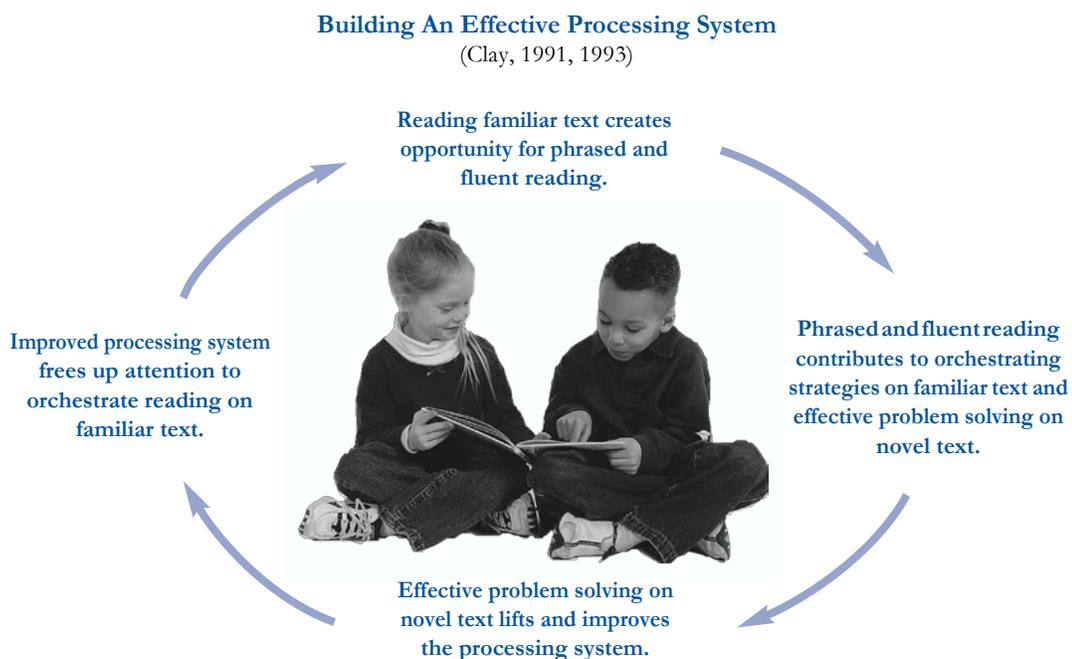
The teacher's rereading of a familiar book for the child is a powerful way to communicate how fluent reading sounds and how the child should sound when reading. This is most effective when the teacher reads the

entire story, so that the child can hear how one part flows into the next. This should be followed by rereading the story with the child to help the child produce the phrased reading. The teacher can also use this approach with a repetitive sentence or phrase from a particular book. The ultimate goal of specific teaching approaches for phrasing in fluent reading is to have the child listen to how the reading sounds and judge if it is phrased and fluent.

### Conclusion

Many factors are involved in building an effective processing system. Figure 2 illustrates that phrased and fluent reading both contributes to the process and to the product of effective processing. Phrasing in fluent reading supports more effective problem solving on novel text, which in turn promotes reading those same

Figure 2. Phrasing in fluent reading as it contributes to the development of the reading process and as a product of efficient processing.



texts as familiar texts with increased fluency and phrasing. Phrasing in fluent reading plays a significant role as part of the process and should be addressed early in a child's reading development. Teachers should consistently monitor how reading sounds as an indication of the integration of all sources of information and the functioning of all processing systems. Phrasing and fluency should be attended to continually during instruction as readers approach texts

with increasing challenge and language complexity.

This article has presented a discussion of many factors that contribute to or interfere with fluent reading. All of these factors need to be considered for a teacher to effectively support the child's efforts to read fluently. Clay (1993) asserts

Fluent reading will arise from teacher attention to the role of oral language, and thinking

and meaning, and increasing experience with the visual information in print, and practice in orchestrating complex processing on just-difficult-enough texts. It is a matter of successful experience over a period of time moving up a gradient of difficulty of texts which can support fluent and successful reading (p. 53).

## References

- Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson, I. A. G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading*. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education.
- Braunger, J., & Lewis, J. (1998). *Building a knowledge base in reading*. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Education Laboratory.
- Briggs, C., & Forbes, R. (2001). The role of phrasing and fluency in emergent reading. *Kansas Journal of Reading*, 17, 12–19.
- Clay, M. M. (1991). *Becoming literate: The construction of inner control*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Clay, M. M. (1993). *Reading Recovery: A guidebook for teachers in training*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Clay, M. M. (2001). *Change over time in children's literacy development*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Dowhower, S. L. (1991). Speaking of prosody: Fluency's unattended bedfellow. *Theory Into Practice*, 30, 165–175.
- Herman, P.A. (1985). The effect of repeated readings on reading rate, speech pauses and word recognition accuracy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20, 553–565.
- Holmes, J., & Singer, H. (1961). *The substrata-factor theory: Substrata-factor differences underlying reading ability in known groups*. (Final Report No. 538, SAE 8176). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education.
- Imlach, R. H., & Clay, M. M. (1982). Juncture, pitch and stress as reading behavior variables. In M. M. Clay (Ed.), *Observing young readers: Selected papers*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- LaBerge, D., & Samuels, S. J. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. *Cognitive Psychology*, 6, 293–323.
- National Reading Panel. (2000, April). *Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. (NIH Pub. No. 000-4769). Washington, D.C.: National Institutes of Health.
- Partnership for Reading. (2001, September). *Put reading first. The research blocks for teaching children to read*. Jessup, MD: National Institute for Literacy.
- Pinnell, G. S., Pikulski, J. J., Wixson, K. S., Campbell, J. R., Gough, P.B., & Beatty, A. S. (1995). *Listening to children read aloud: Data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress's Integrated Reading Performance Record at Grade 4*. Prepared by Educational Testing Service for the Office of Educational Research and Improvement. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- Rumelhart, D. E. (1994). Toward an interactive model of reading. In R. B. Ruddell, M. R. Ruddell, & H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and practices of reading* (4th ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Samuels, S. J. (1985). Automaticity and repeated reading. In J. Osborn, P. T. Wilson, & R. C. Anderson (Eds.), *Reading education: Foundations for a literate America*. (pp. 215–230). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Snow, C., Burns, S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.). (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Tompkins, G. E. (2001). *Literacy for the 21st century: A balanced approach* (2nd ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Zutell, J., & Rasinski, T. V. (1991). Training teachers to attend to their students' oral reading fluency. *Theory Into Practice*, 30, 211–217.