HOW DO NORWEGIAN SECOND-GRADE TEACHERS USE GUIDED READING?
The quantity and quality of practices

ANNE HÅLAND, ÅSE KARI H. WAGNER AND ERIN M. MCTIGUE

Norwegian Reading Centre, University of Stavanger

Abstract
This paper documents how teachers use guided reading practices in Norwegian second-grade classrooms. In a two-part study consisting of teachers’ self-reports (Study 1) and video-observations of guided reading sessions (Study 2), we analyzed the frequency and characteristics of guided reading practices. Findings from Study 1 indicate that guided reading is a common practice of Norwegian second-grade teachers and that discussing word meaning, text, and pictures are the most frequently addressed literacy components. Findings from Study 2 illustrate that the teachers regularly make optimal use of the before-reading phase, while the after-reading phase is relatively lacking. The observational data also indicate that teachers are more likely to simply check students’ understanding of word meaning rather than to work in-depth with vocabulary. Likewise, teachers were more likely to supply help in the decoding process rather than scaffold students’ decoding with strategies. In sum, the data indicate that teachers may not fully use the benefits that guided reading instruction can afford. We discuss how to help educators use more of the potential of guided reading, arguing that the benefits of guided reading can be strengthened by (1) more in-depth planning, (2) greater use of strategies, and (3) routines for observing and assessing.

Keywords: guided reading, primary grades, comprehension, decoding, enactment

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Corresponding author: Anne Håland, Norwegian Reading Centre, Nasjonalt senter for leseopplæring og leseforskning, University of Stavanger, 4036 Stavanger, Norway, email: anne.haland@uis.no
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1. INTRODUCTION

Four second-grade students and their teacher are gathered around a table, reading a leveled book about caravans in the desert. “The dromedaries follow each other in a long line. It is a caravan of dromedaries,” one student reads, and the teacher says, “I think you should tell me what a caravan is.” The student replies: “Eh, that is... There are many dromedaries walking in line.”

This conversation represents a typical verbal interaction from a guided reading session, where the teacher leads the students through the text, asking them to read one or two sentences each and then opens up a brief conversation for reflections on the text.

Guided reading is one of the most widely implemented approaches to early reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). It can be described as “planned, intentional, focused instruction where the teacher helps students, usually in small group settings, learn more about the reading process” (Ford & Opitz, 2011, p. 229). In guided reading sessions the teacher can not only teach students how print works, but they can also stimulate children’s development of strategies needed to become fluent readers, such as strategies for detecting and correcting errors, for solving unknown words within the text, for making predictions, and for making personal connections to the text (Antonacci, 2000).

However, looking internationally, the research base informing guided reading practice is limited (Denton, Fletcher, Taylor, Barth & Vaughn, 2014), and the empirical evidence is mixed, showing both benefits and weaknesses (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Hanke, 2014; Swain, 2010). Also, the term “guided reading” is diffuse, often encompassing a rather large set of potential practices. As a result, there is often a lack of clarity amongst educators. For example, a survey of 1500 U.S. K-2 teachers indicated confusion or discrepancies regarding the purpose of guided reading, grouping decisions and appropriate text selection (Ford & Opitz, 2008). Furthermore, two influential proponents of guided reading from the 1990s, Fountas and Pinnell, recognize that despite the widespread adoption of this approach, there is much “work to be done to bring guided reading to its full potential” (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012, p. 268).

We argue that the widespread adoption of guided reading, co-occurring with a diffusion of the practice, provides a rationale that, as educators, we need to regroup and understand what is happening in today’s classrooms. From the stance of professional development, we need baseline data about teachers’ current use of this practice before we can provide support, coaching, and enhancements. Specifically, research in professional development has identified a problem of enactment (Kennedy, 1999, 2016), in which teachers may describe their practices in a manner that is aligned with teacher preparation or professional development, but their instructional practices may not align. Thus, in our work, we considered both teachers’ self-reports and direct observations.

Likewise, from a historical perspective of examining the practice for over 50 years, Ford and Opitz (2011) considered how the cultural and social forces have...
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shifted the focus within guided reading. From this longitudinal viewpoint, they concluded that we need to investigate questions of how to help educators develop a clear understanding of the purposes of guided reading and foster connections between guided reading and the components of literacy development. As school curriculums shift and become more formalized, teachers have, naturally, adapted guided reading practices to fit with other demands and constraints.

Our work is guided by such challenges but examines a more specific population—Norwegian classrooms. To the best of our knowledge, guided reading has not been formally examined within the Norwegian context, and we know little about how frequently this practice is operationalized within today’s early literacy curriculum and national mandates, nor for what exact purposes. Based on the above-mentioned findings concerning variations in teachers’ guided reading practices and confusion regarding aspects of the practice, we chose to focus on teachers’ practices, through two studies: A survey study on teachers’ reported practices using guided reading, and a case study of two teachers’ observed practices. We inquire: How do Norwegian second-grade teachers use the potential of guided reading practices? How do they self-report their use of guided reading (Study 1), and how do they integrate the different aspects of literacy instruction in guided reading sessions (Study 2)?

We start by giving a brief background of guided reading, highlighting the instructional benefits and concomitant weaknesses. Next, we describe and provide a rationale for the two-part study. We then sequentially present the results from Study 1 and Study 2, identify patterns, and contextualize the findings within the research base supporting guided reading. In our discussion, we consider how the enactment of guided reading could be strengthened within the frames of professional development.

2. BACKGROUND

Guided reading has its roots in New Zealand (Clay, 1991; Holdaway, 1979), but the methodology rapidly spread, more so to English speaking countries. Already in the 1990s, it was integrated into the Australian Early Years Literacy program (Raban & Essex, 2002) as well as in the National Literacy Strategy in English primary schools (Hanke, 2014). Likewise, in the U.S., guided reading became an important contemporary reading instructional practice (Fawson & Reutzel, 2000; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). Mirroring the popularity elsewhere, in Norway, guided reading more recently became widely used in primary schools, often preceded by study trips to New Zealand or Australia to visit schools and learn about guided reading (Klaebøe & Sjøahelle, 2013; Wegge & Paulsen, 2008).

2.1 Organization of guided reading

The practice often occurs in coordination with station work, where the teacher leads a guided reading session with a small group of students, typically using levelled
books, while other groups of students work independently. This organization gives the teacher an opportunity to observe individual students' progress, give each student individual reading support as well as facilitate that the students in the group support each other as readers. This organization includes both a cognitive view on reading (intra) and a sociocultural view on reading (inter).

Traditionally, guided reading displays three stages (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996): (1) The before-reading phase, where the reading objectives are defined, the teacher works with the students' pre-understanding, engages in discussions about textual elements and pictures and prompts students to make predictions, (2) the reading phase, where the students read individually with the teacher closely monitoring each student's reading, for instance, decoding and comprehension, asking questions, encouraging the student to make another try and to use decoding and reading strategies. In this phase, the teacher has the opportunity to make notes. Finally, (3) in the after-reading phase, the teacher invites the students into discussions, trying to elevate the students' comprehension of the text as a whole. This phase can also include various activities such as retellings, drama, drawing, and writing based on the text they have read. Altogether, within the philosophy of guided reading, working within these three stages includes both developing students' ability to read, their reading comprehension and the teachers' instructional support. While the ability to read involves, for example, decoding words and correcting errors, reading comprehension involves, for example, text talk and making connections between the text and personal experiences (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). The instructional support offered may include teachers' questions and prompts (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Iaquinta, 2006). Fountas & Pinnell (2012) have illustrated how all these phases can include a network of twelve different strategic actions to make students think about, within, and beyond the text and stimulate literacy development. Strategic actions like solving words, monitoring, and correcting, searching for information sources, summarizing and maintaining fluency, give students an opportunity to think within the text. Strategic actions such as prediction, making text connections, synthesizing, and inferring, are meant to make students think beyond the text. Finally, critiquing and analyzing are strategies linked to thinking about the text. The three stages of guided reading include several teachers' decisions: what text to select, how to introduce the text to the students, how to interact with the students while they are reading, what kind of discussions to invite the students into, what kind of teaching points to foreground, what word work to provide and if there is enough time, how to extend meaning through after reading activities such as writing or drawing (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). In order to include these different strategic actions in guided reading, a variety of texts are needed (Heisey & Kucan, 2010; Jeong, Gaffney, Choi, 2010).

2.2 The benefits of guided reading

Most research on guided reading has claimed its benefits for developing different aspects of students' literacy (e.g., Fawson & Reutzel, 2000; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996;
Gabl, Kaiser, Long & Roemer, 2007; Gambrell, Malloy, Mainak & Mazzoni, 2011; Young, 2019). First, a large body of research underlines that guided reading can develop reading comprehension (e.g., Phillips, 2013; Whitehead, 2002; see also Anastasiou & Grieva, 2009; Block, Parris, Reed, Whiteley & Cleveland, 2009). In accordance with Vygotskian theories of learning, reading together with peers in groups can give a better understanding of the text. All three stages of guided reading (before, during, and after reading) offer a framework for the teacher to work explicitly with a student’s comprehension of text. For instance, building background knowledge in the before-reading phase, trying to understand and make inferences within the content of the text in the during-reading phase, and recalling or discussing the text in the after-reading phase. A relatively smaller amount of research has also demonstrated that guided reading can develop literacy skills including students’ phonemic awareness (Tobin & Calhoon, 2009), word identification (Denton et al., 2014) and fluency (Gabl et al., 2007; Oostdam, Block & Boendermaker, 2015).

Second, guided reading can create opportunities for the teacher to explicitly model reading and provide the students with different types of reading strategies that they can use independently (Beard, 2000). This potential reflects the main goals of guided reading, in that children come to know reading as a process of actively reconstructing meaning, internalizing different reading strategies where they can evaluate language and text and ask themselves questions (Hobsbaum, Gamble, & Reedy, 2006, p. 32). Research also stresses how teacher-student interaction (scaffolding/coaching vs. telling) can affect students’ achievements (Taylor, Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 2000).

Third, guided reading gives the teacher the opportunity to monitor students’ reading informally yet systematically (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). This is important because there is a clear connection between assessment, teacher-led instruction and student growth (Connor, Morrison & Katch, 2004; Young, 2019). Frequently assessing students’ reading of an unknown text (e.g., coding the student’s decoding by noting accuracy level using a running record) (Clay, 1993; Iaquinta, 2006) can provide the teacher with much information about the student’s reading ability (Conderman & Strobel, 2006; Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Lipp & Helfrich, 2016). Such an assessment can be a point of departure for teaching points in the next guided reading session, and, thereby, make the reading instruction into a series of individual strategic actions (Young, 2019).

2.3 Guided reading and its weaknesses

Although research on guided reading has shown to be beneficial for developing students’ reading comprehension, for modeling reading strategies, and monitoring students’ reading, other researchers have demonstrated that other reading programs may have stronger effects than guided reading (Denton et al., 2014; Tobin & Calhoon, 2009; Yazdani & Mohammadi, 2015).
Additionally, as guided reading is so teacher-dependent, it is important to note that recommendations can be hard to transfer from professional development into practice (e.g., Hanke, 2014) and that some parts of the guided-reading instruction are easier for teachers to manage than others (Hough et al., 2013). A series of systematic observations (Hough et al., 2013) indicated that selecting an appropriate text and engaging students around meaning were relatively easy components for teachers to implement. In contrast, it was much harder for teachers to engage students in rich discussions and to make explicit teaching points based on in-the-moment observation of students’ reading. The interaction between teacher and students is of great concern and a critical element in students’ early literacy growth (Arrow, Braid, & Chapman, 2019; Connor, et al., 2004; Greaney, 2001; Iaquinta, 2006; Taylor et al., 2000). For instance, teachers’ language knowledge is of importance when guiding students’ reading, but this knowledge is not enough (Arrow et al., 2019). Teachers also need guidance on how to apply this knowledge, like systematic phonics instruction, into reading sessions (ibid.). This may be a result of teachers’ preference for using context-based prompts (“Look at the picture and think what it could be”) instead of word-level prompts (“Listen to what the letters are”) (Greaney, 2001). This limited focus on word-level skills is of great concern because individualized instruction can lead to significant growth in decoding skills (Connor et al., 2004). Unfortunately, teachers do not often reach those aspects of the practice and instead often use guided reading as opportunities to hear children read, thus spending the majority of their teaching time listening (Fisher, 2008).

Some of the other challenges of guided reading are connected to organizational factors (Hanke, 2014). Teachers often stress that they do not have enough time to lead small groups into authentic discussions, and students might feel that it is “desirable to read fast because their teacher was under pressure of time” (Hanke, 2014, p. 142). Due to the time pressure of managing small groups, guided reading sessions can become too strictly organized (Hanke, 2014; Swain, 2010) and dominated by the teacher (Fisher, 2008; Skidmore, Perez-Parent, Arnfield, 2003). Also, the tendency has been noted that teachers rarely ask authentic questions, but instead control the turn-taking and keep a tight grip on the topic being discussed while dominating the talking (Skidmore et al., 2003).

2.4 The role of the teacher

The benefits and weaknesses mentioned above underline the teacher’s essential role in determining the effectiveness of guided reading. In a yearlong quasi-experimental study of guided reading, Young (2019) showed how second-grade students increased their reading ability (comprehension, accuracy and fluency) when the teachers engaged in careful planning of the session and adjusted to the needs of the individual students. A subset of students in this study even increased their reading ability from a kindergarten level (i.e., well below grade level) to a level above their year (Young, 2019, p. 129). The teachers’ planning included (1) specific literacy
goals, (2) troublesome aspects of the text and important vocabulary, (3) a summary of the text to support student’s comprehension, (4) notes while the students read, and (5) a plan for follow-up lessons. To achieve differentiated instruction, much planning occurred, not only in the organizational parts of the practice, but also for the instruction itself.

Regarding oracy, teachers tend to use closed questions (Fisher, 2008; Skidmore et al., 2003), which puts her/him, perhaps unwillingly, in a dominant position. To prevent this, ideally, teachers need to consider how they frame questions and monitor students as they read (Iaquinta, 2006; Phillips, 2013). For this purpose, teacher prompts have been developed (Clay, 2005; Iaquinta, 2006; Lipp & Helfrich, 2016) to facilitate the interaction between teacher and student, scaffold the teacher’s role, and ensure essential literacy elements (e.g., prediction, semantic word meaning, and self-correcting) are implemented throughout the instruction. The purpose of teacher prompts like (a) “What did you notice?” (b) “Something is not right, why did you stop?” or (c) “What do you think about the boy in this story?” is to guide students’ engagement with the text as they read (Iaquinta, 2006). The prompts can help students learn how to think about texts, invite them to confirm whether they are reading accurately or not, and self-correct their reading. In this way, the teacher will not only develop the students’ reading but also help the students on their way to becoming independent readers (Ford & Opitz, 2011). The role of the teacher can be particularly crucial for striving readers because the teacher can include key elements from instruction in a manner that is individualized for the learners (Lipp & Helfrich, 2016).

In sum, the teacher has a central role in guided reading, trying to integrate a set of different literacy aspects into the practice of guided reading sessions. As described earlier, to date, we have no systematic data on how Norwegian teachers have enacted the theory of guided reading into practice. Yet, research on professional development has documented that this transformation from ideas to concrete practice can lead to a set of unexpected practices (Ford & Opitz, 2008). This is what Kennedy (1999) calls the problem of enactment, meaning that teachers can learn (in an academic sense) new abstract concepts or developmental approaches, but still, without being aware of it, continue their traditional teaching practice in the classroom.

Kennedy (2016) has described facilitating enactment in professional development programs and investigated how these different types of enactment improve teaching. She finds that programs based on strategies (focusing on specific goals and helping teachers implement strategies to reach these goals) and insight (making teachers discover aha-moments that can force them to re-examine their practice) have a stronger impact on teaching compared to programs that rely on direct information on how to teach or on providing teachers with knowledge that can be summed up in a book or a lecture. She, therefore, stresses the importance of intellectually engaging teachers with content knowledge.
We implemented two studies to answer our research question: How do Norwegian second-grade teachers use guided-reading practices? The purpose of Study 1 was to find out how teachers self-report and describe their use of guided reading. The purpose of Study 2 was to closely consider how teachers integrate different aspects of literacy instruction in guided-reading sessions. The descriptive nature of Study 1 allowed us to gather data from a large group of teachers to understand the reported frequency and description of the practice. Study 2 centered around the quality of the practice as observed in the classroom.

School practice cannot be fully understood by surveys only or observations only, as they are influenced by many different components, such as the context and teachers’ beliefs (Cohen, Raudenbush, & Ball, 2003). Including the two different studies allowed for triangulation of data, contributing to a deeper understanding of the practice.

3. STUDY 1: HOW DO NORWEGIAN SECOND-GRADE TEACHERS SELF-REPORT THEIR USE OF GUIDED READING?

3.1 Participants

Study 1 focused on second-grade teachers from 100 classrooms (representing 50 schools) in southern Norway. This study was embedded within but operated with some autonomy from, a larger Randomized Controlled Trial (RCT) in southern Norway, investigating the role of increased teacher-student ratio and professional development for literacy instruction (see study protocol by Solheim, Rege, & McTigue, 2017). As the goal of Study 1 was to understand and describe current practices in guided reading, we focused only on the control/comparison condition of 50 schools and 100 classrooms. These teachers were not required to participate in professional development, nor change their instructional approaches. Thus, they represented “business as usual” practices. The only difference resulting from the RCT participation was that 50 of the 100 studied classrooms had a second teacher during reading instruction, thus potentially increasing student-teacher interactions. Due to the careful selection process (see Solheim et al., 2017), we maintain that this sample of teachers well-represents the population of Norwegian second-grade teachers. All contact and data collection with participants followed ethical guidelines developed by the National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and Humanities (NESH), and the survey was piloted with a selection of first and second-grade teachers before distributing to the participants.

Of the 100 second-grade teachers initially surveyed, 70 reported using guided reading. Therefore, our sample was \( n = 70 \). The 70 teachers surveyed had an average of 12.64 years of teaching experience, with a range of 0–39 years. There was a large range of age: 15.7% were 25–29; 22.9% were 30–39; 31.4% were 40–49; 22.9% were
50–59; and 5.7% were over 60. Regarding education, 87.1% of the teachers had a traditional bachelor’s degree, 5.7% had a master’s degree, while 7.2% had followed an alternative pathway to certification. Regarding the focus of their preparation, 65.2% reported being general education teachers, while 28.9% focused on preschool/early childhood education.

3.2 Data sources

The survey was researcher-created with items reflecting reading strategies underlying each of the three phases of guided reading: before, during, and after. For example, previewing the text is recommended before reading (Taylor, Stevens, & Asher, 2006), making text connections during reading (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007), while summarizing is recommended after reading (Graham & Hebert, 2010). The survey also inquired about (a) the extent to which teachers used guided reading as part of instruction, (b) how they used guided reading as a part of literacy instruction, (c) how they organized this practice, and (d) the text choices made. The text options listed in the survey drew from observations in Norwegian elementary classrooms about what type of reading material is most commonly used. To ensure that the participants had the same understanding of guided reading, it was defined as followed in the survey: “With guided reading, we mean that the teacher reads and works with a shared text together with a smaller group of students. Guided reading is often a part of station work but can also be used when the instruction is organized differently.” (See Appendix A for specific questions.)

3.3 Results

Regarding frequency, 46.7% of teachers used the practice of guided reading once per week, 34.9% used guided reading twice weekly, 17% used this practice 3 or 4 times per week, while only 1.5% used this practice daily. Regarding structure, the group size was typically 4–6 students (68% of teachers), although 15.8% of teachers reported 2–4 students, and 15.7% reported group size over 6. The membership within the guided reading groups was dynamic, with 95% of teachers reporting changing groups in the spring semester: 32% switched groups once in the spring, 29% switched twice, and 34% switched three or more times.

When considering text selection, as indicated in Figure 1, texts from textbooks and levelled books were the most commonly selected texts with about half of teachers using them very often or always. Reading sheets/reading passages were the next most frequently selected type of text. Both fiction and non-fiction texts, from sources other than textbooks, were less frequently used, with less than 10% of teachers frequently using such texts. It is important to note, however, that of such texts, non-fiction and fiction texts were selected with similar frequency. Finally, students’ own texts were a particularly uncommon choice, with 72.5% of teachers reporting that they seldom or never used such texts.
Figure 1. The text types and genres used during guided reading in Grade 2. The colored bars represent the frequency that teachers report using this type of text (e.g., 45.6% of teachers reported using textbooks very often or always).

Figure 2. Text types and genres used in Grade 2 during guided reading. Green represents comprehension practices, blue represents decoding practices and yellow represents fluency practices.
With regards to practices, in the survey, teachers rated the frequency of using select instructional practices during guided reading. We report the rank-order of practices that were rated as used frequently; furthermore, these are grouped by focus areas with green bars representing comprehension practices, blue representing decoding practices, and yellow representing fluency (see Figure 2). As shown above, the most common practices were (a) discussing word meaning, (b) analyzing pictures, and (c) building pre-understanding of the texts. In contrast, less than half of the teachers frequently discussed punctuation or instructed on “sounding out” (decoding) words. Discussion of text structure or style was the most infrequently used practice. However, in general, comprehension practices dominated teachers’ reports of how they reportedly spent their instructional time in guided reading.

3.4 Discussion for study 1

In summary, guided reading was reported as a commonly used instructional format that most students would experience weekly, although not daily. The text choices, often selections from textbooks and leveled texts, suggests that this practice is used to implement the core reading curriculum (“discuss characters and plot in fairy tales and stories”, Ministry of Education and Research, 2006), rather than simply as an enrichment activity. Therefore, as a fundamental instructional strategy for reading instruction in Grade 2, we feel guided reading deserves close examination as to the quality of instruction that occurs within this framework. Furthermore, the small group size (most often 4–6 students) provides an opportunity space for much verbal interaction that cannot occur within whole-class instruction. The dynamic membership within the guided reading groups adheres to Fountas and Pinnell’s (1996) recommendations for flexible grouping rather than categorizing students in immutable levels.

The survey data provide a snapshot of how teachers perceive what occurs within the guided reading framework. Based on these results, we consider both what is and what is not happening within this framework. In total, teachers report using a great variety of instructional strategies. The three most frequently used strategies (word meaning, discussing pictures, previewing the text) indicate a focus on comprehension rather than decoding. This emphasis is coherent with the focus of reading at the second grade on building an understanding. However, using the categorizations of Anastasiou and Griva (2009), these three comprehension strategies are less cognitively complex strategies compared to the lesser-used practices of discussing text structure and style or considering the role of punctuation. Furthermore, we do not know the depth of comprehension instruction, which is further explored in Study 2. As such, we can conclude that comprehension instruction is occurring, but there is potential to increase the effectiveness of instruction through more cognitively complex strategies.
Regarding text choices, the findings from the survey stress that teachers tend to rely on textbooks, leveled texts and reading sheets. On the positive, these texts represent a variety of sources and indicate that guided reading is likely integrated into the reading curriculum. However, these choices do not represent highly complex or authentic text sources. In particular, despite greater published availability, non-fiction books were nearly absent from use. This finding is consistent with research regarding book availability in elementary classrooms (Jeong et al., 2010). Additionally, students’ own texts were not integrated as a text source either, which could have helped connect the reading and writing curriculum and honor students as authors. Including these two underused text sources represents an area to increase the potential impact of guided reading in second-grade Norwegian classrooms.

4. STUDY 2: HOW DO THE TEACHERS INTEGRATE DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF LITERACY INSTRUCTION IN GUIDED READING SESSIONS?

4.1 Participants

To come closer to practice (e.g., Cohen et al., 2003) and to get a deeper understanding of how teachers worked with guided reading in real-time, we created a case study of two teachers from the same control/comparison condition used in Study 1 (i.e., business as usual). These teachers were originally part of a larger case study including six schools participating in the RCT described in Study 1, and where classroom observations constitute the most important data source (see study protocol for the case study by Wagner, Skaftun, & McTigue, 2020). The two teachers were the only ones in condition 0 to be observed performing guided reading during a week of observation (on two occasions), which is why we selected them. The teachers co-taught a class of second-grade students for eight hours of L1 literacy instruction per week. There were 14 students in the class. Both teachers were female, and had a bachelor’s degree in teaching education. Both also had many years of experience as teachers. L1 literacy instruction usually took place at the beginning of the day, starting with 20–30 minutes’ circle time, with the same rituals (song, plan for the day, date, and the introduction of theme), usually headed by one of the teachers. Individual seatwork then followed. During seat work, common tasks would be to do exercises from the textbook, write sentences based on a common mind map created during circle time, or to answer the teacher’s questions orally. Also, during seatwork, the teachers split, so that one worked individually with groups of 3–4 students in the adjacent group room. The lessons were normally brought to a close with the whole class with both teachers present. Guided reading was one kind of literacy instruction regularly used in this class, both during station work for the whole class and also when one of the teachers worked with smaller groups of students.
4.2 Data sources

The case study includes field notes and field conversations, narrative summaries, filmed observations and transcriptions of these, as well as follow-up questions to the teachers.

4.2.1 Observations

We analyzed the filmed observations of the two teachers’ work on guided reading for a week. During the observed week, guided reading took place on two occasions, one day with one of the teachers and three consecutive groups of students, and a couple of days later with the other teacher and four consecutive groups of students. The first mentioned series took place when one of the teachers took out groups of students to the adjacent group room while the rest of the class was working silently in the classroom with the other teachers present there. The latter series took place during station work (also in the adjacent group room). Five guided reading lessons lasted for under 10 minutes, one for 10.5, while the last lesson lasted for 20.5 minutes.

4.2.2 Follow-up questions

We also included follow-up questions to the teachers. The teachers elaborated on their organization of guided reading, considerations regarding the choice of texts, their objectives when using guided reading, as well as experienced benefits and challenges of the practice. In this article, this source of information is used to add teachers’ in-depth comments on the observed guided reading practices.

4.3 Analysis

The analysis of the filmed observations occurred in five stages: organizing, coding, generating categories, testing emerging categories, and searching for alternative explanations (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). Analyzing the work on the integration of different literacy aspects during guided reading, we used the following theory-driven categories inspired by the three above-mentioned phases of guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012): The before-reading phase (pre-understanding of text, prediction, or evocation of students’ earlier literacy experiences), the during-reading phase (monitoring the students’ reading, work on decoding, reading strategies, and word meaning), and the after-reading phase (after-reading discussion of text or strategies used, use of after-reading activities such as writing or drama). Many of the categories were present in more than one phase. We also analyzed the teachers’ choice of texts for guided reading sessions as well as organizational factors (time frames and distribution of words and utterances). The first author coded all transcribed lessons and
summarized these. The second author then coded all corresponding films and summarized those. These two representations add to each other, with the transcribed words in the first, and emotions and tones, in the latter. The two first authors afterwards compared and discussed all coding and reached an agreement. These qualitative analyses led to the overarching patterns presented in the results section below.

4.4 Results

The two teachers in Study 2 can best be described as caring teachers. They show a strong and warm interest in the students, not only when it comes to instruction and students’ reading ability, but also for students’ everyday life. Guided reading sessions are dominated by a warm and inclusive atmosphere, thus setting a positive condition for literacy learning.

As mentioned, the two teachers included in Study 2 were part of the RCT study described above, and thus also self-reported their guided reading practices. Their responses were in line with the trends of the results presented in Study 1: Both teachers reported doing guided reading once a week, with a group size of three to five students. They both reported always focusing on students’ pre-understanding of the text, talking about word meaning and the pictures in the texts, and also having a high focus on decoding, such as teaching letter knowledge, practicing whole words, “sounding out” (decoding) words, and reading irregular words. In contrast, prosody and text structure were less of a focus. Regarding the choice of texts, the teachers reported that they usually selected texts from textbooks and levelled texts.

4.4.1 A clear framework for before-reading

As shown above, the teachers self-report that they emphasized discussions of pictures and building students’ previous understanding during guided reading. This is supported by our observational data, where we see that both teachers are good at utilizing the before-reading phase:

Teacher: Then I want you to read the heading and look at the picture and then you put up your hand if you find out what you think we are going to read about today.

Student A: Camel.

Teacher: [...] Have you read, Student A? Page ten. Just page ten. What do you think we are going to read about?

[...]

Teacher: What do you think we are going to read about, Student B?

(The teacher asks all students in the group)

In the follow-up questions, the teachers report that they “start by using the BO strategy, Bildes-overskrift (Picture-Heading), proposed in the teachers’ manual: “What do you think we are going to read today?”, asking the students to look at
headings, pictures and labels, and predict what they think the text or the book will be about. The before-reading phase follows the same pattern in all observed sessions, and the students show high levels of behavioral engagement and contribute frequently. This practice is aligned with the recommendation of previewing the text before reading (Taylor et al., 2006).

4.4.2 Good conditions for making text connections

Our classroom observations showed that reflections about texts were an important part of guided reading, both before and during reading. The teachers often asked open questions and gave the students opportunities to think within the text (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012):

Teacher: What are the dromedaries doing, Student A? What did you read?
Student A: They carry the goods. They carry the goods so that they don’t need it, and then if they don’t have … those … then it would have been very heavy, and it would have taken several years to come back.

Teacher: Do you see that the dromedaries carry quite a lot?
Student A: Mhm.
Student B: Yes.

Teacher: Lots of goods. Okay. Please continue=
Student C: =Then they must be … They are pretty strong, then.
Teacher: Yes, they are. They are made for this life here in the desert, we have read about that before, yes. […]

The students are also given opportunities to think beyond the text (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012), linking what they read to their own experiences:

Teacher: Is it true that you can get angry sometimes?

[...]

This practice is aligned with previous research stressing the importance of making text connections during reading (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). There are, however, also quite a few examples showing that the students do not get the opportunity to answer, or that the teacher provides the answer herself, or is searching for a particular answer:

Teacher: Yes, Student A, what do you think it is about?
Teacher: Now I’ll tell you something. Being angry, being sorry, being happy, being ... bored and all that, what is that about? It’s about what we often=
Student A: =It was=
Teacher: =feel inside here=
Student A: =Many pages.
Teacher: Fees? Feel=
Student A: =Feelings.
Student B: Feelings=
Teacher: = Feelings, yes. It’s about feelings, so being angry is a feeling. It’s a strong feeling. To be sad is also a feeling, but it… is strong in another way.

In general, the teachers occupied a considerable part of the guided reading time (over 50 % of the utterances, and about 63 % of the words), especially considering that the sessions are quite short.

4.4.3 Teacher-led check for understanding

According to the survey data, the teachers self-reported that they spent considerable time working on word meaning during guided reading. We did not find this in our observations, however. In three of the seven sessions, there was no focus on word meaning, in two sessions only on one word, and in the remaining two sessions on four words. When the discussion about word meaning occurred, it was always on the teacher’s initiative, always targeting keywords in the text (like ‘trader,’ ‘caravan,’ ‘dromedaries’) and focused more on checking the students’ reading comprehension than on word work (e.g., considering affixes or root words or comparing to similar words):

Teacher: What is a trader?
Student A: It’s … They trade something in the desert.
Teacher: Yes, what do you think a trader is? It has to do with trade, as you just said. […] Yes, what do you think?
Student A: I think they are going to exchange something, and … And then maybe get some water in another city that has much more water than they do, so they just walk all the way back.

The teachers did not demonstrate specific strategies for capturing students’ word understanding or for helping them to become active readers by stimulating students’ own questions on word meaning and words they did not understand (e.g., Hobsbaum et al., 2006).

4.4.4 Literacy instruction given as help rather than scaffolding

The teachers self-reported a great amount of focus on decoding, such as reading irregular words, reading whole words, and letter knowledge. Also, we noticed this focus on decoding in our qualitative observations. The teachers spent a considerable amount of the guided reading lessons helping students with decoding, by either providing the word or repeating the correct pronunciation when reading, as shown in the example:
Student B: “Sometimes like a ...”
Teacher: sizzling.

Student B: “Rote”. [Rotte is the Norwegian word for rat, in this example pronounced incorrectly with a long vowel]
Teacher: Rot... Rotte, yes [correct pronunciation]. Like a sizzling rat. Then you are so angry that you (Teacher sizzles), like that. Is it like that, yes?

The teacher also provides help by giving the syllables:
Student A: = Oh yes. “The dromedaries are following ...”
Teacher: Hver....andr.....e= [hverandre is the Norwegian word for each other]
Student A: = “Hverandre [each other] in a long line.”

Or correcting the letter-sound combination:
Student B: “You don’t need a kik...” [reads the first syllable in the word kikkert /çikert/, ‘binoculars’, with a /k/]
Teacher: Ki= (/çi/)
Student B: = “Kikkert”. (/çikert/)
Teacher: Yes.
Student B: “Kikkert (/çikert/), not kikkert (/kikert/).”

However, despite the attention on decoding, the teachers never provided support as scaffolding nor referred to decoding strategies recommended by Iaquinta (2006), such as “look at the first/first two letter(s), do you know the sound?” “read the word silently,” or “what are you not sure of?” Instead, they tended to provide the information directly.

Another concern in our study is that the teachers never made notes on the students’ reading.

4.4.5 No time for after-reading activities

While the teachers self-reported that after reading activities, such as finding the main idea and summarizing, are very common in guided reading lessons, there were no after-reading activities in our seven observed lessons. The lessons often end with someone knocking on the door or time simply being up:

[Quiet music is turned on in the classroom, the lesson is over]
Teacher: Yes, but do you think they thought that ... that they want to show that they still love her?
Student A: Mm.
Teacher: Yes, it could be. And now time went fast=}
The students did not get the opportunity to summarize what they read, think through what they learned, or consider what in the text has made the greatest impression on them. There were no rich discussions after reading the material. The shorter reflections that took place during the reading phase suffered from a general lack of time (Hanke, 2014).

The lack of after reading activities probably also had to do with the fact that the time frames were very short. For instance, in our case; five lessons lasted for under 10 minutes, one for 10.5 minutes, while the last lesson lasted for 20.5 minutes. In our material, teacher comments such as “We have to read through this text very quickly” and student comments such as “Now we have to hurry up” demonstrate the general feeling of having to rush on. There is, naturally, no time either for writing, retelling, drama, or drawing.

4.4.6 Content important when making text selections

Consistent with trends of text selection in the survey results, during the week of observation, these two teachers used levelled books in four sessions and textbooks in the remaining three. In the follow-up questions, the teachers reported that half the year, they privileged ability-level groups and levelled books, and half the year they mixed ability levels in the groups more. In the observed week, we recognized both these practices. In some guided reading sessions, the students were divided into two ability groups, reading two different texts, one more complex than the other (e.g., one levelled text about trading in the desert and one more complex text from the textbook about stars).

In addition, the teachers emphasized that they very often choose the levelled books according to themes they work within other subjects: “For example themes like space or the desert—and I bring sand from Sahara or exciting texts about the Tengmalm’s Owl—and I let them listen to the bird’s twittering on my mobile phone.” The fact that an important rationale for the teachers’ choices of texts is to link to the content in other subjects, was also shown in the following example: “I select texts that are exciting and instructive. We also use the contents of guided reading as inspiration for Writers Workshop.”

4.5 Discussion for Study 2

The observed guided reading sessions included in Study 2 are dominated by a warm and inclusive atmosphere, clearly led by the teachers. The conditions for literacy learning are established. The two teachers emphasized reflections, both in the before-reading phase, where the “BO strategy” facilitates discussions based on pictures and headings and the building of students’ pre-understanding—as well as during the reading, where students are given opportunities to think both within and beyond the text (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). This important practice was planned and occurs introductory in every guided reading session.
However, due to the lack of time, reflections were often limited, and the teachers occupied a large percentage of the talk. Further, there were no after-reading activities in our observational data, and thus little opportunity for students to summarize texts or think through what they had learned. This is in line with the fact that previous research on the supervision of lecturers has pointed out that teachers find it challenging to engage the students in discussions (Hough et al., 2013) and that the lack of time is a common problem (Hanke, 2014).

Transitioning to word-level reading, our observations show that talk surrounding word meanings was not very common, and always on the teacher’s initiative, more as a check of students’ reading comprehension than real work with words. This is in line with research showing that teachers often take for granted that students have mastered general academic words (Snow, 2010), which can be described as words that are uncommon in everyday oral language but often occur in texts (usually, around, already, properly, still...). These two teachers did not use strategies for capturing students’ word understanding or for stimulating students’ own questions on word meaning (e.g., Hobsbaum et al., 2006). This is in line with research demonstrating that teachers seem to use implicit instruction when working with words and linguistic constructs more often than explicit and planned instruction (Arrow et al., 2019) and that when they use prompts, these are context-based—not word-level based (Greaney, 2001).

Further, our observations also illustrate that even though decoding was in focus during guided reading, teachers gave their decoding support as help, and never as scaffolding (Taylor et al., 2000), for instance discussing and discovering connections between different types of graphemes and how they sound when you read them. This is of great concern as we know that scaffolding as explicit decoding instruction can lead to decoding growth (Connor et al., 2004). It is, however, in line with research showing that what teachers find most difficult in guided reading is to “give specific teaching points that help students engage in the effective processing of text” (Hough et al., 2013, p. 481).

Scaffolding during reading represents only one practice which is an important aspect that makes guided reading an adaptive or differentiated educational experience. Guided reading also gives the opportunity to monitor students’ reading informally, but systemically. To support adaptive instruction, it is therefore recommended that guided reading teachers take notes for each student. The teachers in our observations never made notes on the students’ reading, which complicates the monitoring of the students’ readings (cf. Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Lipp & Helfrich, 2016; Young, 2019). In total, our observations provided little evidence of adapted instruction within the guided reading format.

Finally, regarding text choice, it looks like the motives for text selections are based on the content of the texts (i.e. that the text relates to other subjects or can be used in Writers’ Workshops) rather than on adapted education or a focus on a particular literacy skill. Our teachers used either leveled books or textbooks in guided reading sessions. This might not be enough to work with all aspects of literacy, as
students also need to be exposed to challenging and complex texts in order to de-
velop evaluative strategies and think critically about texts (Hobsbaum et al., 2006).

5. GENERAL DISCUSSION

We began our introduction by raising the issue that, globally, as guided reading has
become widespread, the practice of guided reading has become more diffuse, with
various and diverse interpretations occurring under the auspice of guided reading
(e.g., Ford & Opitz, 2008; Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). Perhaps this disparity between
intention and practice reflects that the practice (or behaviors) of guided reading has
spread, at times, without the foundational theories supporting teachers’ decision
making about guided reading. This aligns with what Kennedy (1999, 2016) calls the
problem of enactment. In the following section, we discuss our findings in concert
with the supporting research and make suggestions for enhancing the use of this
practice and fully exploiting the potential benefits.

In our findings, while the practice is widespread in Norway, the enactment was
not always aligned with best practices. The teachers’ self-reports indicated that
many different literacy aspects were integrated in guided reading sessions, but our
observational data give us reasons to believe that many of these instructions may be
ad hoc decisions that are not planned holistically or systematically. Also, our obser-
vations suggest that Norwegian second-grade teachers select specific aspects of the
guided reading practice to implement (e.g., before-reading strategies) instead of
adopting all the principles which underlie the practice. In line with previous research,
it seems like the teachers do not spontaneously apply phonics instruction into guided
reading sessions (Arrow et al., 2019) and are more likely to default to context
prompts instead of word-level prompts (Greaney, 2001). This study suggests that
guided reading is hard to transfer into practice (Hanke, 2014) and that much work
has to be done to bring guided reading to its full potential (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012).

As such, these results demonstrate that professional learning is needed to help edu-
cators develop a clearer understanding of the purposes of guided reading and how
to include components of literacy. We argue that (1) more in-depth planning, (2)
greater use of strategies and (3) routines for observing and assessing can contribute
to reducing the gap between recommended and current practice to facilitate the
enactment of professional learning.

5.1 In-depth planning to meet challenges in guided reading

Previous research underlines that planning of guided-reading sessions is of great im-
portance because it can increase students’ reading development (Young, 2019). We
argue that better planning can meet several of the challenges pointed out in this
study. First, better planning can ensure that a set of different literacy aspects (e.g.,
Fountas & Pinnell, 2012) are involved in the guided reading sessions. A well-thought
plan can involve important literacy aspects while working within (e.g., solving word
and correcting decoding), beyond (e.g., predicting and making connections between the text and knowledge about the world), and about (e.g., noticing aspects of the writer’s craft) the text (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). If teachers are consistently reflecting on how to meet these goals (i.e., within, about, beyond), they would likely conclude that they would need a wider range of different texts. Teachers would also likely recognize if they are remaining within the basic comprehension strategies or if students are ready to move into more sophisticated ones. In this study, it seems that the literacy aspects included in guided-reading sessions are limited, as talking about word meaning is the most dominant in the survey data, and helping the students with decoding is largely represented in the observational data. This is understandable since the students are second graders. Nevertheless, this means that the guided reading practice seems to be most concerned with literacy aspects within the texts and not so much about and beyond the text (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012), and that the opportunity for literacy learning that this instructional practice can afford is not fully exploited. Guided reading is a challenging practice both when it comes to the organization and the work on literacy. One may ask: Is using the guided-reading practice only once or twice a week (as reported by the majority of teachers) perhaps too seldom? In addition, it seems like the teachers’ selection of literacy aspects is based on ad hoc decisions rather than selected teaching points (Hough et al., 2013).

Second, planning can reduce pacing issues (Hanke, 2014), which were evidenced throughout the observations. Planning is important because guided-reading lessons will never have time for everything, and a thought-through plan has to include selected literacy aspects (Young, 2019) and adhere to the time allocation. Such constraints mean prioritization of instructional activities, thus resulting in a clearer focus for the minutes that are set aside for guided reading.

Third, better planning can make the guided-reading sessions less teacher-dominated (e.g., Skidmore et al., 2003). Our observational data from Study 2 show that the teacher contributes over 60% of the words. An exception is the before-reading phase, probably due to the planned use of the mentioned BO strategy. Here, the students are given multiple opportunities to express themselves. With better planning and time set aside at the end of the sessions, students could be given the needed space for discussions, summing up, and other after-reading activities.

5.2 Strategies to scaffold students’ literacy development

We argue that teachers need more explicit strategies for working with different aspects of literacy as “instructional strategies can have a dramatic impact on the growth of children’s early reading skills and their prospects of academic success” (Connor et al., 2004, p. 332). The data in this study indicate that teaching strategies are important to scaffold students’ reading beyond the single text. When the teachers had a clear instructional strategy for how to guide the students, such as the BO strategy (proposed in the teacher’s manual), they better incorporated wider aspects
of literacy and linked guided reading to other literacy instructions. However, strategies for working with other aspects of literacy, such as word meaning or different types of decoding, were largely absent in our observations. We do not believe that the teachers are unwilling to use strategies, since they used them when prompted by the teacher’s manual. This suggests that they may not be informed about how to use strategies for word meaning, decoding, and summarizing. As research has demonstrated, teachers need guidance on how to apply their knowledge (Arrow et al., 2019).

Strategies will not only serve as clear instruction for the teachers but also prevent teacher-dominated talk (Iaquinta, 2006; Skidmore et al., 2003) and make students more active in their own reading. Prompts, here serving as decoding strategies, such as “Something is not right, why did you stop?” and “Does it sound right?” (Iaquinta 2006, p. 415), can scaffold the students’ decoding instead of just giving them the correct solution. Strategies and prompts will guide students as they read, invite them to confirm whether they are reading accurately or not, and give them opportunities to self-correct their reading. Also, inviting the students to ask questions about word meaning and using prompts like “What do you think it could be?” (Iaquinta, 2006, p. 415) can expand the students’ lexical knowledge. Strategies and prompts like these can support the students on their way to becoming independent readers (Ford & Opitz, 2011).

5.3 Observing and assessing to meet students’ reading level and comprehension needs

In line with previous research (cf. Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Lipp & Helfrich, 2016; Young, 2019), we argue that observing and assessing students’ reading are of the highest importance. As the main goal of guided reading is adapted education, it must include observing and assessing students’ reading to find their development potential. Taking notes from time to time, like a quick Running Record (cf. Clay, 1993; Lipp & Helfrich, 2016) while students are reading, can provide the teacher with much information that is essential for monitoring student progress. Analysis of these notes can be a point of departure for individual, in-the-moment, teaching points (cf. Hough et al., 2013). Observing and assessing students while reading can also indicate a clear direction for the next guided reading sessions and ensures that the reading instruction fits the students’ reading level. In our observational data (Study 2), we never saw the teachers take notes while the students read. While our observations were limited to one school and one week, this absence was notable and suggests that professional development concerning for guided reading may need to emphasize the role of observational assessment. Our observations are supported by other studies (cf. Ford & Opitz, 2011), concluding that educators should be better informed about the benefits of analyzing students’ reading and transferring that knowledge for instruction.
5.4 Facilitating professional learning

To transfer these three points into actual practice, we argue that teachers need support that leads to reflection and, thereby, to professional development. Kennedy (2016) has described how professional learning must provide such support while also encouraging teachers’ individual judgements, as the most effective for professional development (Kennedy calls these methods strategies and insights). So how can we ensure that in-depth planning, strategies and prompts, and assessments are facilitated with the support that values teachers’ own intellectual judgement?

Inspired by Young (2019), we suggest the creation of in-depth planning sheets, which pose critical questions and lead to discussions amongst grade-level teams or co-teachers to support guided-reading teachers’ professional learning. During planning or development sessions, we also recommend having teachers co-construct lists of potential strategies and prompts that they can use as a reference during the various stages of guided-reading sessions (see Iaquinta, 2006). These could also be used for teachers to track which strategies they have introduced and which they have not yet introduced to reading groups. Furthermore, modeling how text selections can support different types of learning and providing time for teachers to explore across genres would be another important support. Furthermore, how the teacher’s language and linguistic knowledge can be applied to reading guidance, could also be modelled. Videos of teachers observing and assessing guided-reading sessions could also model how to incorporate new ideas into their ongoing systems of practice. Carefully selected and analyzed videos could lead to aha-moments and give teachers new insight about how to follow individual students’ reading progress.

All these supports of facilitating enactment have the goal of bringing guided reading to its full potential, as well as allow that the teacher can reach this goal in different ways. Putting the teacher in the lead position by encouraging choices about what kind of planning sheets and strategies to choose, which texts to select, and how to incorporate assessment and observation routines, would be intellectually engaging. It also emphasizes the teachers’ autonomy and honors teachers’ professional identities.

6. VALUES AND LIMITATIONS

Much of the research on guided reading practices is either quantitative (e.g., Denton et al., 2014; Young, 2019), or qualitative, small-scale studies (e.g., Fisher, 2008; Hanke, 2014; Phillips, 2013; Skidmore et al., 2003; Swain, 2010). A value of our study is the combination of data sources presented by Study 1 and Study 2. For example, in Study 1, the teachers self-report that they emphasize both students’ pre-understanding of text and talking about word meaning. Adding the observational data from Study 2, we discover that the quality and depth of these two literacy aspects were markedly different. The work on pre-understanding appeared to be a
planned practice, where the teachers are intentionally making space for the students’ predictions and comments about the text; while working with words seems to be an unplanned, ad hoc practice and more of a check, than building understanding. In total, both practices were accomplished but at varying levels of depth, with the pre-understanding mirroring recommendations for guided reading, whereas the word work did not reflect the best practices in the field.

Furthermore, this study also has several limitations. Concerning Study 1, there is always a general risk that teachers may over-report in quantitative surveys. Teachers can both misunderstand questions and/or be sensitive to what they think are the best answers (i.e., desirability bias). Likewise, Study 1 did not effectively capture teachers’ depth of practice, although the Likert scale attempted to quantify that. Further, the teachers’ answers in the self-report did not capture much variance of practice. This lack of variance may reflect that teachers’ have a more superficial level of understanding of guided reading and, therefore, answer rather generically. Alternatively, it may reflect that the survey method may not be well suited to study teachers’ guided reading practice. Regarding Study 2, only two teachers are included, which is a very small sample size. However, to consider the representative nature of these two teachers, we used our survey data to confirm that these two teachers were not outliers within the sample. In fact, our survey data revealed that the two teachers self-reported in line with the group of the 70 teachers. Therefore, our sample, although small, may represent aspects of typical practice in Norwegian second-grade classrooms.

7. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Aligned with previous research, guided reading theoretically has a great potential for developing students’ reading, but this study has demonstrated that it can be challenging to fully transfer this practice into the classrooms. Based on the findings in this study, we recommend that professional development and teacher preparation provide support for better planning, intentional use of strategies, and frequent informal assessment to bring guided reading to its full potential. Altogether, these three elements—planning, strategies, and assessment—are intrinsically connected. A well thought out plan has to include an assessment of students’ reading, followed by intended strategies and prompts to improve the students’ ability to read. As follow-up work, we have identified a need to observe in classrooms more broadly and to interview teachers to better understand their rationale behind decisions. Additionally, beyond direct professional development, we see a need for further developing teaching materials and video modules for teachers, which model how these three aspects may work together.
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APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONS

Frequency:
Do you use guided reading (as a part of reading instruction)?

Structure:
How many students are in each group in guided reading?
Do the students change groups in guided reading during the year?
How many times have you changed the groups so far this school year?
How many times did you change the groups after Christmas?
When students are put in groups; How important is it that the students have fairly similar reading skills?
When students are put in groups: How important is it that there is variation in literacy skills within the group?
When students are put in groups; How important are social concerns?
How many times during a week do you use guided reading?

Text selections:
How often do you use texts from common textbooks in guided reading?
How often do you use leveled books in guided reading?
How often do you use student’s own texts in guided reading?
How often do you use reading sheets in guided reading?
How often do you use fiction not obtained from common textbooks in guided reading?
How often do you use nonfiction not obtained from common textbooks in guided reading?

Literacy instruction:
How often do you teach letter knowledge in guided reading?
How often do you focus on students’ pre-understanding of the text in guided reading?
How often do you teach sounding out words in guided reading?
How often do you talk about what words mean in guided reading?
How often do you practice reading whole words in guided reading?
How often do you find the main idea in the text in guided reading?
How often do you practice reading with the correct prosody?
How often do you practice reading irregular words in guided reading?
How often do you talk about punctuation in the text in guided reading?
How often do you talk about the pictures in guided reading?
How often do you describe the style or structure of the text you read in guided reading?
How often do you summarize what you have read in guided reading?