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Role of classroom questioning strategies as they relate to reading comprehension

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Role of classroom questioning strategies as they relate to reading comprehension

Abstract

Instruction using comprehension strategies is important as students begin to construct meaning from text through a transactional process. This instruction can help prepare students to become better readers, as well as provide benefits for teachers and school-wide instruction. Questioning is important to comprehension for a variety of reasons and is used across all grade levels and throughout curricular areas.

Through the teaching of questioning, students are able to build backgrounds which they can utilize during their taking of high-stakes assessments, as well as school or district assessments. Questioning strategies, such as Question Answer Relationships, Questioning the Author, and Reciprocal Teaching, provide students with these opportunities to understand text, as well as apply higher level thinking skills.

ROLE OF CLASSROOM QUESTIONING STRATEGIES
AS THEY RELATE TO READING COMPREHENSION

A Graduate Review

Submitted to the

Division of Elementary Education

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by

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Abstract

Instruction using comprehension strategies is important as students begin to construct meaning from text through a transactional process. This instruction can help prepare students to become better readers, as well as provide benefits for teachers and school-wide instruction. Questioning is important to comprehension for a variety of reasons and is used across all grade levels and throughout curricular areas. Through the teaching of questioning, students are able to build backgrounds which they can utilize during their taking of high-stakes assessments, as well as school or district assessments. Questioning strategies, such as Question Answer Relationships, Questioning the Author, and Reciprocal Teaching, provide students with these opportunities to understand text, as well as apply higher level thinking skills.

Introduction

After starting her students on their daily reading work, a teacher makes her way to the guided reading table where she briefly catches her breath and then calls her first group. This guided reading group is composed of average students who are reading a book about natural disasters. When asked to spend some time thinking about natural disasters, the students focus in on items they are most familiar with - tornadoes and storms. However, when the time comes for the teacher to delve deeper into the students' knowledge, she realizes that their responses become very shallow and one-dimensional. Confused by this, the teacher tries again to question her students by asking what they would do if they were in a natural disaster, such as a tornado or even a drought. The students respond again in a similar manner, with their "I don't know" responses. Frustrated by this, the teacher regresses to asking the students lower-level questions that only require the students to recall specific information from their reading. This provides the students with a great amount of success. Finally, ending her lesson on a positive note, with the successful recall of information, the teacher dismisses her group and takes a minute to reflect on what has just occurred. She is curious why these students were unable to answer questions that required them to delve deeper into their thinking and begin to make some connections.

This example occurs quite frequently throughout classrooms across the United States. In their book, *QAR Now*, Taffy Raphael, Kathy Highfield, and Kathryn H. Au (2006), share a similar story from a classroom:

While reading aloud *Sarah Plain and Tall* by Patricia MacLachlan to her third grade students, Kathy asked questions such as: "What kinds of animals do you think Sarah's going to find when she gets to the farm?" "Do you think Sarah is going to stay? Why or why not?" "How would you feel if you were Sarah?" Many of Kathy's students

shrugged when she asked these questions. Some responded by saying, “I don’t know. Keep reading and we’ll find out.” (p. 13)

I, too, have faced these challenges and have frequently wondered why this happens, as well as what more I can do to help my students become better readers and thinkers when they are attempting to comprehend information. “For many of these students, this poor and passive performance during classroom discussions stems from a lack of understanding about sources of information for answering and asking questions” (Raphael, Highfield, & Au, 2006, pp. 13-14). However, in order to comprehend this information, students must be able to “construct meaning from text” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p.5) as they work to understand the text through a variety of strategies, such as questioning or retrieving information and building upon it in their reading. Comprehension allows students to have an opportunity to interact with the text and their background in order to create new experiences and meanings based upon the information that he or she has read.

“Comprehension is an intricate issue, requiring the simultaneous operation of complex strategies. These are not isolated processes but occur in a network where one person influences and is influenced by the others” (Diehl, 2005, p. 58). One such way that classroom teachers can work to construct these meanings and build these various networks is through the use of questioning in the classroom. As we know, “reading is a highly metacognitive activity where the reader not only thinks about the material being read but also monitors that thinking” (Diehl, 2005, p. 58), and students need to interact, think and monitor their thinking through strategies, such as questioning, when they are working with a variety of text.

Description of Topic

Much like the teacher in the previous example, teachers continuously reflect upon ways that they can help their students interact with and understand the text that they are reading. There is a wide-array of definitions about comprehension. Dolores Durkin defines comprehension as “intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader” (as cited in Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 5). Harris and Hodges, in 1995, in the *Literacy Dictionary*, define comprehension as an exchange of ideas between reader and text, while constructing meaning from that specific text (as cited in Lehr & Osborn, 2005). However, this construction of meaning, “resides in the deliberate thinking processes readers engage in as they read” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 5), and these thinking processes are further enhanced through a strategy, such as questioning, which allows the reader to delve deeper into their thinking and create meaning which he or she understands.

The National Reading Panel of the year, 2000, reminds us that “the meaning they *get* from their reading is influenced both by their relevant prior knowledge and experiences and by the kind of text they are reading and its content” (as cited in Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 5). Based on this, we can look more closely at questioning, and the role questioning has in regard to increasing student-reading comprehension. How does questioning impact student comprehension?

Rationale

The rationale behind this literature review is to look more closely at questioning and the relationship it has to student comprehension. Comprehension increases as students work to decode words, increase reading fluency, and understand the text that they are reading. In order to be a good reader, students must be able to “bring to each reading activity a great deal of

general world knowledge” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 8). Once students are able to activate that knowledge, they are then able to make connections with the text they read. Questioning can then occur “as a natural part of the classroom routine,” and questions can be “generated by the reader, a peer, the teacher, or curriculum developed” (Questioning, 2007).

Questioning, in the classroom setting, allows students to begin to make connections to the text, to themselves, as well as to the world around them. These opportunities allow students to engage in a deeper and more meaningful comprehension process, as they are able to engage in questions across the various levels of thinking.

Purpose

The purpose of this literature review is to increase individual teachers’ knowledge base by researching effective questioning strategies that can be used in the classroom. From this research, the reader will be provided with a basis for using questions when working with students as they comprehend various texts. This literature review will investigate the history of questioning in the classrooms, questioning formats used as part of classroom discourse, and questioning strategies that can be easily implemented in the classroom settings. The questioning strategies that will be discussed in this literature review will include Question Answer Relationship (QAR), Questioning the Author (QtA), and Reciprocal Teaching. From the research supporting those strategies, teachers will be able to understand more deeply the importance of questioning in classrooms, as well as be provided with background which they can further investigate for individual classroom use.

Importance of the Review

The topic of comprehension, specifically the relationship of questioning to comprehension, is important for a variety of reasons. Since our schools are held accountable to

high-stakes assessments as a result of No Child Left Behind, as well as the various reports that are coming out in light of the research that is being done on comprehension, this literature review allows for further information to be articulated about questioning strategies. Implementing these questioning strategies in the classroom can help to increase reading comprehension for a variety of learners.

According to the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), from The U.S. Department of Education website (2005), “Every student should make substantial academic progress every year in every class.” No Child Left Behind requires schools to have students performing above the 40th percentile in reading comprehension based on high-stakes assessments, such as the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. The reading comprehension component of this test requires students to answer questions across a variety of cognitive levels. These questions simply ask students to recall information from the passage, or go deeper, and relate what they have read to their background knowledge.

The research for this review guides us to understand comprehension and delve deeper into strategies because comprehension is “the essence of reading and the ultimate goal of successful literacy” (Block & Pressley, 2007, p. 220). These forces make comprehension a high-priority in our classrooms throughout the United States. Focusing on questioning strategies can help us identify and utilize the strategies that are more effective in the classroom, which students can then apply to their reading across various settings.

Terminology

There are a variety of terms that will be used throughout this literature review, so it is important to define them:

- a. Cognition – The term, cognition, deals with thinking about learning. Cognition means “mental functions such as remembering, focusing attention, and processing information” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 9).
- b. Metacognition – Metacognition refers to the “readers’ awareness of their cognition; that is, their thinking about their thinking” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 9).
- c. Comprehension strategies – Comprehension strategies, as defined by the National Reading Panel of 2000, are the “specific cognitive procedures that guide readers to become aware of how well they are comprehending as they attempt to read and write” (as cited in Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p.5).
- d. Taxonomies – Taxonomies are “human constructs used to classify questions based on the intellectual, behavior or mental activity needed to formulate an answer” (Vogler, 2005, p. 98). These are similar to a continuum which can be used for categorizing the various levels of questions.
- e. Questioning – Questioning is a “strategy that helps readers make meaning out of text by promoting critical thinking about what is being read” (Questioning, 2007).
- f. Question Answer Relationships (QAR) – Question Answer Relationship is a strategy used in classrooms, which require students to think and talk about questions used in understanding text.
- g. Questioning the Author (QtA) – Questioning the Author is another strategy that can be used in classrooms. QtA asks students to think about what the author means when comprehending various texts.

Research Questions

Throughout this literature review, I hope to answer the following questions:

- a. What role does questioning play concerning reading comprehension?
- b. How does questioning increase or enhance reading comprehension?
- c. What methods or strategies are available to assist classroom instruction in questioning?
- d. What questioning strategies are most effective in classrooms?
- e. Are questioning strategies able to be implemented across the grade levels, in elementary, middle school, and high school?

Methodology

Since comprehension is such a topic of high priority in the educational field, especially in relation to the high-stakes assessments and accountability on part of the schools, I first began this literature review thinking that I was going to look at all aspects of comprehension. Realizing that this was a broad topic, I then narrowed my topic to questioning strategies that can be used in the classroom to enhance comprehension. By doing this, I was able to focus my research and choose a topic which I was passionate about in my own classroom.

Using the key words of *comprehension strategies*, *classroom instruction*, and *questioning*, I logged on to the Rod Library Distance Learner site to investigate whether there was information available. Finding many articles, as well as books, I drove to the Busse Library at Mount Mercy College, where I could access some of the same information. Using EBSCO and ERIC, I was able to search the Education database, as well as the Psychology database, to find research that was applicable to questioning. Upon finding key articles, I spent some time looking closely at the names of researchers whose research was going to be vital to my review.

With this in mind, I was able to find research from Taffy Raphael, Michael Pressley, P. David Pearson, and Cathy Collins Block. Their work provided a strong basis for my research.

After locating this information, I interviewed Christine Rauscher (personal communication, June 25, 2007), the Cedar Rapids Community School District's Associate Superintendent of Learning, and discussed with her the idea of questioning in relation to comprehension strategies. She discussed this topic with me, as well as provided me with a few resources, such as a booklet containing *Research-Based Practices in Early Reading: A Focus on Comprehension* by Fran Lehr and Jean Osborn (2005). This interview reminded me that there is some history related to comprehension, but specifically related to questioning, and that I needed to look for more information regarding the history. From there, she suggested looking for research from Dolores Durkin, as well as the researchers that I already had. This interview provided me with a focus to continue and further my research, and a sounding board from a knowledgeable individual.

Finally, after reading many research articles and books, I identified three questioning strategies that can be implemented in the classroom – Question Answer Relationships (QAR), Questioning the Author (QtA), and Reciprocal Teaching. These three specific strategies also allowed me to see the effects they each had on the classroom, and provided ideas for long- and short-term effects of questioning strategies in the classroom, such as promoting classroom discussions, using graphic organizers, and implementing the strategy of think-aloud.

After locating the three specific questioning strategies, I was able to determine the format in which this literature review would be written. I realized that it was important to provide a brief background on the various comprehension strategies, the history of questioning strategies, and the cognitive and affective taxonomies of questioning. From there I would discuss the

importance of each of the effective questioning strategies, as well as my own recommendations and effects of questioning in the classroom. This literature review encompasses information from this research.

Literature Review

“Comprehension instruction is a time-consuming process that is addressed effectively through deliberate and focused techniques” (Diehl, 2005, p. 58). These techniques range the gamut from recall, to inference, to questioning. By “focusing on questioning as a comprehension strategy” (p.68), Sheena Hervey (2006) reminds us, “is one way we can help our students become critical and strategic readers” (p. 68). We know a great deal, through researchers such as Nell K. Duke and P. David Pearson (2002), about what good readers do to become critical and strategic readers:

- a. Good readers are *active* readers.
- b. From the outset, they have clear *goals* in mind for their reading. They constantly *evaluate* whether the text, and their reading of it, is meeting their goals.
- c. Good readers typically *look over* the text before they read, noting such things as the *structure* of the text and text sections that might be most relevant to their reading goals.
- d. As they read, good readers frequently *make predictions* about what is to come.
- e. They read *selectively*, continually making decisions about their reading – what to read carefully, what to read quickly, what not to read, what to reread, and so on.
- f. Good readers *construct, revise, and question* the meanings they make as they read.
- g. Good readers try to determine the meaning of *unfamiliar words and concepts* in the text, and they deal with inconsistencies or gaps as needed.

- h. They draw from, compare, and *integrate their prior knowledge* with material in the text.
- i. They think about the *authors* of the text, their style, beliefs, intentions, historical milieu, and so on.
- j. They *monitor their understanding* of the text, making adjustments in their reading as necessary.
- k. They *evaluate the text's quality and value*, and react to the text in a range of ways, both intellectually and emotionally.
- l. For good readers, text processing occurs not only during “reading” as we have traditionally defined it, but also during short breaks taken during reading, even after the “reading” itself has commenced, even after the “reading: has ceased.
- m. Comprehension is a consuming, continuous, and complex activity, but one that, for good readers, is both *satisfying and productive* (Duke & Pearson, 2002, pp.205-206).

With this in mind, we look more closely at reading as thinking. “Metacognition provides the foundation for the specific comprehension strategies that take root” (Diehl, 2005, p.59). Duke and Pearson (2002) remind us that, “Good comprehension instruction includes both explicit instruction in specific comprehension strategies and a great deal of time and opportunity for actual reading, writing, and discussion of text” (p. 207).

Overview of Comprehension Strategies Used in Classroom Settings

Stephanie Harvey and Anne Goudvis (2000) promote the use of seven main comprehension strategies that can be used as a catalyst for teachers when discussing literature with students. Those seven main comprehension strategies “that active thoughtful readers use when constructing meaning from text” (Lloyd, 2004, p. 114) include the following strategies:

- a. Making connections between prior knowledge and the text.
- b. Asking questions.
- c. Visualizing.
- d. Drawing inferences.
- e. Determining important ideas.
- f. Synthesizing information.
- g. Repairing understanding (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, pp. 10-12).

Through these strategies, readers will have a better understanding of how and when to use them when reading. The National Reading Panel, in 2000, reviewed many studies regarding comprehension, and identified seven strategies, including questioning, as having a “firm scientific basis ‘for concluding that they improve comprehension in normal readers’” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 17). I will discuss each of these strategies more closely as I address the use of questioning in the development of comprehension.

Making connections between prior knowledge and the text. Readers, as Harvey and Goudvis (2000) share, “pay more attention when they relate to the text” (p. 10). These connections allow the reader to begin to construct more meaning through their prior knowledge and experiences. Students “comprehend better when they think about the connections they make between the text, their lives, and the larger world” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 10). These connections allow students to delve deeper into their reading, as well as discussions or writing that occurs as well.

Asking questions. “Questioning lies at the heart of comprehension because it is the process of questioning, seeking answers and asking further questions that keeps the reading going” (Hervey, 2006, p. 68). Questioning allows the reader to dig deeper in personal

experiences, as well as the text, because they are constantly engaged. Harvey and Goudvis (2000) remind us, “when readers ask questions, they clarify understanding and forge ahead to make meaning” (p. 11). That construction of meaning provides the reader with a transactional experience with the text and himself or herself.

Visualizing. This strategy allows the reader to become active as he or she “creates visual images in their minds” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 11). Visualizing occurs as the reader is reading, and the pictures that occur, as a result, “enhance their understanding” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p.11). Visualizing is much like a movie the reader creates in his or her mind, which only belongs to the reader, and allows the reading process to become a more personalized event.

Drawing inferences. A reader is able to draw inferences from the text due in part to their knowledge of the known information, clues from the text, as well as predictions made as to what is to come. With this in mind, Harvey and Goudvis (2000) remind that, “inferring occurs at the intersection of questioning, connecting, and print” (p.96). We infer in our mind, as well as through our thoughts and words. “Inferring is about reading faces, reading body language, reading expressions, and reading tone as well as reading text” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 105).

Determining important text. Strategic readers and thinkers “must differentiate between less important ideas and key ideas that are central to the meaning of the text” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 11). By sorting and sifting through the information, readers will be able to “make decisions about what information they need to remember and what information they can disregard” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 117). This is an active process for readers as they discern the information being read or presented.

Synthesizing information. Putting the puzzle pieces together is what synthesizing information is about as readers are “combining new information with existing knowledge to form an original idea or interpretation” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 11). This synthesis of information allows the reader to take smaller pieces of the puzzle, and put it together to create the big picture. At this point, the reader’s thoughts “become more complete as we add more information” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 143).

Repairing understanding. As the reader is constructing meaning through the text, some confusion may arise. This strategy allows the reader the need to “stop and clarify their understanding” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 12) through questioning, summarizing the information, or even drawing inferences. This strategy further exemplifies the idea that these strategies are not to be used by them self, but “good readers use multiple strategies constantly” (Duke & Pearson, 2002, p. 210).

History of Questioning Strategies in Education

As we look more closely at the role questioning plays in the classroom in relation to comprehension, it is important take time to investigate its roots in education. According to the National Reading Panel of 2001, “prior to the 1970s, comprehension was generally considered to be – and was taught as – a set of discrete skills for students to practice and master” (as cited in Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 15). Dolores Durkin conducted research in the 1970s, and from that research found the following:

The research revealed that in most elementary classrooms, typical instruction focused on specific skills thought to be important to comprehension and followed what she called a mentioning, practicing, and assessing procedure. That is, teachers mentioned a specific comprehension skill that students were to apply, such as identifying main ideas; had

students practice the skill by completing workbook pages; then assessed them to find out whether they could use the skill correctly (as cited in Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 15).

Because of this research, Durkin concluded that this type of instruction, “did little to help students learn how or when to use the skills, nor did it promote comprehension” (as cited in Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 15).

Research regarding comprehension strategies has begun to accumulate over time.

Research about questioning suggests that, “a variety of question types exists, each type with an implied set of processing demands and strategies” (Raphael & Wonnacott, 1985, p. 284). As Durkin discovered, “students spend lots of time answering questions, or listening to classmates’ answers” (as cited in Pearson, 1985, p. 726). Question-answering during and after reading, “generally requires more responses to text-based, literal questions than to knowledge-based inferential questions” (Raphael & Wonnacott, 1985, p.284).

Such as this is, researchers, such as Durkin in 1981, discovered that teacher’s manuals had “lots of space devoted to story questions, lots of literal-level questions in search of single-correct answers” (as cited in Pearson, 1985, p. 727). Those manuals also provided the teachers with the correct answers then to each of the questions. In those manuals, there is “a random barrage of questions that do not cohere with one another. They do not form a line of questions to lead children...so they can build their own coherent representation of its meaning” (Pearson, 1985, p. 727).

In the early 1980s, Isabel Beck suggests, “prior to question generation, teachers need to develop and outline of the important ideas in the story” (as cited in Pearson, 1985, p. 727). This outline became known as the story map, which allows teachers the opportunity to generate questions that extract major parts of the story map out for the students. These questions should

go beyond the responses that are too general or too narrow, but should “help students develop their own frameworks for understanding stories” (Pearson, 1985, p. 727). Pearson addressed the content of questions, “questions that focus student attention on salient story elements elicit better comprehension and recall of the story in which such questions are embedded as well as better recall of new stories for which no questions are asked” (Pearson, 1985, p. 726).

Pearson (1985) reminds us that we now “view text as a sort of blueprint for meaning, a set of tracks or clues that the reader uses as s/he builds a model of what the text means” (p. 726). This “blueprint” allows the reader the opportunity to continue to construct his or her own meaning through a variety of questioning strategies.

Taxonomies of Questioning

“Asking questions can stimulate students to think about the content being studied” (Vogler, 2005, p. 98). In order for this stimulation to occur, teachers must be skilled in their use of and understanding of questioning. Katherine Maria (1990) points out, “the recognition that teachers’ questions are usually literal detail questions and that these questions affect the way children read led to the development of several taxonomies of questioning” (p. 72). “A common problem with many teachers’ use of verbal questioning is a lack of knowledge about questioning taxonomies and sequencing, knowledge essential for productive verbal questioning” (Vogler, 2005, p. 98). For that reason, we must look more closely at the taxonomies of questioning which help develop a deeper understanding of the text encountered.

Taxonomies are described as “human constructs used to classify questions based on the intellectual behavior or mental activity needed to formulate an answer” (Vogler, 2005, p. 98). The questioning taxonomies are very similar to a continuum or gradual change in questioning which occurs as the required thought-processes become more challenging. At one end of the

continuum, Vogler (2005) describes, are “questions that may have only one ‘correct’ answer and require only minimal mental activity” (p. 98). At the other end of this continuum are the “more complex questions requiring greater mental activity” (Vogler, 2005, p. 98). These “taxonomies use information in the text to categorize questions according to the level of the child’s anticipated response” (Maria, 1990, p.73).

Bloom’s Taxonomy. One of the most well-known taxonomies of questioning was created by Benjamin Bloom, which stresses the foundational skills that “form the basis for later, more complex processes” (Orlich, Harder, Callahan, Kauchak, & Gibson, 1994, p. 110). Bloom’s Taxonomy “classifies cognitive behaviors into six categories ranging from fairly simple to more complex behaviors” (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 110). Categories in Bloom’s Taxonomy are “hierarchical, with learnings at high levels being dependent on attaining prerequisite knowledge and skills at lower levels” (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 110). The six levels in Bloom’s Taxonomy include knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

Knowledge, the first level in the taxonomy, “emphasizes remembering – either by recall or recognition” (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 110). The primary focus of knowledge is the storage and retrieval of information, but it “forms the basis for other categories” (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 111). Teachers overuse this level as “the majority of teachers (and textbooks) formulate most of their questions (both in class and on tests) at the knowledge level” (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 111). Knowledge forms the foundation for the other levels in this taxonomy of questioning and learning as it provides the subject matter that the higher categories are based.

Some problems do occur with the overuse of the knowledge level questions. Those problems include the following:

- a. Recall of information does not actively involve the learner, which makes it a passive operation (Orlich et al., 1994).
- b. Each knowledge question usually has one right answer, which does not lend itself to classroom discussions or cooperative learning group opportunities (Orlich et al., 1994).
- c. There is a lack of opportunities for students to develop communication skills. The majority of the dialogue occurs between teacher and students rather than between student and student. (Orlich et al., 1994).

The next level of questioning in Bloom's taxonomy is comprehension which requires "students to demonstrate an understanding of the material by processing or altering the material before answering a question" (Orlich et al., 1994, p.112). This occurs as the learner rearranges the information and makes it into a form that makes sense. The idea with questions at this level is that they get students to understand the material, and not memorize information.

Comprehension "requires a greater degree of active participation by the student" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 112).

As Bloom's Taxonomy continues, the next level of questioning along this continuum includes application. This level "involves applying or using information to arrive at a solution to a problem" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 114). At this level, students are expected to check both the solution and the problem. Students bring together separate components to arrive at a solution.

Halfway through the Bloom's continuum is the analysis level. While the application level brings specific parts together, the analysis level separates and breaks down the information. Analysis "involves being able to look beneath the surface and discovering how different parts interact" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 117).

The fifth level in Bloom's Taxonomy is synthesis. Synthesis, as described by Orlich et al. (1994), is the "creative meshing of elements so as to form a new and unique entity" (p. 120). The key to questions at this level involve creativity, and combining parts of the text in ways that did not exist before. "Synthesis requires the creation of something unique, a product of the individual and his or her unique experiences" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 120). Students can use questions at this level to tie in prior experiences and possible background knowledge that is present.

Finally, at the other end of the continuum of Bloom's Taxonomy, is evaluation. This level asks students to "state their thoughts, opinions, and judgments and to give criteria on which these are based" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 121). Evaluation consists of students doing two things: establishing criteria on which they base judgment, and making judgments according to the criteria established. Students form their criteria from "one of three sources: 1) cultural or social values, 2) religious or historical absolutes, and 3) individual justifications" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 122).

Krathwohl's Taxonomy. Another "classification system to design and analyze instruction in the affective area" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 127) is Krathwohl's Taxonomy of questioning. Where Bloom's Taxonomy focuses on the cognitive aspect of questioning and learning, Krathwohl's Taxonomy "involves the development of students' feelings, attitudes, values, and emotions" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 127). The five levels along the continuum in Krathwohl's Taxonomy include receiving, responding, valuing, organization, and characterization by a value or value complex.

The first level in the affective domain is receiving. This level involves the "willingness of learners to be open to stimuli and messages in the environment" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 128).

Following the receiving level is responding, where students make choices about an issue that has been presented. Responding includes the willingness to respond as well as the satisfaction in responding.

In the middle of Krathwohl's taxonomy is valuing. This affective domain is "exhibited by the individual as a motivated, deliberate behavior" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 129). This domain is broken down into three subdivisions which include acceptance of a value, preference for a value and commitment. In this level, behavior "is motivated not by the desire to comply but by the individual's commitment to the underlying value guiding the behavior" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 129).

The final two levels of Krathwohl's Taxonomy of affective domain include organization and characterization by a value or value complex. Organization occurs "when one determines how values relate to each other" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 130). This is very similar to evaluation in Bloom's Taxonomy as a student takes a position and can defend it if needed. The final level in this taxonomy involves a "commitment to certain attitudes, beliefs, or values, as reflected in one's consistent behavior" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 130).

This "affective taxonomy provides a conceptual framework within which to view the entire instructional process" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 131). If teachers come to understand the various levels in the affective domain, teachers will have the tools available to them for improving all educational endeavors with students.

Current Questioning Patterns in Classrooms

"Next to lecturing, the single most common teaching method employed in the schools of America, and for that matter, in the world, may well be the asking of questions" (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 180). While this is true, teachers must know how to frame a question in order to "guide

student thought processes in the most skillful and meaningful manner” (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 181). Teachers must therefore be able to design questions that help students attain their specific goals.

Currently, teachers follow a format for asking questions that involves the teacher initiating and asking the question, calling on a student to respond, with the teacher then critiquing the student’s answer. This format is usually referred to as IRE, teacher initiates, student responds, and teacher evaluates (Falk-Ross et al., 2005, p. 13). We know that “the teacher carries out 70 percent of the talk in classrooms” (Baumfield & Mroz, 2002, p. 129). While this format allows for question, answer, and feedback (q/a/f), it continues in classrooms for a variety of other reasons, as Farrar (1984) noted:

- a. “When the student contributes something, the teacher can assess the student’s attention and comprehension” (p. 455).
- b. “Through questioning the teacher can control the topic and shifts in topic, making sure the discussion stays on track” (p. 455)
- c. “In the q/a/f format both the student and teacher have immediate feedback as to the acceptability of the propositions created” (p. 455).
- d. “It might be expected that students’ oral and written comprehension should improve with involvement in answering questions” (p. 455).
- e. “There is an advantage in terms of discipline” (p. 455).

Keeping these reasons in mind, it is important to begin to consider student reactions and feelings when required to participate in discussions and question-answer relationships in the classroom.

When questions are predominantly teacher-directed, there is no real dialogue that can be developed with the students to deepen their understanding the text. A “more expanded form of

questioning would provide a climate more conducive to conversation and scaffolds for students' verbalizations of their connections to reading" (Falk-Ross et al., 2005, p. 15). A "switch from a traditional teacher-directed instruction model to a more student-centered, constructivist approach" (Falk-Ross et al., 2005, p. 15) would require students to adjust their learning as well. As the students would begin to take a more active role "in determining the direction of learning, the participation levels and enthusiasm" (Falk-Ross et al., 2005, p. 15) would begin to change.

"If teachers dominate classroom verbal interaction, then class members ultimately become dependent on the teacher" and are more apt to show passive behaviors, which would not allow students to foster creativity or thinking (Orlich et al., 1994, p. 183). Orlich et al. (1994) cite David Wood and Heather Wood (1988) when they stated, "that classes should be oriented toward student communication, giving students a chance to express opinions and ideas; but evidence shows that teachers do most of the talking and questioning" (p. 184). With this in mind, we can look more closely at three effective questioning strategies that can be used in the classroom to promote student communication and student dialogue about text – Question Answer Relationship (QAR), Questioning the Author (QtA), and Reciprocal Teaching.

Effective Questioning Strategies Used in Classroom Settings

Since we want our classrooms to promote curiosity during learning, we must use questions to "propel us forward and take us deeper into reading" (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 81). When we ask questions, we are constantly engaged in our reading. If we have no questions, there is no reason to be reading the book. Reading comprehension, we know, is a "collaborative process where the teacher and students co-construct meaning from the text" (Wolf, Crosson, & Resnick, 2005, pp. 27-28). This process allows the teacher and students to work together to create meaning through the comprehension process. "If we want our students to become

strategic and critical readers, we need to encourage them to ask questions instead of having them answer questions” (Hervey, 2006, p. 68). Questioning strategies, such as Question Answer Relationships (QAR), Questioning the Author (QtA), and Reciprocal Teaching, only deepen that process.

Question Answer Relationships (QAR). Previously deemed by Pearson and Johnson as a system for categorizing questions as text explicit, text implicit and script implicit, Taffy Raphael used these categories as the basis for her research studies (Raphael, Highfield, & Au, 2006, pp. 9-10). Pearson and Johnson proposed that, “questions should not be identified in isolation, but rather in relation to both the text being read and the reader’s background knowledge” (Raphael, 1986, p. 516). Raphael took this theoretical knowledge from Pearson and Johnson and adapted the categories by “giving teachers and students a shared language to make visible the largely invisible process underlying reading comprehension” (Raphael, et al., 2006, p.10). This “question-answering instruction can help students get more from their reading by showing them how to find and use information from a text to answer teacher questions” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 19). The instruction through Question Answer Relationship (QAR), “provides a framework that offers teachers a straightforward approach for reading comprehension instruction with the potential of eventually closing the literacy achievement gap” (Raphael & Au, 2005, p. 208).

According to Raphael (1986), QAR clarifies for students how to handle the task of reading and answering questions for a specific text, but also provides a reasonable starting point to address four “problems of practice that stand in the way of moving all students to high levels of literacy” (Raphael & Au, 2005, p. 208). Those problems, identified by Raphael and Au (2005) include:

- a. “The need for a shared language to make visible the largely invisible processes underlying reading and listening comprehension” (p.208).
- b. “The need for a framework for organizing questioning activities and comprehension instruction within and across grades and schools subjects” (p. 208).
- c. “The need for accessible and straightforward whole-school reform for literacy instruction oriented toward higher level thinking” (p. 208).
- d. “The need to prepare students for high-stakes testing without undermining a strong focus on higher level thinking with text” (p. 208).

This shared language through QAR also “brings coherence to literacy instruction within and across grade levels because it provides a framework with a developmental progression for comprehension instruction” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 11).

QAR provides a school with the best of both worlds, as it “prepares students for the tests while making sure that they have strategies for engaging in higher-level thinking and reasoning with text” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 11). These strategies that students learn can be applied across various situations in the school, but also in the community and the workplace. The use of QAR offers schools a developmental progression, which could help “pull a whole school together around reading comprehension instruction. Each grade level builds on the steps accomplished in the previous year and prepares students for the steps they must take the following year” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 12). Not only does the whole school benefit through QAR instruction, but also so do the students and each teacher.

QAR provides teachers a framework from which they can plan and provide questioning instruction related to comprehension, as well as a tool for developing “different types of questions for the various phases of comprehension instruction” (Raphael, 1986, p. 517). QAR

leads students, as Raphael et al. (2006) point out, “to success with generating and answering questions, facilitates reasoning, and promotes learning across the content areas” (p. 12). The QAR framework is powerful and straightforward, which offer “significant, almost immediate benefits to schools, teachers, and most important, our students, who face the complex demands of the future” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 12).

The QAR framework consists of two main categories and four core categories (see Appendix A) which allow a “common way of thinking about and talking about sources of information for answering questions” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 18). The language “conveys the idea that answers can be found in text sources or in our background knowledge and experiences – In the Book or In My Head QARs” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 19). Students need to be able to understand how to use and analyze the “differences between questions with answer sources in the book and those where the answer source is students’ own heads” (Raphael & Au, 2005, p. 211) before they can be introduced to the four core QARs.

QAR opens conversations amongst students as they begin to delve into their personal understanding of what information constitutes the use of *In the Book QAR* vs. *In My Head QAR*. Simply stated, students need to think of whether the information can be found explicitly in the text they were reading, or whether they need to use prior knowledge to answer the question. These two primary QARS – In the Book and In My Head “frame key comprehension strategies for answering questions that probe higher levels of literacy. Students learn how to create questions that push their own and their peers’ high-level thinking” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 21). By introducing these two QAR categories, we provide students a way to be “talking about where information comes from, the wide range of information sources we draw on to comprehend text,

and how information ends up in our heads from these many external sources” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 21).

When students have finally developed a clear understanding of the two main categories, a teacher may delve into each category deeper by introducing the “core QARs – Right There, Think & Search, Author & Me, and On My Own” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 22). These four core categories in QAR instruction always allow for use of paired comparisons (Raphael et al., 2006). These paired comparisons would consist of the In the Book QARS – Right There and Think & Search, while the In My Head QARs include Author & Me and On My Own.

The two In the Book QARs are contrasted to convey the difference between successfully answering a question by simply going to one place in a text and finding all necessary information (Right There) and looking across a text or set of texts to answer the questions (Think & Search) (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 22).

The *Right There QAR* tells the reader that “the answer is in one place in the text” or “words that answer the question are often ‘right there’ in the same sentence” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 23).

The *Think & Search QAR* provides the answer in the text, but expects the reading to think and search about where the answer is located. It asks the readers “to put information together from a single text or from a ser of texts, looking across sentences, paragraphs, pages or texts for all the information needed to answer the question full” (Raphael et al., 2006, pp. 23-24). Students can then be taught ways to identify questions that can fit under the specific core categories, as those questions may begin with specific wording. Appendix B provides examples of those questions starters for the four QARs. Raphael & Au (2005) state that “research has shown that by second grade, students comfortably learn to distinguish between Right There and Think & Search QARs” (p. 213)

The goal of QAR instruction “is to develop students’ reflective analysis about questioning; not their ability to simply identify the QAR” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 25), so students need to be allowed the opportunity to analyze and critique the definitions they are given to use when distinguishing between the two core QARs of Right There and Think & Search.

When students raise these questions, it indicates they are becoming reflective about questioning practices, that they have begun to demystify how questions can be created, and that they are learning how comprehension strategies can be used to answer different types of questions effectively (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 25).

The next natural step following the introduction and use of the core QARs of Right There and Think & Search, then would be to “introduce the two core In My Head QARs” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 25). These two In My Head QARs consist of Author & Me and On My Own, which make “readers use their information from their background knowledge. Neither an Author & Me nor an Own My Own question can be answered with only information from the text” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 25). It is vital that students understand what they will need to rely on to answer the questions in these two QARs.

Raphael et al. (2006) remind us that “in order to answer an Author & Me question, readers must have read and understood the text. To answer an Own My Own question, readers can rely solely on their background” (p. 25). *On My Own* questions “can be used prior to reading a text, to help students access or develop the appropriate background knowledge” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 26). When using the *Author & Me* QAR, students are expected “to think about how the text and what they already know fit together” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 26) or the “relationship between the text and past experience” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 27). Raphael & Au (2005)

remind further “research studies have demonstrated that fourth graders understand the differences among the four QARs” (p. 213).

As students are taught the four core QARs, students need to be able to see it within the “context of two primary information sources – their heads and the text” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 27) which will lessen the confusion that could occur amongst the four. “Across grade levels and subject areas, teachers continue to use QAR categories to frame listening and reading comprehension strategy instruction” (Raphael & Au, 2006, p.214). The use of QARs opens conversations in the classroom regarding location of information as well as strategies used to locate that information, but also places more emphasis “on the students’ ability to justify their choice of QAR, rather than simply making the same QAR choice as the teacher” (Raphael et al., 2006, p. 27).

Teachers can use QARs as a framework which “guides teachers’ modeling of question-asking practices before, during, and after reading” (Raphael & Au, 2005, p. 214). As student begin to use QARs when questioning and discussing texts, students will need a considerable amount of assistance. However, as students begin to understand and QARs more frequently, they will require less and less teacher assistance. This will help as teachers gradually release their responsibilities to the students as teachers can become an observer, as well as help students who are challenged with the use of the various QARs.

Understanding and control of strategies learned helps readers engage in the high levels of literacy for which they are accountable in their day-to-day classroom literacy activities and in their high-stakes assessments at the district, state, and national levels (Raphael & Au, 2005, pp. 214-215).

Through QAR instruction, teachers are “able to unpack the task demands of different types of questions and alert students to these demands as appropriate to the different tests students face” (Raphael & Au, 2005, p. 218).

Questioning the Author. Another questioning strategy, which can be used in classroom settings, was designed by Isabel Beck and Margaret McKeown in the early 1990s as an “instructional approach to encourage students to engage with text ideas” (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p. 225). This strategy, Questioning the Author (QtA), “focuses on having students grapple with and reflect on what an author is trying to say in order to build a representation from it” (Beck, McKeown, Sandora, Kucan & Worthy, 1996, p.385).

QtA (Beck & McKeown, 2001) is designed around four features of reading, comprehension and question. These features include the following:

- a. “QtA addresses text as the product of a fallible author, as someone’s ideas written down” (p. 229).
- b. “QtA deals with text through general teacher-posed queries that are open ended, but goal directed” (p. 230).
- c. “QtA takes place online, in the context of reading as it initially occurs, by going back and forth between reading portions of text, and discussing the ideas encountered” (p. 231).
- d. “QtA encourages discussion in which students are urged to grapple with ideas in the service of constructing meaning” (p. 231).

These features help to encourage students to consider what the text is saying through using a dialogue with the author of the text.

In the first feature, dealing with the author's written ideas, "QtA addresses text as the product of a fallible author, as someone's ideas written down" (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p. 229). Students begin to understand that just because someone's ideas are written down does not mean they are necessarily clear or complete thoughts. By sharing this idea with students, they are able to see that "as readers they need to work to figure out what the ideas are behind an author's words" (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p. 230).

The next feature deals with teacher-posed queries, "QtA deals with text through general teacher-posed queries that are open ended, but goal directed" (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p. 230). This feature gives the students various opportunities to be presented with questions which "signal students to consider the ideas being expressed toward putting together a meaningful representation of the text content" (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p. 230).

This is accomplished by having students consider segments of texts on-line, in the course of initial reading, and respond to the teacher-posed Queries such as "What is the author trying to say?" and "What do you think the author means by that?" (Beck et al., 1996, p. 387).

These Queries are designed to guide the discussions that occur in Questioning the Author (QtA), but also "to invite students to explore the meaning of what is written in the texts they read" (Beck et al., 1996, p. 387). This invitation, through the QtA Queries, allows students to begin to understand, interpret and elaborate on what meaning they have gathered from the text (Beck et al., 1996).

The third feature, deals with referring to the text and discussing ideas, explains that, "QtA takes place online, in the context of reading as it initially occurs, by going back and forth between reading portions of text, and discussing the ideas encountered" (Beck & McKeown,

2001). During this, students read the text and the “teacher stops the reading at certain points and poses questions to initiate discussion” (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p, 231). Students are given an opportunity to use a process where “one takes in text and considers the ideas it offers” (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p. 231). Through this, students are then expected, as Beck & McKeown (2001) share, to understand that, “reading is not a constant movement through the words of a text” (p. 231).

The final focus of QtA, deals with the student participation in discussion, and the fact that “QtA encourages discussion in which students are urged to grapple with ideas in the service of constructing meaning” (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p.231). Students can use their discussions to construct meaning from the text. Students are given opportunities to listen and respond to their peers by making contributions which are “relevant to the focus of discussion in order to promote collaborative development of understanding” (Beck & McKeown, 2001, p. 231).

By understanding, interpreting, and elaborating on the meaning constructed from the text, students, in classrooms using QtA, can focus on goals including the following, as suggested by Duke and Pearson (2002):

- a. “Initiate the discussion” (p. 230).
- b. “Help students focus on the author’s message” (p. 230).
- c. “Help students link information” (p. 230).
- d. “Identify difficulties with the way the author has presented information or ideas” (p. 230).
- e. “Encourage students to refer to the text either because they’ve misinterpreted a text statement or to help them recognize that they’ve made an inference” (p. 230).

Questioning the Author (QtA) “focuses on readers’ interactions with text as it is being read, situates reader-text interactions in whole-class discussion, and encourages explanatory responses to questions about text” (Beck et al., 1996, p. 387).

As a result of these interactions, Terry Salinger and Steve Fleischman (2005) reported that, “teachers trained in QtA changed their questioning strategies from primarily asking students to retrieve information to encouraging students to construct meaning, extend discussions of text, and check their knowledge sources” (p. 90). Teachers who use QtA no longer focus on the factual questions, but focus “on questions that asked students to think about and construct meaning from what they were reading” (Beck et al., 1996, p. 395). Teachers’ responses to students’ responses “are no longer aimed at evaluating their correctness, but rather toward monitoring understanding and guiding meaning building” (Beck et al., 1996, p. 396). This change in focus from the teachers, much like QAR, opens the classroom for more discussions among students, as well as provides cooperative learning opportunities.

Through QtA, the students, as readers, are actively engaged in the reading process through questioning, discussing, and interpreting. Beck et al. (1996) stress, “bringing student responses into the public arena is important because it represents a first step using students’ ideas as grist for developing discussion” (p. 396). Student ideas can be refined by the teacher as they clarify, focus students in a certain direction for a discussion, or by even restating student statements in a more sophisticated format (Beck et al., 1996). By doing this, students tend to show a drastic improvement “in students’ ability to monitor their own comprehension” (Salinger & Fleischman, 2005, p. 90). Students ask, and learning follows which allows collaboration to occur through meaning-constructing dialogues in classroom setting with peers and teachers.

Reciprocal Teaching. Keeping in mind the idea that we use questions to “propel us forward and take us deeper into reading” (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000, p. 81), we look more closely at the instructional activities involved in Reciprocal Teaching. Annemarie Palincsar developed this instructional activity in 1984, as an “instructional activity designed to help students apply multiple strategies flexibly to gain meaning from a text and to self-monitor the success of their reading” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 22). Children who take part in Reciprocal Teaching exhibit the following benefits, as described by Maria (1990):

- a. “Form a new conception of reading” (p.188).
- b. “Learn to use independently four strategies that good readers use spontaneously” (p. 188).
- c. “Learn to use these strategies while reading real texts for real purposes” (p. 188).
- d. “Receive instruction in metacomprehension – children are told why they are receiving instruction in these particular strategies” (p. 188).
- e. “Receive scaffolded instruction – children play the role of “cognitive apprentices” and teachers gradually release responsibility of them” (p. 188).
- f. “Act as both producers and critics in using the strategies through engaging in a dialogue that involves student-student interaction as well as student-teacher interaction” (p. 188).

Those strategies that students learn to use spontaneously include “questioning, summarizing, clarifying, and predicting” (Kelly, Moore & Tuck, 2001, p. 53). Through Reciprocal Teaching, students are given small group instruction in the above-mentioned strategies which can help to enhance their comprehension.

The process of Reciprocal Teaching is not always clear when first reading and learning about it. Reciprocal Teaching “begins with the teacher and a group of students discussing a text” (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 22). This discussion is structured based on the four strategies of summarizing, questioning, clarifying and predicting, but has the teacher model how each individual strategy can be used when reading the text. After some modeling has occurred, the students perform the following activities:

Students take turns leading the discussion about specific parts of the text. One student serves as the discussion leader, asking questions about key ideas in the text, and the other students answer the questions and ask questions of their own. The student leader helps the group clarify difficult words or passages that might hinder comprehension (Lehr & Osborn, 2005, p. 22).

Students begin to increase “control over strategy use, eventually using the strategies with little or no teacher support” (Duke & Pearson, 2002, p. 225).

Reciprocal Teaching, much like QAR and QtA, “focus on discussion and critical thinking rather than on isolated reading skills” (Palincsar, 1987, p. 54). These discussions allow students to take on leadership roles in their classroom, as they act like the teacher by asking questions and further clarifying statements made by their peers. These questions “help kids identify important information in the text” (Palincsar, 1987, p. 55). The student dialogue which also occurs, serves as scaffolding as it “provides temporary and adjustable support to instruction” (Palincsar, 1987, p. 55) and allows the teacher to “adjust instruction to students’ needs” (Palincsar, 1987, p. 55)

Studies have investigated the effectiveness of Reciprocal Teaching. When compared to other approaches of questioning and comprehension instruction such as “teaching modeling alone, explicit instruction and worksheets alone, daily practice at reading test passages and

answering accompanying questions, and training at locating information to address different kinds of comprehension questions” (Duke & Pearson, 2002, p. 227), Reciprocal Teaching continued to be found as a more effective approach. Reciprocal Teaching also offers teachers “rich opportunities for diagnosing sources of students’ comprehension problems” (Palincsar, 1987, p. 58) as well as aiding classroom management and increasing individual student motivation.

Conclusion and Recommendations

After carefully researching and exploring a variety of questioning strategies that can be used as part of comprehension instruction, I truly believe that it is vital for students to begin to learn how to answer questions as well as generate questions on their own. Kelly et al. (2001), reminds us that “children who comprehend well demonstrate the use of self-questioning and monitoring activities” (p. 53). These instructional strategies, such as Question Answer Relationship (QAR), Questioning the Author (QtA), and Reciprocal Teaching, provide students with those opportunities to participate.

Spending time researching these question strategies only further impresses to me that questioning, in relation to comprehension instruction, can definitely affect students across grade levels and in the various curricular areas. With effective implementation, as well as teacher training, students, teachers, and schools will begin to see a variety of results, including increased student motivation, increased test scores in high-stakes testing, as well as increased classroom discussions and collaborative work amongst students. Collaborative learning and classroom discussion may be the most important results which schools begin to see, as students learn effectively from working with peers, which helps them to understand the text they are working with.

Nevertheless, I believe that all schools can easily implement these questioning strategies in their classrooms across the grade levels. While it is not going to be necessary to use all three in the classrooms, each one can effectively provide schools, teachers and students with similar results. For me, these strategies provide other opportunities to help my students understand more fully what good readers actually do when they read. Good readers not only question the text, but they also evaluate what they have read and share their ideas regarding certain aspects of the text. As students begin to develop their questioning skills, they are beginning to develop other skills they will need to become lifelong learners, especially in when reading.

As shared earlier in this review, Bloom's taxonomy of learning encompasses all aspects of questioning that good readers do when they comprehend literature. Through the use of simple recall questions, all the way to the evaluation and synthesis of important information, students are asked to do what they have learned to be most important when reading. They are asked to construct meaning by using of a variety of strategies, but specifically they are asked to question when comprehending text. This will help each student to delve deeper into the text and understand how important it is to relate prior experiences to their learning. Questioning strategies can provide ample opportunities for students to construct meaning, as well as enjoy reading a variety of text on their way to become lifelong readers and learners.

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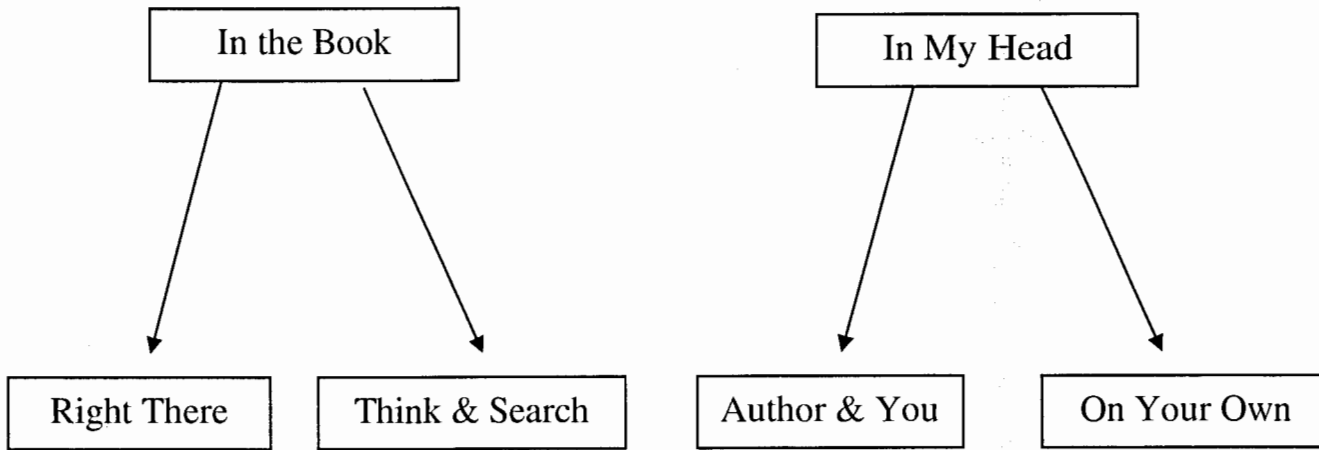
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Appendix A

Core Question-Answer Relationship (QAR) Categories

From *Questioning*. Retrieved June 22, 2007, from <http://www.literacymatters.org/adlit/questioning/intro.htm>



Appendix B – QAR Prompts

From *Questioning*. Retrieved June 22, 2007, from <http://www.literacymatters.org/adlit/questioning/intro.htm>.

Right There Prompts - The words used to create the question and the answer are in the same sentence.

What did...?

Who did...?

How many...?

What was...?

Who are...?

Define...

What does ____ mean?

What kind...?

Think & Search Prompts – The answer is found in different parts of the story. Words to create the questions and answer are not in the same sentence.

How do you...?

What...?

What happened to...?

What happened before/after...?

How many times...?

What examples...?

Where did...?

On My Own Prompts – The answer is not in the story, Tell me what you think.

Have you ever...?

If you could...?

Do you agree with _____. Why?

How do you feel about...?