Wisconsin *Foundations of Reading* Study Guide

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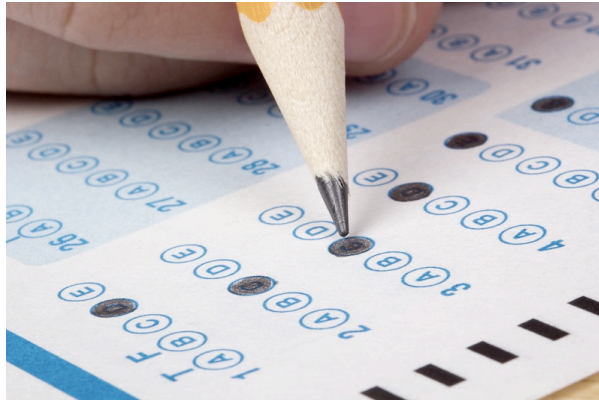jenayaeger@gmail.com

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Table of Contents

MTEL TEST
The complete MTEL Test follows the glossary section and is numbered separately.

Overview of the Test and Resources for Preparation

Key Websites

- **Jennifer's Web Site:**
  - www.jenniferyaeger.weebly.com

- **MTEL Website**
  - The MTEL Foundations of Reading Practice Test: http://www.mtel.nesinc.com/PDFs/MA_FLD090_PRACTICE_TEST.pdf

  - The MTEL Foundations of Reading MTEL Practice Test Analysis:
  - http://www.mtel.nesinc.com/PDFs/MA_FLD090_PT_appendix_13.pdf

- **Put Reading First**

  http://lincs.ed.gov/publications/pdf/PRFbooklet.pdf

- **Reading Rockets**

  http://readingrockets.org

Test Overview Chart: Foundations of Reading (PreK-6) (90)

Subareas	Approximate Number of Multiple-Choice Items	Number of Open-Response Items
I. Foundations of Reading Development	43-45	
II. Development of Reading Comprehension	33-35	
III. Reading Assessment and Instruction	21-23	
IV. Integration of Knowledge and Understanding		2

The Foundations of Reading test is designed to assess the candidate's knowledge of reading/language arts required for the Massachusetts Early Childhood, Elementary, and Moderate Disabilities licenses. This subject matter knowledge is delineated in the Massachusetts Department of Education's *Regulations for Educator Licensure and Preparation Program Approval* (7/2001), 603 CMR 7.06 "Subject Matter Knowledge Requirements for Teachers."

The Foundations of Reading test assesses the candidate's proficiency and depth of understanding of the subject of reading and writing development based on the requirement that the candidate has participated in seminars or courses that address the teaching of reading. Candidates are typically nearing completion of or have completed their undergraduate work when they take the test.

The multiple-choice items on the test cover the subareas as indicated in the chart above. The open-response items may relate to topics covered in any of the subareas and will typically require breadth of understanding of the field and the ability to relate concepts from different aspects of the field. Responses to the open-response items are expected to be appropriate and accurate in the application of subject matter knowledge, to provide high quality and relevant supporting evidence, and to demonstrate a soundness of argument and understanding of the field.

Massachusetts Tests for Educator Licensure ™
FIELD 90: FOUNDATIONS OF READING
TEST OBJECTIVES

Subarea

Multiple-Choice	Range of Objectives	Approximate Test Weight
I. Foundations of Reading Development	01-04	35%
II. Development of Reading Comprehension	05-07	27%
III. Reading Assessment and Instruction	08-09	<u>18%</u>
		80%
Open-Response		
IV. Integration of Knowledge and Understanding	10	**20%**

Charts to Support Study for MTEL

Explicit Instruction	Implicit Instruction
Most important first step in a sequence of instruction	Incidental
Teacher models, demonstrates	For extension and practice; reinforcement of a previously taught skill
Overt objective; measurable	May be many lessons learned or skills developed, but not one primary or measurable objective
Principal could walk in the door and without seeing lesson plan would be able to identify purpose	Purpose may be unclear to an outside observer (or even participant)
Focused	May not appear focused

Multiple Choice: How to approach certain types of questions…	
When multiple Choice Questions Relate to Word Identification	When Multiple Choice Questions Relate to Vocabulary and Comprehension
Think: "Back to Basics"	Think: Which activity would help develop independent readers and critical thinkers?
Traditional approach; may feel rote	Focus is on deep, not superficial understanding
Teacher-driven; very focused	Active learning instead of passive
Explicit, systematic, sequential phonics instruction is of primary importance (use of syntax, semantics, context clues should be considered "back-up plans")	Not "random" assignments, but focused ones

Reading Development and Identification of Gaps

Foundations of Reading Development	What is often the missing part of the equation???	Comprehending and Fluency
Oral Language Phonological Awareness (specifically phonemic awareness) Emergent Literacy Concepts about Print Letter Identification Alphabetic Principle (letters and letter combinations represent sounds) Word Identification: • Phonics • Word Analysis • Sight Words • Use of Context Clues (semantics, syntax)—often observed when students self correct	Schema/Background Knowledge Vocabulary Self-Monitoring (metacognition--application of active reading strategies such as questioning, predicting, connecting)	Literal comprehension Inferential comprehension Analysis of texts Fluency: Sufficient rate, phrasing, intonation, expression (PROSODY) to support and reflect comprehension

Section 0001 Understand Phonological and Phonemic Awareness:

✓ The distinction between phonological awareness (i.e. the awareness that oral language is composed of smaller units, such as spoken words and syllables) and phonemic awareness (i.e. a specific type of phonological awareness involving the ability to distinguish the separate phonemes in a spoken word)

✓ The role of phonological awareness and phonemic awareness in reading development

✓ The difference between phonemic awareness and phonics skills

✓ Levels of phonological and phonemic awareness skills (e.g. rhyming, segmenting, blending, deleting and substituting)

✓ Strategies (e.g., implicit, explicit) to promote phonological and phonemic awareness (e.g. distinguishing spoken words, syllables, onsets/rimes, phonemes)

✓ The role of phonological processing in the reading development of individual students (ELLs, struggling readers, highly proficient readers)

Terminology

Phoneme: a phoneme is the smallest part of *spoken* language that makes a difference in the meaning of words. English has 41 phonemes. A few words, such as *a* or *oh*, have only one phoneme. Most words, however, have more than one phoneme: The word *if* has two phonemes (/i/ /f/); **check** has three phonemes (/ch/ /e/ /k/), and **stop** (/s/ /t/ /o/ /p/) has four phonemes. Sometimes one phoneme is represented by more than one letter.

Grapheme: a grapheme is the smallest part of written language that represents a phoneme in the spelling of a word. A grapheme may be just one letter, such as **b, d, f, p, s;** or several letters, such as **ch, sh, th, -ck, ea, -igh.**

Phonics: The understanding that there is a predictable relationship between phonemes (sounds of **spoken** language) and graphemes (the letters and spellings that represent those sounds in **written** language).

Phonemic Awareness: The ability to hear, identify, and manipulate individual sounds – phonemes – in spoken words. This is purely an auditory skill and does NOT involve a connection to the written form of language.

Phonological Awareness: A broad term that includes phonemic awareness. In addition to phonemes, phonological awareness activities can involve work with rhymes, words, syllables, and onsets and rimes.

Syllable: A word part that contains a vowel, or, in spoken language, a vowel sound.
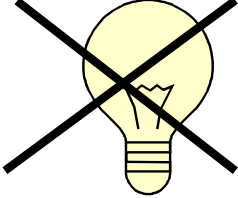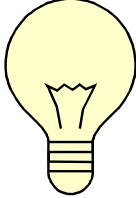
<u>Onset and Rime</u>: Parts of spoken language that are smaller than syllables but larger than phonemes. An onset is the initial consonant sound of a syllable; a rime is the part of a syllable that contains the vowel and all that follows it. **STOP** (st = onset; op = rime)

Teaching Strategies and Resources for Further Study:

Review *Phonemic Awareness Instruction* section (pages 1-10) in <u>Put Reading First</u>. You can read it online or download it from the following address:

<u>www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/PFRbooklet.pdf</u>

Comparison of Phonological Awareness and Phonemic Awareness to Phonics

PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS	PHONICS
Lights Out! **It's Auditory**	**Lights On!** **It's Visual**

The following examples of **phonological awareness skills** are listed in a hierarchy from "basic" to "more complex":
 	
1. Rhyming
2. Syllables
3. Counting words in a sentence
4. Hearing/manipulating onset and rime
5. Phonemic Awareness
   o The most complex level of phonological awareness.
   o The ability to manipulate and identify the individual phonemes in spoken words.
   o Phonemic awareness skills also fall within a hierarchy from "basic" to "complex"
   o Identification of initial sound (e.g. /v/ is the first sound in *van*) is one example of a basic level.
   o Phonemic segmentation is considered a benchmark for demonstrating a complex level of phonemic awareness.
   o Example: How many sounds/ phonemes in ship? /sh/ /i/ /p/=3
   o One of the greatest predictors of reading success.
	o Alphabetic principle.
	o Mapping phonemes to their corresponding letters and letter combinations (graphemes).

Elkonin Boxes: Sounds in Words

Say the word that names the picture. Put a marker in the first box as you say the first sound of the word. Put a marker in the second box as you as you say the second sound of the word. Put a marker in the third box as you say the third sound of the word.
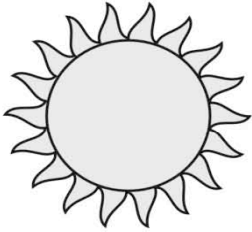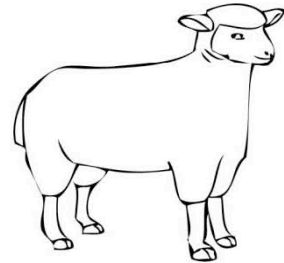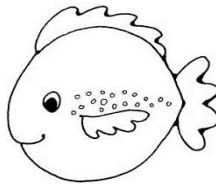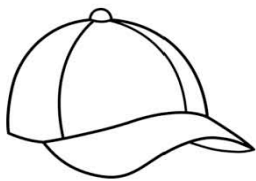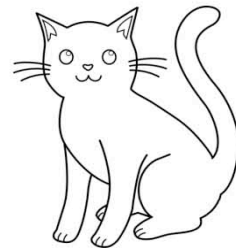
Phonemic Awareness (Excerpted from *Put Reading First*[i]):

What does scientifically based research tell us about phonemic awareness instruction?

Key findings from the scientific research on phonemic awareness instruction provide the following conclusions of particular interest and value to classroom teachers.

Phonemic awareness can be taught and learned.

Effective phonemic awareness instruction teaches children to notice, think about, and work with (manipulate) sounds in spoken language. Teachers use many activities to build phonemic awareness, including:

Phoneme isolation
Children recognize individual sounds in a word.
 Teacher: What is the first sound in **van**?
 Children: The first sound in **van** is /v/.

Phoneme identity
Children recognize the same sounds in different words.
 Teacher: What sound is the same in **fix, fall,** and **fun?**
 Children: The first sound, /f/, is the same.

Phoneme categorization
Children recognize the word in a set of three or four words that has the "odd" sound.
 Teacher: What word doesn't belong? **Bus, Bun, Rug.**
 Children: **Rug** does not belong. It doesn't begin with /b/.

Phoneme blending
Children listen to a sequence of separately spoken phonemes, and then combine the phonemes to form a word. Then they write and read the word.
 Teacher: What word is /b/ /i/ /g/?
 Children: /b/ /i/ /g/ is **big.**

 *Teacher: Now let's write the sounds in **big:** /b/, write **b;** /i/, write **i;** /g/, write **g.**
 *Teacher: (Writes **big** on the board.) now we're going to read the word **big.**

Phoneme segmentation
Children break a word into its separate sounds, saying each sound as they tap out or count it. Then they write and read the word.
 Teacher: How many sounds are in **grab?**
 Children: /g/ /r/ /a/ /b/. Four sounds.
 *Teacher: Now let's write the sounds in **grab:** /g/, write **g;** /r/, write **r;** /a/, write
   a; /b/, write **b.**
 * Teacher: (Writes **grab** on the board.) Now we're going to read the word **grab.**

* Now it's "lights on!" What is the skill? _____

Phoneme deletion
Children recognize the word that remains when a phoneme is removed from another word.
  Teacher: What is **smile** without the /s/?
  Children: **Smile** without the /s/ is **mile**.

Phoneme addition
Children make a new word by adding a phoneme to an existing word.
  Teacher: What word do you have if you add /s/ to the beginning of **park?**
  Children: **Spark.**

Phoneme substitution
Children substitute one phoneme for another to make a new word.
  Teacher: The word is **bug.** Change /g/ to /n/. What's the new word?
  Children: **bun.**

Phonemic awareness instruction helps children learn to read.

Phonemic awareness instruction improves children's ability to read words. It also improves their reading comprehension. Phonemic awareness instruction aids reading comprehension. Phonemic awareness instruction aids reading comprehension primarily through its influence on word reading. For children to understand what they read, they must be able to read words rapidly and accurately. Rapid and accurate word reading frees children to focus their attention on the meaning of what they read. Of course, many other things, including the size of children's vocabulary and their world experiences, contribute to reading comprehension.

Phonemic awareness instruction helps children learn to spell.

Teaching phonemic awareness, particularly how to segment words into phonemes, helps children learn to spell. The explanation for this may be that children who have phonemic awareness understand that sounds and letters are related in a predictable way. Thus, they are able to relate the sounds to letters as they spell words.

Some common phonemic awareness terms:

PHONEME MANIPULATION:
When children work with phonemes in words, they are manipulating the phonemes. Types of phoneme manipulation include blending phonemes to make words, segmenting words into phonemes, deleting phonemes from words, adding phonemes to words, or substituting one phoneme for another to make a new word.

BLENDING
When children combine individual phonemes to form words, they are blending the phonemes. They also are blending when they combine onsets and rimes to make syllables and combine syllables to make words.

SEGMENTING (SEGMENTATION):
When children break words into their individual phonemes, they are segmenting the words. They are also segmenting when they break words into syllables and syllables into onsets and rimes.

Phonological, Phonemic Awareness, Phonics Practice

1. Let's find the pictures that rhyme. That means they have the same ending sound."
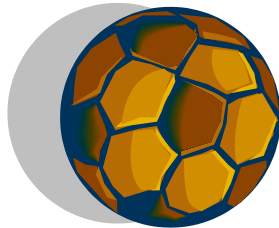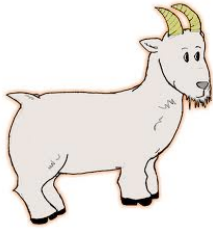
The teacher is developing which skill with the exercise above? _____

2. "Let's match pictures that have the same first sound."
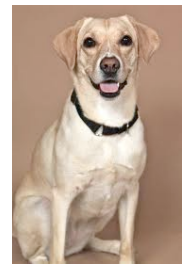
The teacher is developing which skill with the exercise above? _____

3. Imagine a beginning reader reads the sentence below. Notice how the student segments the word, then has to blend it back together. This example shows how _____ supports decoding.

b-i-g
The dog is big.

4. How many sounds in the word BLAST? _____

Section 0002 Understand Concepts of Print & the Alphabetic Principle:

- ✓ Development of the understanding that print carries meaning
- ✓ Strategies for promoting awareness of the relationship between spoken and written language
- ✓ The role of environmental print in developing print awareness
- ✓ Development of book handling skills
- ✓ Strategies for promoting an understanding of the directionality of print
- ✓ Techniques for promoting the ability to track print in connected text
- ✓ Strategies for promoting letter knowledge (e.g., skill in recognizing and naming upper-case and lower-case letters)
- ✓ Letter formation (how to form/write letters correctly)
- ✓ Strategies for promoting an understanding of the alphabetic principle (i.e., the recognition that phonemes are represented by letters and letter pairs)
- ✓ Use of reading and writing strategies for teaching letter-sound correspondence
- ✓ Development of alphabetic knowledge in individual students (English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

Terminology

Alphabetic Principle: phonemes (speech sounds) are represented by letters and letters pairs.

Environmental Print: print found authentically in our environment (stop sign, labels on food).

Emergent Literacy: "There is not a point in a child's life when literacy begins; rather it is a continuous process of learning." This means that we are emerging in our understanding of literacy before we can even speak. Literacy development begins with one's earliest experiences of authentic literacy in the home (from the development of oral language, to having books read to you, to "scribbling" as a precursor to conventional letter formation). On the MTEL, students described as "emergent readers" are typically in an early childhood setting or kindergarten. They have not yet begun formal reading instruction.

Book Handling Skills: Illustrates a child's knowledge of how books "work" (how to hold the book, tracking print from left to right, front and back cover, title page, dedication page etc.)

Add Your Notes on these Topics Here:

Promoting Emergent Literacy in the Classroom

Promoting Book Handling Skills/Concepts of Print

Strategies for Promoting Letter Recognition and Formation

Samples of **Emergent Writing**

WEN I WENT

AWT SIDE IN

MY BAK YRD

I SO A SQRL

SHOOING ON

A PINKON

I WAS VERY

QIWTe BUT VeN

it m a all
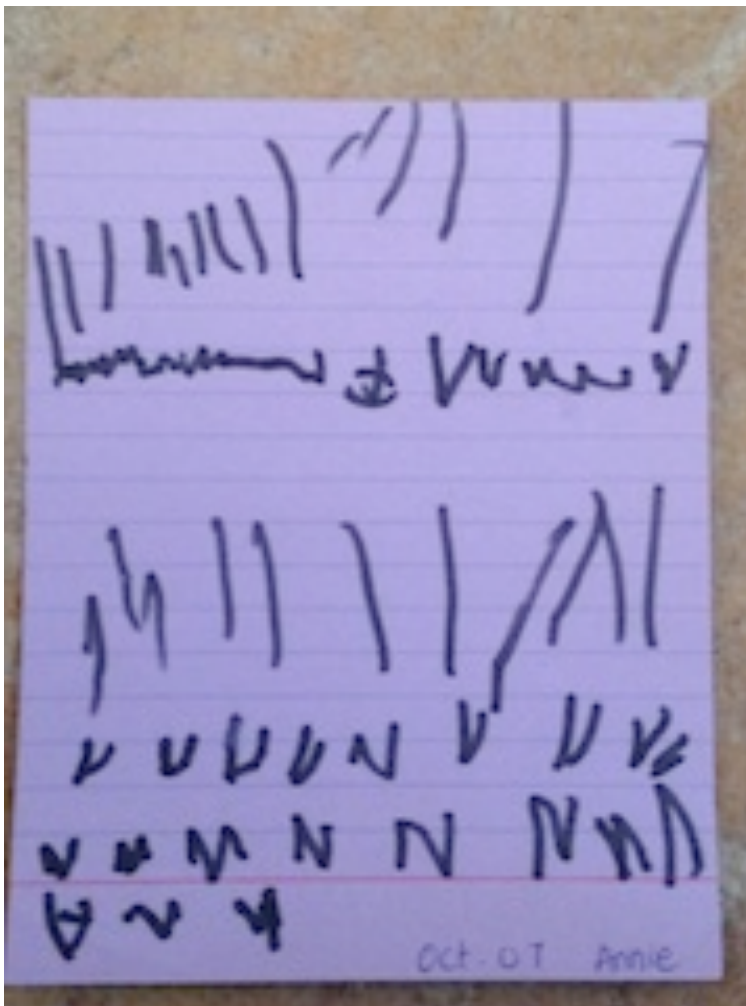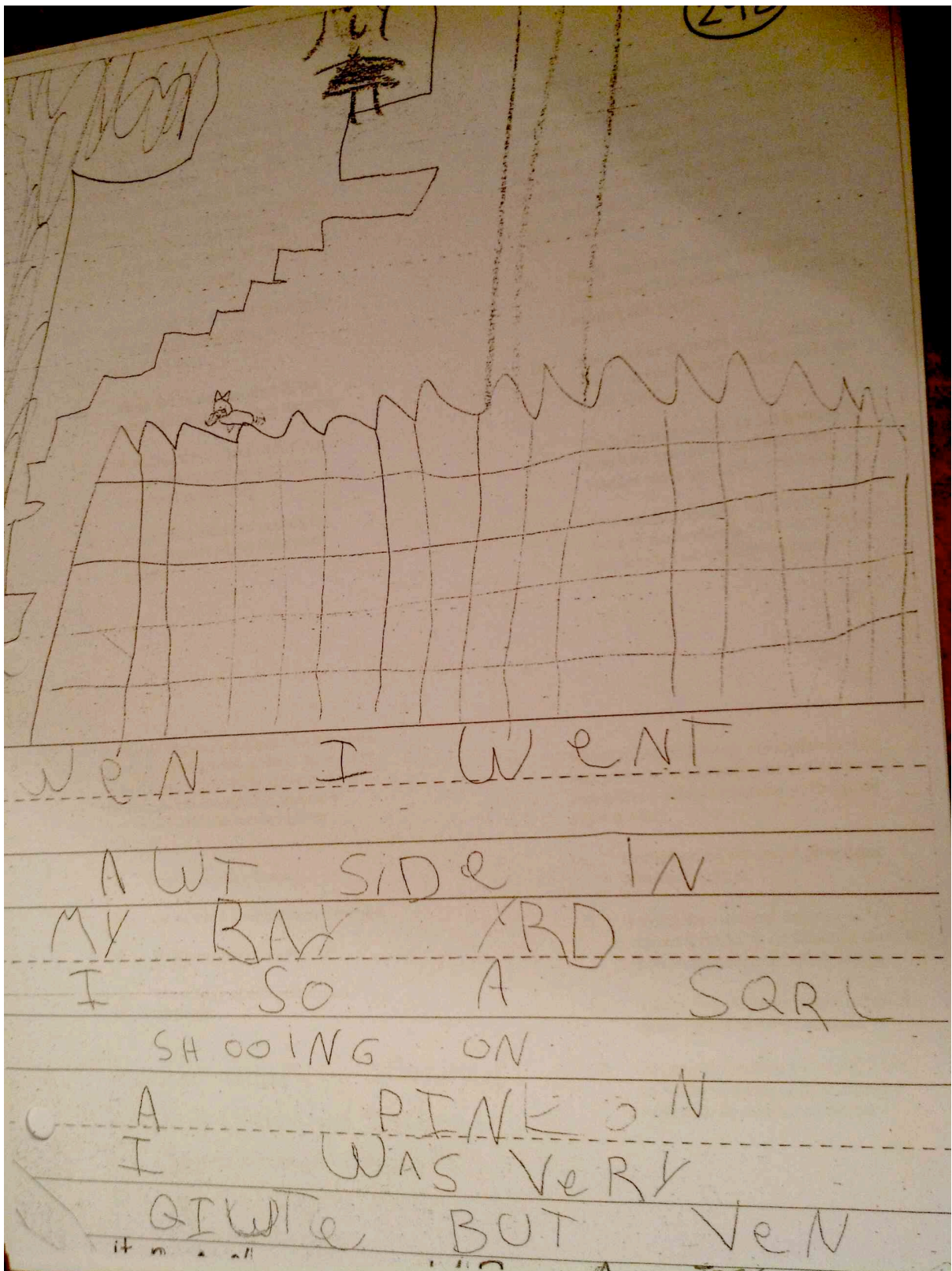
SUBAREA: Foundations of Reading Development (35% of the test)

Section 0003 Understand the Role of Phonics in Promoting Reading Development

- ✓ Explicit and implicit strategies for teaching phonics

- ✓ The role of phonics in developing rapid, automatic word recognition

- ✓ The role of automaticity in developing reading fluency

- ✓ Interrelationship between decoding, fluency and reading comprehension

- ✓ The interrelationship between letter-sound correspondence and beginning decoding (e.g., blending letter sounds)

- ✓ Strategies for helping students decode single-syllable words that follow common patterns (e.g. CVC, CVCC) and multisyllable words

- ✓ Methods for promoting and assessing the use of phonics generalizations to decode words in connected text

- ✓ Use of semantic and syntactic cues to help decode words

- ✓ The relationship between decoding and encoding (e.g. analyzing the spellings of beginning readers to assess phonic knowledge, using spelling instruction to reinforce phonics skills)

- ✓ Strategies for promoting automaticity and fluency (i.e., accuracy, rate, and prosody)

- ✓ The relationship between oral vocabulary and the process of decoding written words

- ✓ Specific terminology associated with phonics (e.g. phoneme, morpheme, consonant digraph, consonant blend)

- ✓ Development of phonics skills in individual students and fluency in individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

Terminology:

Review phonics terms from glossary section in beginning of guide.

Teaching Strategies and Resources for Further Study:

✓ Review *Phonics* section (pages 11-19) in <u>Put Reading First</u>.

✓ Read article on the *Three Cueing Systems* in your study guide.

The Three Reading Cueing Systems[ii]

CONTEXT CLUES

Story Structure

Background Knowledge

Illustrations

Book Knowledge

Semantics
Meaning
Does it make sense?

Grammatical patterns

Onsets and rimes

Punctuation

Syntax
Structure
Does it sound right?

Phonics
Visual
Does it match the print?

Natural language

Letter-sound relations

Conventions of Print

Book language

English syntax

Sight words
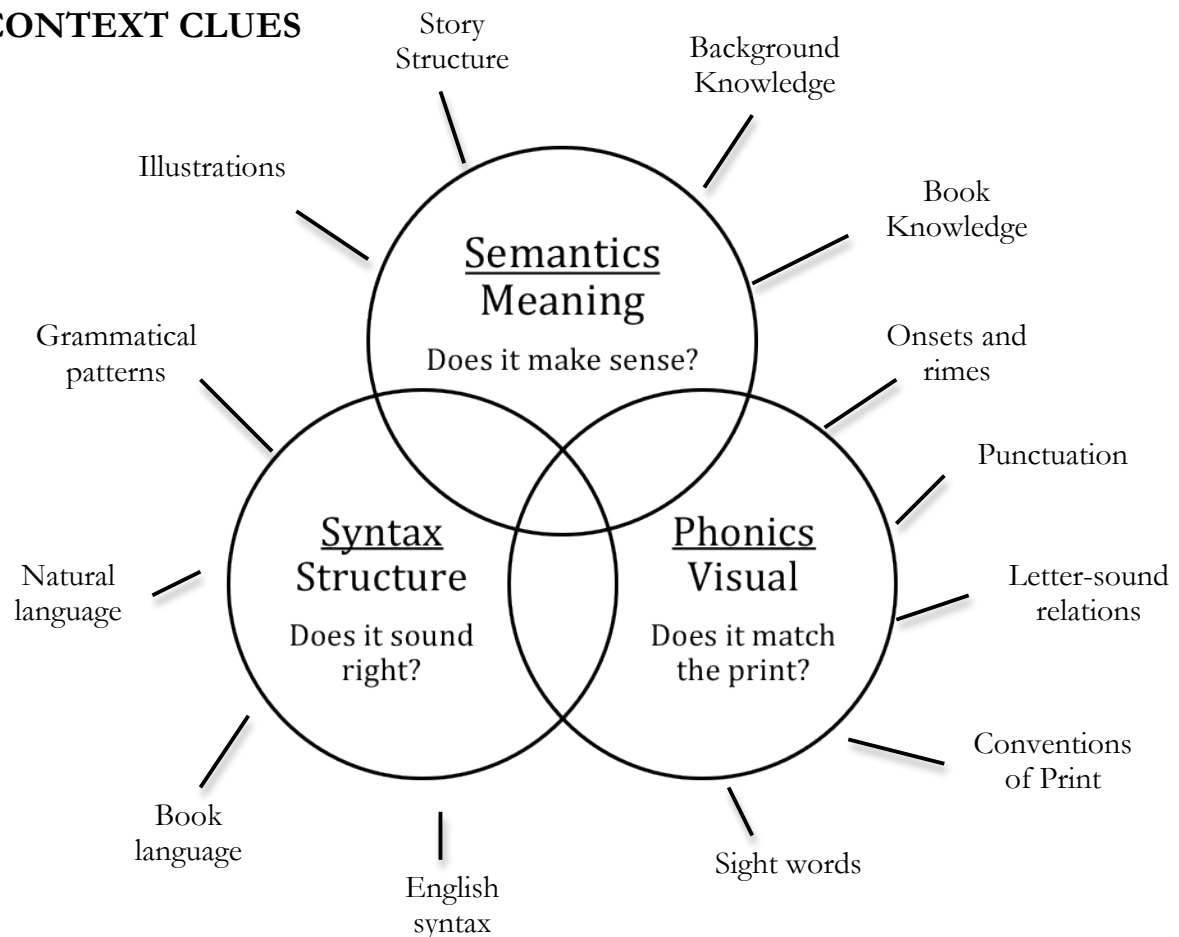
Capable readers use all three cueing systems. Teachers need to teach and asssess for all three cueing systems.

Cueing and Self Monitoring Systems[iii]

Successful independent reading involves integrating three sets of cues. Efficient readers use all three to predict, confirm and self correct as they read.

- **Meaning** or **Semantics**: Readers use their background knowledge of vocabulary and word understanding. They also use the **context** of the sentence, the paragraph or the whole text to figure out what the text is about, and what would make sense. Readers continually evaluate the information they take in, asking:

  "Does this word <u>make sense</u> as I read it?" "What would make sense?"

- **Syntax** or **Language Structure:** Readers use their knowledge of English grammar to make sense of text.

  "Does this <u>sound right</u> as I read it?" "Would we say it that way?" "What would sound right?"

- **Visual** information or **graphophonics:** Readers use information in the text including pictures and print and other knowledge of print conventions including:
  - Format details
  - Details and shapes of letters and words
  - Directionality
  - Voice/print match
  - Letter/sound associations
  - Punctuation

Teachers can help young readers use these cues by modeling and encouraging them to ask themselves questions as they read.

- What would <u>make sense</u> here? (Semantics)
  - Did what I just read make sense? If not, how can I fix it?
  - What word would fit here?
- Does it <u>sound right</u>? (Syntactics) If not, how can I fix it?
- Do the <u>letters match</u> up with what I read? (Visual/Phonics)
  - If not, how can I fix it and still be sure it makes sense and sounds right?

The young children arrived at the park and quickly jumped on the swings.

Reader 1: The young children arrived at the pool [park] and quickly jumped on the swings. [Prompting using meaning: *Does that <u>make sense</u>? Would the children be at a <u>pool</u> if they jumped on the swings?]*

Reader 2: The young children arrived at the park and quickly jump [jumped] on the swings. [Prompting using syntax: *Does that <u>sound right</u>? Would we say it this way: They <u>arrived</u> at the park and <u>jump</u> on the swings?"*]

Reader 3: The young chicken [children] arrived at the park and quickly jumped on the swings. [Prompting using visual/phonics: *Let's <u>look at this word</u> where you said 'chicken'. Read all the way through the word. Notice the middle part of the word. Do these letters say, 'chick'?]*

Important Phonics Generalizations and Terms[iv, v]

	Consonants (C)	**Vowels (V)**
Some useful generalizations about consonants and vowels:	B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P etc Consonant letters are fairly reliable. There is a strong relationship between the letter and the sound we expect it to represent. Consonants represent the dominant sounds in words.	Generally, vowel sounds are considered **short**, such as in the sounds below: A: apple, E: elephant I: igloo O: octopus U: umbrella Or **long**, such as the sounds in the words below: A-say E: tree I: bike O: boat U: cute Vowels are more difficult to learn because each letter is represented by more than one distinct sound; the sound depends on the other letters around it. Vowel sounds are also harder to discriminate (hear, manipulate, identify).
. . .but there are irregularities. . .	A letter may represent more than one phoneme. For example, some consonant letters may produce a hard or soft soft. The **hard c** is the sound of /k/ in *cat*. The **soft c** is the sound of /s/ in *cent*, and *city*. The **hard g** is the sound of /g/ in *game*. The **soft g** is the sound of /j/ in *gem* and *gentle*.	Vowel sounds behave differently in accented and unaccented syllables. The vowel is most clearly heard in the accented syllable.
Final -y		Y functions as a vowel in the final position (e.g. very, merry)

Blends	bl, sm, scr, gr, sl, etc. Blends are consonant pairs or clusters. *Trick to help you remember:* The **bl** in blend is an example…notice that you still hear each sound "through to the **end**" (these letters do NOT make a new sound when combined).	(The term "blend" is generally used when referring to consonants. A dipthong, described below, is the vowel equivalent.)
Digrap**hs (and trigraphs)**	ch, ph, sh, th, wh, tch, gh (final position only), ng (final position only) etc. Two consonant letters that together make a <u>new</u> <u>sound</u>. *Trick to help you remember:* A **digra**p**h** makes me **lau**g**h**. The last two letters in digraph (ph) and in laugh (gh) are connected to form two <u>completely new sounds</u>.	ai, ay, oa, ee, ea Generalization: "When two vowels go walking, the first one does the talking and says its name". These combinations of vowels together make one <u>new sound</u>.
Silent "E"		When a short word ends with an "e", the first vowel usually has the long sound and the final "e" is silent. Word or syllable patterns that follow this generalization: VCe (ape) CVCe (cape) CCVCe (brave)
"R-Controlled Vowels" or **"Vowels followed by *r*"**		When a vowel letter is followed by "r", the vowel sound is neither long nor short (it is different!). *Examples*: "ar" in car, "or" in for, "ir" in bird
Diphthongs		A blend of vowel sounds, where each sound is still heard. The two most agreed upon vowel combinations are "oi" in boil and "ou" in mouth.

Approaches to Phonics Instruction

Synthetic vs. Analytic Approaches to Phonics Instruction:

One definition of **synthetic phonics:**
- a part-to-whole phonics approach to reading instruction in which the student learns the sounds represented by letters and letter combinations, blends these sounds to pronounce words, and finally identifies which phonic generalizations apply. . .[vi]

One definition of **analytic phonics**:

- a whole-to-part approach to word study in which the student is first taught a number of sight words and then relevant phonic generalizations, which are subsequently applied to other words; deductive phonics. See also whole-word phonics.[vii]

Phonics has become an acceptable practice and approach to teaching children to read. However, there are different methods in which it is used, and disagreement over which approach is best.

Synthetic phonics involves the development of phonemic awareness from the outset. As part of the decoding process, the reader learns up to 44 phonemes (the smallest units of sound) and their related graphemes (the written symbols for the phoneme). In contrast, **Analytical Phonics**, also known as the Whole Word approach, involves analysis of whole words to detect phonetic or orthographic (spelling) patterns, then splitting them into smaller parts to help with decoding.[5]

Supporters of **Synthetic phonics** argue that if the systematic teaching of phonics doesn't take place, analytic learners can fall behind and fail to develop the tools they need for decoding words.[6]

Note: While many educators would argue that there is no one approach to reading instruction that works best for all learners, the MTEL test emphasizes the effectiveness of the synthetic approach to phonics instruction.

For More Information on approaches to phonics instruction from the National Reading Panel, see:

Types of Phonics Instruction (including Types of Phonics Instruction and Instructional Methods)

http://www.readingrockets.org/article/254/

Researched-Based Sequence of Instruction for Phonics Knowledge[viii] (According to Chall)

Emergent Readers
- Learn concepts about print
- Build oral language
- Build phonological awareness (e.g. a sense of rhyming)
- Develop knowledge of letter names (letter identification)
- May begin to develop knowledge of alphabetic principle (the sounds associated with letters)

Early/Beginning Readers
Phonics instruction begins with words containing **short** vowel sounds. These words begin with single consonant letters and then include consonant blends (e.g. *cast*) and digraphs (e.g *chat*). Beginning readers (typically in late kindergarten through grade 1) learn consistent phonics generalizations. In other words, they learn to read words that follow predictable patterns.

CVC	CVCC	CCVC	CCVCC
cat	cast	trip	stick
sip	tent	twig	truck
bug	lift	ship	twist
map	fist	chat	blend

Then children are introduced to ways to read words with **long vowel patterns**.

CVCe
The "silent e" pattern.
same
late
bike

CVVC, CCVVC, CVVCC, CCVVCC etc
Next students learn these patterns containing vowel digraphs

rain	train	toast	speech
team	chain	reach	
bait			

SIGHT WORDS
Children at this stage also begin to learn a bank of sight words. These words appear frequently in their reading and writing and need to be memorized: *because, friend, there, when*

Transitional Readers (2nd grade and up)

Students at this level begin to see lots of words that are not necessarily in their oral vocabulary. The patterns may be consistent, but the features become more complex and many words are now multi-syllable. The derivation of these words may indicate their meaning, pronunciation, and spelling.

spoil
place
bright
shopping
carries
chewed
shower
bottle
favor
ripen
cellar
fortunate
pleasure

Fluency

When readers read fluently, they read <u>smoothly, accurately</u> and <u>efficiently</u>. Qualities of fluency include accuracy, appropriate rate, expression, phrasing and intonation.

To build oral reading fluency children need to read books in which they have 95% or greater accuracy. These books are known as independent level books or "just right" books. This means no more than 5/100 errors (95/100 correct). Look out for these statistics when identifying the level of text difficulty appropriate for a student whose goal is to build <u>greater fluency</u>.

What strategies support oral reading fluency?
- Repeated readings of familiar texts
- Echo reading
- Choral reading
- Reader's theater

Why is fluency so important?
- With greater fluency students can focus their cognitive resources on the meaning of the text; they cannot focus on the meaning if they are have a slow rate (word-by-word reading). They cannot focus on the meaning if they are struggling to identify the words on the page.

RUBRIC FOR FLUENCY EVALUATION:

Level 4	Reads primarily in large, meaningful phrase groups. Although some regressions, repetitions, and deviations from text may be present, these do not appear to detract from the overall structure of the story. Preservation of the author's syntax is consistent. Some or most of the story is red with expressive interpretation.
Level 3	Reads primarily in three- or four-word phrase groups. Some smaller groupings may be present. However, the majority of phrasing seems appropriate and preserves the syntax of the author. Little or no expressive interpretation is present.
Level 2	Reads primarily in two-word phrases with some three- or four-word groupings. Some word-by-word reading may be present. Word groupings may seem awkward and unrelated to larger context of sentence or passage.
Level 1	Reads primarily word-by-word. Occasional two-word or three-word phrases may occur – but these are infrequent and/or they do not preserve meaningful syntax.

NAEP's *Scale for Assessing Oral Reading Fluency*[ix]

Examples of Words with Specific Features and Phonics Patterns[x]

long	short	short	long	other	l controlled	r controlled	w changes
a	had	big	ate	sing	all	far	want
	and	did	came	bring	call	start	wash
be	an	in	made	going	fail		walk
he	can	him	make		small	or	
me	ran	sit	take	drink		for	warm
she	am	it	gave	think	tell		
we	at	its			well	first	work
the	that	if	say	thank	help	her	
	ask	wish	may			hurt	
I	fast	six	play	little	will	after	
	Black	pick	they			better	
go		this		funny	full	under	
so	yes	which	see		pull		
no	best	with	green	grow		our	
	get		keep	show			
my	let	got	sleep	own		here	
try	red	hot	three	yellow			
why	then	not					
by	when	off	eat	how			
fly	ten	on	*read	now			
	went	long	clean	down			
	them	stop		brown			
			five				
		run	like	out			
		cut	ride	found			
		but	white	round			
		jump					
		just	light	saw			
		must	right	draw			
		much					
		up	blue	good			
		us	new	look			
				too			
				soon			
				myself			
				open			
				over			

Schwa	s as z, f/v	vowel sub	ending v	silent letters	r exceptions	irregular	sight
again	as	to	give	would	carry	two	one
about	has	do	*live	know		buy	once
around	always	into		write	four		
away	hers	today	have	eight	your	laugh	
	is	together		who			
come	his				every		
some	goes	because	are				
done	please	been	before		their		
from	these	could					
does	those	pretty			there		
what	use	put			where		
	was	said					
		shall			very		
of	you						
		kind					
		find					
		old					
		cold					
		hold					
		both					
		any					
		many					
		never					
		seven					
		upon					
		only					
		don't					
		*read					

Sample Sight/High Frequency Words

PrePrimer	Primer		First	Second		Third
a	all	too	after	always	why	about
and	am	under	again	around	wish	better
away	are	want	an	because	work	bring
big	at	was	any	been	would	carry
blue	ate	well	as	before	write	clean
can	be	went	ask	best	your	cut
come	black	what	by	both		done
down	brown	white	could	buy		draw
find	but	who	every	call		drink
for	came	will	fly	cold		eight
funny	did	with	from	does		fall
go	do	yes	give	don't		far
help	eat		going	fast		full
hers	four		had	first		got
I	get		has	five		grow
in	good		her	found		hold
is	has		him	gave		hot
it	he		how	goes		hurt
jump	into		just	green		if
little	like		know	its		keep
look	must		let	made		kind
make	new		live	many		laugh
me	no		may	off		light
my	now		of	or		long
not	on		old	pull		much
one	our		once	read		myself
play	out		open	right		never
red	please		over	sing		only
run	pretty		put	sit		own
said	ran		round	sleep		pick
see	ride		some	tell		seven
the	saw		stop	their		shall
three	say		take	these		show
to	she		thank	those		six
two	so		them	upon		small
up	soon		then	us		start
we	that		think	use		ten
yellow	there		walk	very		today
you	they		where	wash		together
	this		when	which		try
						warm

*Dolch Sight words as commonly taught in schools – phonetically regular short vowel words ending in a consonant marked in blue[xi]

Section 0004 Understand Word Analysis Skills and Strategies

- ✓ The development of word analysis skills and strategies in addition to phonics, including structural analysis

- ✓ Interrelationships between word analysis skills, fluency, and reading comprehension

- ✓ Identification of common morphemes (e.g., base words, roots, inflections and other affixes)

- ✓ Recognition of common prefixes (e.g. un-, re-, pre-), and suffixes (-tion, -able) and their meanings

- ✓ Knowledge of Latin and Greek roots that form English words

- ✓ Use of syllabication as a word identification strategy

- ✓ Analysis of syllables and morphemes in relation to spelling patterns

- ✓ Techniques for identifying compound words

- ✓ Identification of homographs (i.e., words that are spelled the same but have different meanings and may be pronounced differently [e.g.. bow, part of a ship/bow, to bend from the waist; tear, a drop of water from the eye/tear, to rip])

- ✓ Use of context clues (e.g., semantic, syntactic) to help identify words and to verify pronunciation and meaning of words

- ✓ Development of word analysis and fluency in individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers).

Terminology

Morpheme: any unit in a word is a morpheme (in the word dogs, "dog" and the "s," are both morphemes)

Base Word: A base-word is usually a simple word from which you can build a family of words around it. If you start with "place" you can say places, placing, placings, replace, placement, etc.

Root Word: Root word refers to the origin of a word. For example, "locus" means *place* in Latin. From this root word derives words such as *local, locate, locality, relocation* and phrases like *"in loco parentis."*

Prefix: Morpheme added to the beginning of the word

Suffix: Morpheme added to the end of the word

Inflection: A suffix that changes number, gender, tense, case or form

Affix: Prefixes, suffixes and inflectional endings

Also see homograph, homonym and homophone in the Glossary section under "Teacher Resource Guide"

Analysis of Word Structure: When Decoding Isn't Enough

When reading multisyllabic words, readers may use phonics generalizations to decode--"sound out"-- individual syllables or parts of a longer word; however, *decoding phoneme-by-phoneme is simply not enough*. When encountering multisyllabic words, readers now need to draw on a host of additional strategies to identify unfamiliar words and they need to be able to break apart these unfamiliar words efficiently and strategically. For example, they need to identify smaller words within larger words, notice roots and bases, prefixes and suffixes and so on. They may also break apart words by syllable.

Not only do these skills help the reader identify the word on the page, structural analysis strategies help the reader understand the meaning of the word itself by breaking apart words into "meaning-bearing parts".

Some examples of generalizations taught with multisyllabic words:

Closed Syllables	When a short word (or syllable) with one vowel letter ends in a consonant, the vowel sound is usually short. Word patterns that follow this rule are: VC (am) CVC (ham) CVCC (damp) CCVC (stem)
Open Syllables	When a word or a syllable has only one vowel and it comes at the end of the word or syllable, it usually creates the *long vowel sound*. CV (he, me) CV-CVC (**ti**-ger, **na**-tion, **hu**-man)
Inflectional Endings	Affixes added to the end of words to indicate number (ox/ox**en**, bush/bush**es**) or tense (play**ing**, play**ed**, play**s**)
Syllabication	<u>Examples:</u> sum-mer pre-vent um-brel-la
Compound Words	<u>Examples:</u> hotdog shoelace
Contractions	<u>Examples:</u> have not: haven't can not: can't
Prefixes/Suffixes	<u>Examples:</u> re- un- -able; -ful
Schwa	An unstressed vowel sound, such as the first sound in "around" and the last vowel sound in "custom".

Sample Sort for Prefixes—Example of Structural Analysis[xii]

in-	un-	dis-
mis-	*Out of Sorts*	

uneasy	**insincere**	**dishonest**
misspell	unaware	informal
disbelief	misfortune	unknown
infrequent	disorder	mistake
undress	inhuman	disconnect
misleading	unfasten	inexpensive
disease	mischief	untidy
insane	disrespect	discourage

SUBAREA: Development of Reading Comprehension (27% of the test)

Section 0005 Understand Vocabulary Development:

- ✓ The relationship between oral and written vocabulary development and reading comprehension.

- ✓ The role of systematic, non-contextual vocabulary strategies (e.g., grouping words based on conceptual categories and associative meanings) and contextual vocabulary strategies (e.g. paraphrasing)

- ✓ The relationship between oral vocabulary and the process of identifying and understanding written words

- ✓ Strategies for promoting oral language development and listening comprehension (e.g., read-alouds, word explanation strategies)

- ✓ Knowledge of common sayings, proverbs and idioms (e.g. *It's raining cats and dogs; Better safe than sorry.*)

- ✓ Knowledge of foreign words and abbreviations commonly used in English (e.g. RSVP)

- ✓ Criteria for selecting vocabulary words

- ✓ Strategies for clarifying and extending a reader's understanding of unfamiliar words encountered in connected text (e.g. use of semantic and syntactic cues, use of word maps, use of dictionary)

- ✓ Strategies for promoting comprehension across the curriculum by expanding knowledge of academic language, including conventions of standard English grammar and usage, differences between the conventions of spoken and written standard English, general academic vocabulary and content-area vocabulary (e.g., focus on key words)

- ✓ The importance of frequent, extensive, varied reading experiences in the development of academic language and vocabulary

- ✓ Development of academic language and vocabulary knowledge and skills in individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers).

Terminology:

Oral Vocabulary: The vocabulary one can use appropriately in speech and can understand when heard aloud

Written Vocabulary: The words one can understand when seen in written form.

Semantic Mapping: A strategy that visually displays the relationship among words and helps to categorize them.

Teaching Strategies:

Review *Vocabulary* section (pages 33-45) in Put Reading First.

Denotative and Connotative Meanings

If you were described as young or childish, which would be more appealing? The way you respond deals with the connotations of these words. The **denotation** is the meaning of a word from the dictionary. The **connotation** is the emotional meaning attached to the word in addition to the dictionary meaning. As you begin to read critically, you should be aware of the connotative and denotative meanings of words.

Vocabulary Development[xiii]

Overview:
- Teaching vocabulary improves students' comprehension.
- Students lack deep and meaningful understanding of words.
- Three levels of word knowledge: *unknown, acquainted,* and *established*
- Established level means that the word is easily, rapidly and automatically understand.
- Poor vocabulary is directly connected to reading problems.
- An effective vocabulary program has these components:
    1. Frequent, extensive, and varied experiences
    2. Instruction in individual words
    3. Instruction in learning words independently
    4. Instruction that fosters word consciousness – builds students' interest in words etc.
- The importance of "real" conversations. The result of a longitudinal study about vocabularies of middle class children and those in poverty showed that "the most important difference among families was the amount of talking that went on."
- Reading lots of varied materials, and *discussing* them, builds vocabulary knowledge.
- Wide reading is essential to vocabulary growth. We cannot teach all of the words that students need to learn through direct instruction; word learning comes in large part from students' own reading.
- Reading and writing need to be paired.

Teaching Individual Words: Word-Learning Tasks:
- Many children arrive at school with substantial oral vocabularies: if they do not, the focus should be on helping them develop their understanding of vocabulary words spoken orally.
- Beginning reading instruction should focus on helping children learn to read words already in their spoken vocabularies
- Next, children should be taught vocabulary words that are unknown (but the *concept* is known), such as "pant" (a dog pants). This is especially important for ELLs because they have many concepts, but not the words.
- Teach new words that represent new concepts. This is perhaps the most demanding.
- Clarify and enrich meanings of already known words
- Use graphic organizers such as semantic maps and webs to help students put terms into categories, visualize and make connections, deepen and enrich understanding

Criteria for Choosing Vocabulary Words:
- Is understanding the word important to understanding the selection?
- If students can determine the word from context or structural analysis, let them discover the words independently.
- Can working with this word be useful in furthering students' context, structural analysis, or dictionary skills? (If yes, it will help them learn the word, but also strategies to learn others.)
- How useful is this word outside of the reading selection being currently taught?

Learning to Read Known Words:
- To establish the connection between known words in speaking the written form, children need to see the word at the same time that it is pronounced.
- Wide reading with repetitions of these known words is the most effective strategy.

Learning New Words that Represent New Concepts:
- One effective strategy involves giving examples and NON-EXAMPLES of the concept.

Summing Up:
- Vocabulary instruction should a) include both definitional and contextual information about each word's meaning, b) involve children more actively in word learning, and c) provide multiple exposures to meaningful information about the word.

Word-Learning Strategies:
Key Theme: helping kids develop the independence to use these strategies on their own
- Using context cues (it is important that kids realize that the cues only hint at the word's meaning, they do not necessarily give exact meanings)
- Teaching word parts
- Dictionary skills

Fostering Word Consciousness:
- Modeling
- Word of the day

A great deal of vocabulary can be learned from just reading. Even "children who read just ten minutes a day outside of school experience substantially higher rates of vocabulary growth between second and fifth grade than children who do little reading." (Nagy & Anderson)

When answering multiple choice questions related to vocabulary, consider the purpose:
- Is it to prepare students for content area (e.g. science, history) instruction? If so, teach the concept words that are unfamiliar and necessary to understand the topic.
- If the question is asking about preparing students to understand literary texts, consider the words that would be helpful to know in this text, but also in others (words that would provide more "bang for the buck"). These words are also known as Tier II words (Beck).

Example:
What does <u>pedantic</u> mean?

<u>Random House, Webster's Dictionary</u>: overly concerned with minute details or formalisms, esp. in teaching

<u>Collins Thesaurus of English Language</u>: hairsplitting, particular, formal, precise, fussy, picky (informal); punctilious, priggish, pedagogic, pompous, erudite, didactic, bookish (formal)

His lecture was pedantic and uninteresting.

Semantic Map (example)

Synonyms
Enemy
Opponent
Competitor
Antagonist
Rival
Attacker
Foe

Emotions
Trap
Danger
Vulnerability
Rage
Anger
Anxiety

Adversary

Related Words
Adversarial
Adverse
Adversity

Antonyms
Friend
Ally
Assistant
Colleague
Teammate
Supporter
Backer

examples

Superman-Lex Luther
Republicans-Democrats
Liberals-Conservatives
Hatfields-McCoys
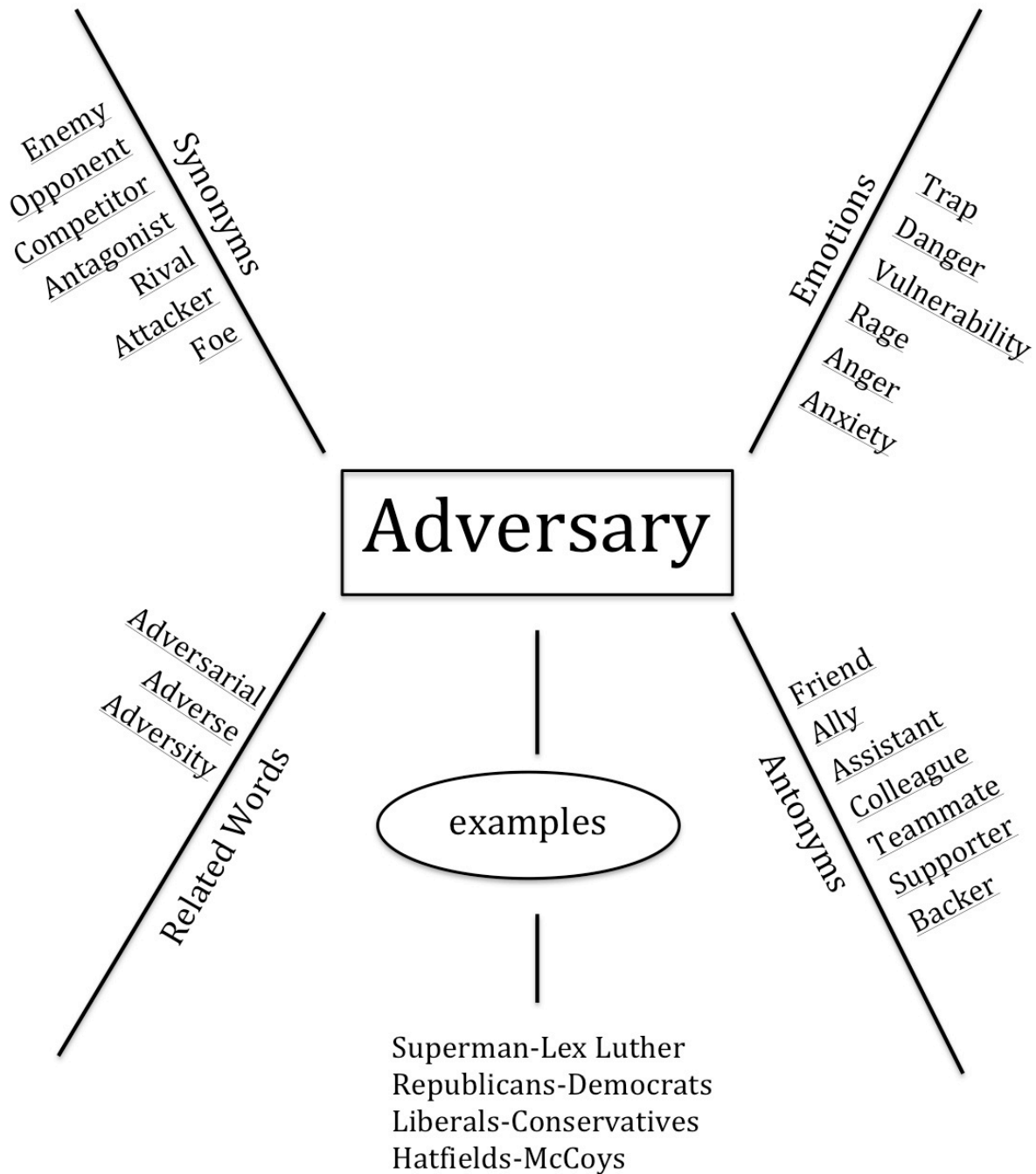
Vocabulary Tiers
By: Isabel Beck[xiv]

Tier 3
Domain-Specific Science/History e.g. volcano, atmosphere
Tier 2
More sophisticated synonyms for words many children will know e.g. generous, bawl, whine, infant
Tier 1
Require no instruction; concepts already familiar; words familiar e.g. kind, cry, baby

The siblings waited anxiously for the news from the surgeon. When she walked through the doors into the corridor, they took one look at her face and began to bawl with elation.

Section 0006   Understand How to Apply Reading Comprehension Skills and Strategies to Imaginative/Literary Texts

- ✓ Knowledge of reading as a process to construct meaning

- ✓ Knowledge of reading comprehension and analysis skills for reading literature (e.g., analyzing a text's key ideas and details, interpreting an author's use of craft and structure, integrating knowledge and ideas from multiple literary works)

- ✓ Knowledge of levels of reading comprehension (i.e., literal, inferential and evaluative) and strategies for promoting comprehension of imaginative/literary texts at all three levels

- ✓ Strategies for promoting close reading of imaginative/literary texts

- ✓ Development of literary response skills (e.g. connecting elements in a text to prior knowledge and other sources; using evidence from a text to support analyses, develop summaries, and draw inferences and conclusions)

- ✓ Development of literary analysis skills (e.g. identifying features of different literary genres, analyzing story elements, analyzing character development, interpreting figurative language, identifying literary allusions, analyzing the author's point of view)

- ✓ Use of comprehension strategies to support effective reading (e.g., rereading, visualizing, reviewing, self-monitoring and other metacognitive strategies)

- ✓ Use of oral language activities to promote comprehension (e.g. retelling, discussion)

- ✓ The role of reading fluency in facilitating comprehension

- ✓ Use of writing activities to promote literary response and analysis (e.g., creating story maps and other relevant graphic organizers; comparing and contrasting different versions of a story, different books by the same author, or the treatment of similar themes and topics in different texts or genres)

- ✓ Development of reading comprehension skills and strategies for individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

Terminology:

Literal, Inferential and Evaluative Questions (see page that follows)

Metacognitive Strategies: These are strategies that help the reader become more aware of their own reading process, their thoughts as they read, and help the reader to have more control over their reading. For example, noticing when comprehension breaks down and using "fix-up" strategies, such as rereading or paraphrasing, to comprehend.

Graphic Organizers: Visual "maps" or diagrams that help the reader organize the information they read. A story map is one type of graphic organizer. It allows the reader to organize the elements of a story (characters, setting, events, problem, solution).

Levels of Comprehension

Levels (from the more basic to the more complex)	Definition	Examples
Literal --Often determined through a retelling in which the student can repeat back the sequence of events and identify key story elements (e.g. who, what, when, where)	Information that is stated <u>explicitly</u> in the text such as who, what, when, where, why. You can find the information "right there" on the page…just *read the lines*.	**Excerpt from Text:** *It was a bright, sunny day in April, and the flowers were in bloom.* **When does the story take place?** <u>A sunny day in April.</u> **What was in bloom?** <u>Flowers.</u>
Inferential	Information that is <u>implied</u> within the text, but not directly or explicitly stated. The reader needs to "search and find" clues within the text and then *read between the lines.*	**Excerpt from Text:** *Annie burst out of the house in her bare feet. She took a deep breath, filling her lungs with the warm air and let her toes discover the fresh grass for the first time in months.* **When do you think the story takes place? Provide evidence.** <u>The story probably takes place in the beginning of spring. The fact that Annie burst out of the house may indicate that she was excited by the change in season. The text indicates that she didn't wear shoes (so it had to be warm enough) and that she hadn't been outside in bare feet "for months".</u>
Evaluative	The reader needs to use information from the text and their own world experiences to form a judgment.	**The question might sound like this:** Do you think (character in the text) made the right choice for her family? Explain using text evidence.

"Salvador Late or Early" Sandra Cisneros

Salvador with eyes the color of caterpillar, Salvador of the crooked hair and crooked teeth, Salvador whose name the teacher cannot remember, is a boy who is no one's friend, runs along somewhere in that vague direction where homes are the color of bad weather, lives behind a raw wood doorway, shakes the sleepy brothers awake, ties their shoes, combs their hair with water, feeds them milk and cornflakes from a tin cup in the dim dark of the morning.

Salvador, late or early, sooner or later arrives with the string of younger brothers ready. Helps his mama, who is busy with the business of the baby. Tugs the arms of Cecilio, Arturito, makes them hurry, because today, like yesterday, Arturito has dropped the cigar box of crayons, has let go the hundred little fingers of red, green, yellow, blue, and nub of black sticks that tumble and spill over and beyond the asphalt puddles until the crossing-guard lady holds back the blur of traffic for Salvador to collect them again.

Salvador inside that wrinkled shirt, inside the throat that must clear itself and apologize each time it speaks, inside that forty-pound body of boy with its geography of scars, its history of hurt, limbs stuffed with feathers and rags, in what part of the eyes, in what part of the heart, in that cage of the chest where something throbs with both fists and knows only what Salvador knows, inside that body too small to contain the hundred balloons of happiness, the single guitar of grief, is a boy like any other disappearing out the door, beside the schoolyard gate, where he has told his brothers they must wait. Collects the hands of Cecilio and Arturito, scuttles off dodging the many schoolyard colors, the elbows and wrists crisscrossing, the several shoes running. Grows small and smaller to the eye, dissolves into the bright horizon, flutters in the air before disappearing like a memory of kites.

Before-During-After Reading Strategies[xv]

Before Reading:

The reader develops a plan of action by:
- Activating and building upon prior knowledge and experiences
- Predicting what text is about based on text features, visuals, and text type
- Setting a purpose for reading

An *Anticipation Guide* is an example of a Before Reading Strategy.

During Reading:

The reader maintains and monitors a plan of action by:
- Connecting new texts with prior knowledge and experiences
- Checking predictions for accuracy
- Forming sensory images
- Making inferences
- Determining key vocabulary
- Interpreting the traits of main characters
- Self-monitoring own difficulty in decoding and comprehending text
- Interpreting diagrams, maps, and charts
- Posing how, why and what questions to understand and/or interpret text
- Recognizing cause-effect relationships and drawing conclusions
- Noticing when comprehension problems arise

A *Character Map* is an example of a During Reading Strategy.

After Reading:

The reader evaluates a plan of action by:
- Discussing accuracy of predictions
- Summarizing the key ideas
- Connecting and comparing information from texts to experience and knowledge
- Explaining and describing new ideas and information in own words
- Retelling story in own words including setting, characters, and sequence of important events
- Discussing and comparing authors and illustrators
- Reflecting on the strategies that helped the most and least and why

A *Semantic Map* is an example of an After Reading Strategy.

Literacy Guide:[xvi]

STRATEGIES FOR SUCCESSFUL READERS AND WRITERS

Successful readers and writers need to learn and practice a number of strategies to use Before, During, and After Reading.

The following pre-reading activities can help students to:

- Activate Background Knowledge and Make Connections
- Stimulate Predictions
- Form a Purpose for Reading

Predicting:

- Examine the cover illustration (if there is one) and read the title of new book. Ask child to predict what it might be about based on either the cover picture, the title, or both. If the title and illustration are not helpful in giving the student a sense of what the story is about, you can provide a brief summary of the book. For example, when looking at a book with a picture of a cat on the front, you can say: "This story is about a cat that moves to a new house and has some adventures while trying to make new friends."

Activating Background Knowledge:

- Ask the student to tell you what he or she knows about the subject of the story or if he or she has had similar experiences, or heard or read a story like this or by same author. "You said you have a cat. Tell me what your cat does all day and who its friends are. What kind of friends do you think the cat in this book might find?" if the topic is totally unfamiliar, reconsider book choice, or take extra time to build the necessary background knowledge through some kind of concrete experiences. For example, if you choose a book about a farm and the student has never been to a farm you may want to begin by looking at pictures of farms and farm animals, and having a brief discussion about what kinds of things happen on farms: what animals live there, what things grow on farms, etc.

Conducting Picture Walk:

- With Emergent and Early readers conduct a "Picture Walk" through the book, or chapter, by covering the print, and encouraging or guiding the student in a discussion of what could be going on based on the pictures. If there is vocabulary that may not be familiar to child such as "cupboard" or "bonnet" point the words out and explain them in connection with the teeny tiny woman is putting on her hat, except in this book it's called a 'bonnet' (pointing to the word) which is another word for hat. She is putting on her teeny tiny bonnet. Do you think she is getting ready to go somewhere? "In your discussion of the pictures, be sure to use as much of the actual book language as possible, especially if there are repeated patterns or refrains. (*The Teeny Tiny Woman*, Barbara Seeling).

Noticing Structure of the text:

- Where appropriate, point out or help the child notice the structure of the text and connect it with other similarly structured texts heard or read. "Yes, this is a fairy tale. We've read several fairy tales together. What do you know about fairy tales? What have you noticed that is the same about the three tales we read?"

Forming Purpose for Reading:

- Formulate and encourage the student to come up with two or three predictions or questions before reading. "This is a story about a boy who wants a dog, but his mother won't let him have one. What do you think he is going to do first? Why do you think that?" "You already know a lot about dinosaurs. What are some things you think you might learn when reading this book?"

ASKING QUESTIONS

An important strategy to use before, during and after reading to enhance interest and comprehension[xvii]

Engaging students in a dialogue about something they are about to read can clarify their thinking and help you find out what they already know or expect from the material. Questions and discussion also clarify understanding during and after reading. One way to begin this dialogue is through asking questions that elicit responses reflecting the student's thoughts and understandings about the reading.

Too often questions are used only at the end of reading, asked by the teacher or tutor to check comprehension. In fact, successful readers ask themselves questions throughout the reading process. Beginning readers need modeling and practice to learn how to do this.

Effective questions encourage real thinking, not just yes or no answers. Notice too different kinds of questions require different ways of finding the answer:

- **Factual or "right there"** questions can be answered with a single word or phrase found right in the story: "When did the story take place?" "It was midnight, the 25th of October…"
- **Inference or "think and search"** questions require finding and integrating information from several places in the story and relating one's own knowledge as well. "When did the story take place?" "The harvest moon hung high in the sky, shining on the field of ripe orange pumpkins waiting to be picked for Halloween…"Using our background knowledge of concepts like "harvest" and "Halloween" as well as the words "ripe pumpkins" we figure out that this story takes place one night in late October, even though those words aren't used in the text.
- **"In the head" or "On my own"** questions require bringing in one's own information, (background knowledge). These can be answered without reading from the book. "We have read a lot of fairy tales, what kinds of things usually happen in fairy tales?" Or, "You told me you have a cat. What might happen in a story called *Puss in Boots*? Do you think it could be true?"
- Remember to focus on the positive as aspects of the child's responses to encourage future attempts.

Questions before reading should help the reader:

- **Make connections** between background knowledge and the topic of the book: "This book is about Anansi the Spider: do you remember the other Anansi book we read? What kind of character is Anansi? What kinds of things did he do in the story? How do you suppose he will behave in this book?"
- **Set a purpose** for reading: "Here is a new book about sea turtles. What are some things that you would like to learn about these creatures?"
- **Make predictions:** "The title of this book is *The Missing Tooth*, (Cole, 1988). Who do you suppose the two boys on the cover are, and what do you think this book might be about? What happens to you when you lose a tooth?"

Questions during reading should help the reader:

- **Clarify and review** what has happened so far: "What are some of the things that made Arlo and Robby such good friends?"
- **Confirm or create new predictions:** "Now that one boy has lost a tooth, so they aren't both the same, what's going to happen? I wonder if they will stay friends:"
- **Critically evaluate the story and make personal connections:** "Could this really happen – that two good friends could have a fight because one of them had something the other wanted? How would you feel if you were Robby? What would you do?"
- **Make connections with other experiences or books:** "Does this remind you of another story/character, what happened in that story? Could that happen here?"
- **Monitor the child's reading for meaning and accuracy:** "Did that word 'horned' make sense? What is a 'horned toad'?"

Questions after reading will help:

- **Reinforce the concept** that reading is for understanding the meaning of the text, and making connections: "In this story about Amy's first day in school how did she feel before going into her classroom? How did you feel on your first day?"
- **Model ways of thinking** Through and organizing the information they have taken in from reading a text: "What did Amy's teacher do when she walked into the classroom? How does Amy feel now? How do you know that?"
- **Encourage critical thinking** and personal response: "What do you think might have happened if the teacher had not done that? Why do you think the author decided to write this story? Would you have done what Amy did?"
- **Build awareness** of common themes and structures in literature: "What other story or character does this sound like? What parts are the same? What parts are different?"

When children respond to your questions it is important to listen carefully to what they say, and to respond to any questions they may have. Also, if a student has misunderstood a section of a story you may want to go back to that part of the book and reread it, clarifying any difficult vocabulary if necessary, to help the student understand what is going on.

You might say:

> "You said that the rabbit was laughing at the pig at the end, but you know, I remember something different. Lets look at that part of the book again and see what it says." (Then reread the appropriate segment of the book.)

"Here it says: 'The rabbit ran through the door and slipped past the man who was laughing at the pig.' Do you know what it means when someone "slips past" something?..."

The most important thing, however, when talking about a story with a child is to let them know that their ideas about what they have read are important and that you value what they have to say.

Literary Text Matrix: Fiction, Literary Nonfiction, and Poetry[xviii]

	Genre Type of Text	Text Structure and Features	Author's Craft
Fiction	• Adventure Stories • Realistic Fiction • Historical Fiction • Folktales • Legends • Fables • Tall Tales • Myths	• Themes • Morals • Lessons Organization • Plot – Sequence of Events • Conflict • Solution • Resolution Elements • Setting Characterization	• Diction and Word Choice • Dialogue • Exaggeration Figurative Language • Symbolism • Simile • Metaphor
Literary Notification	• Personal Essay • Autobiography and Biography	Organization • Description • Cause and Effect • Comparison • Chronology Elements • Point of View • Themes or Central Ideas • Logical Connections • Transitions	• Diction and Word Choice • Use of Action or Dialogue to Introduce Characters • Exaggeration • Figurative Language • Symbolism • Simile and Metaphor
Poetry	• Narrative poem • Lyrical poem • Humorous poem • Free Verse	Organization • Verse • Stanza Text Features • Repetition • Dialogue • Line Organization • Patterns Elements • Rhyme Scheme • Rhythm • Mood	• Diction and Word Choice • Exaggeration • Use of Imagery to Provide Detail • Figurative Language • Simile and Metaphor • Alliteration • Onomatopoeia

Checklist for Analyzing Literary Characters

DID WE DISCUSS...

_____ Main Character/s and other important character/s?

_____ Character feelings and changes over time?

_____ Character personality traits and changes over time?

_____ Character motives/goals and changes over time?

_____ Character relationships and changes over time?

_____ Connection to character/s from other stories?

_____ Story theme?

SUBAREA: Development of Reading Comprehension (27% of the test)

Section 0007 Understand How to Apply Reading Comprehension Skills and Strategies to Informational/Expository Texts

- ✓ Knowledge of reading comprehension and analysis skills for reading informational text (e.g., explaining key ideas and details in an informational text, analyzing the craft and structure used in an expository or persuasive text, integrating knowledge and ideas from multiple print or digital sources)

- ✓ Knowledge of levels of reading comprehension (i.e., literal, inferential and evaluative) and strategies for promoting comprehension of informational/expository texts at all three levels

- ✓ Strategies for promoting close reading of informational/expository texts, including strategies for identifying point of view, distinguishing facts from opinions, analyzing multiple accounts of the same event or topic, determining how an author uses reasons and evidence to support particular points in a text, and detecting faulty reasoning in informational/expository texts

- ✓ Use of reading strategies for different texts and purposes (e.g., adjusting reading rate based on text difficulty, skimming/scanning)

- ✓ Use of comprehension strategies to support effective reading (e.g., rereading, visualizing, self-questioning, paraphrasing)

- ✓ Use of oral language activities to promote comprehension (e.g., using evidence in an informational/expository text to explain concepts, events, ideas, or procedures)

- ✓ The role of reading fluency in facilitating comprehension of informational/expository texts

- ✓ Use of writing activities to promote comprehension (e.g. student-generated questioning, note-taking, outlining, summarizing, semantic maps)

- ✓ Knowledge of text structures (e.g. chronological, comparison/contrast, cause/effect)

- ✓ Use of text features (e.g. index, glossary), graphic features (e.g., illustrations, charts, maps), and reference materials

- ✓ Application of comprehension strategies to electronic texts

- ✓ Development of students' ability to apply reading comprehension skills for varied purposes

- ✓ Development of the reading comprehension skills and strategies of individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers).

Terminology:

Informational/Expository Texts: These are factual materials for science, social studies, and other content areas, as well as "concept books" for the very young dealing with the alphabet or relationships of time, space, amount. These books explain something to children or teach them how to do something.

INFORMATIONAL/EXPOSITORY TEXTS[xix]

What are the unique features of informational texts?

Informational texts…

- Have a purpose to convey information about the natural or social world
- Enables nonlinear reading
- Has an index, table of contents, headings
- Diagrams, charts, graphs, captions
- Realistic illustrations, photographs
- Timeless verbs, generic nouns
- Specialized vocabulary, italicization, boldfacing
- Particular text structures

What can we do to increase comprehension of informational texts?

- Increase availability of informational texts.
- Increase exposure.
- Increase instructional time with informational text.
- Increase explicit teaching of comprehension strategies, along with lots of opportunities for guided and independent practice.
- Increase attention to the unique features of informational text.
- Ensure that informational text is used for authentic purposes as much as possible.

Informational Text Matrix: Exposition, Procedural Text or Documents, and Argumentation and Persuasive Text[xx]

	Genre Type of Text	Text Structure and Features	Author's Craft

Exposition	• Informational Trade Book
	• Textbook
	• News Article
	• Feature Article
	• Encyclopedia Entry
	• Book Review
		Organization
		  • Description
		  • Sequence
		  • Cause and Effect
		  • Problem and Solution
		  • Comparison and Contrast
		Content Features
		  • Point of View
		  • Topics or Central Ideas
		  • Supporting Ideas and Evidence
		Graphic Features
		  • Titles
		  • Subheadings
		  • Italics
		  • Captions
		  • Sidebars
		  • Photos and Illustrations
		  • Charts and Tables
			• Transition Words
			• Signal Words
			• Figurative Language and Rhetorical Structures (Parallel Structure, quotations, examples, repetition, logical arguments)

Procedural Text and Documents	• Recipe
	• Schedule
	• Map
	• Directions
	• Table
	• Graph
	• Time Line
		Organization
		  • Description
		  • Procedures
		  • Sequence
		Graphic Features
		  • Titles
		  • Labels
		  • Headings
		  • Subheadings
		  • Captions
		  • Sidebars
		  • Photos and Illustrations
		  • Charts and Graphs
		  • Legends	

Informational Text Structure: Definitions & Signal Words
(Adapted from Dole, 1997)

Type of Informational Text Structure	Definition	Signal Words
Chronological/Sequential/ Temporal	A main idea supported by details, which must be in a particular order.	Until, before, after, next, finally, lastly, first/last, then, on (dates), at (time)
Descriptive/Enumerative	A major idea supported by a list of details or examples, which may occur in any order.	For example, for instance, in particular, in addition. Note: Varies with text reads more like fiction.
Cause and Effect	The supporting details give the causes of a main idea or the supporting details are the results produced by the main idea.	Since, because, this lead to, on account of, due to, may be due to, for this reason, consequently, then, so, therefore, thus
Compare/Contrast	The supporting details of two or more main ideas indicate how those concepts are similar or different.	In like manner, likewise, similarly, the difference between, as opposed to, after all, however, and yet, but nevertheless
Problem/Solution	A subordinate structure that provides a problem and solution, which may employ any (or all) of the preceding structures.	One reason for that, a solution, a problem
Question/Answer	A subordinate structure that provides a question and answer, which may employ any (or all) of the first four structures.	How, when, what, where, why , who, how, many, the best estimate, it could be that, one may conclude

Note: Most informational text employs more than one text structure.

Section 0008 Understand Formal and Informal Methods for Assessing Reading Development:

- ✓ The use of data and ongoing reading assessment to adjust instruction to meet students' reading needs

- ✓ The characteristics and uses of standardized criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests to assess reading development and identify reading difficulties

- ✓ Concepts of validity, reliability, and bias in testing

- ✓ The characteristics and uses of formal and informal reading-related assessments (e.g. assessment of phonemic awareness, miscue analyses, Informal Reading Inventories, running records, use of rubrics, portfolio assessment, assessment of authentic tasks)

- ✓ Characteristics and uses of group verses individual reading assessments

- ✓ Techniques for assessing particular reading skills (e.g. oral or written retellings to assess comprehension, dictated word lists to test letter-sound knowledge)

- ✓ Awareness of text leveling

- ✓ Awareness of the challenges and supports in a text (e.g. pictures, predictability, decodability)

- ✓ Techniques for determining students' independent, instructional and frustration reading levels

- ✓ Assessment of the reading development of individual students

Terminology:

Cloze Procedure: A versatile, informal instrument for use in determining a student's reading level, use of context while reading, and knowledge of vocabulary. Sometimes used as an alternative to the Informal Reading Inventory for determining reading levels, students read a selection in which random words are deleted a replaced with blank spaces. Students are directed to read the selection and fill in the blanks with words they think would best complete the sentence.

Ongoing Reading Assessment: Assessment made on a regular basis through a variety of means, both formal and informal. The purpose is to document progress the student makes in reading, while also identifying areas that need instruction. "Kid watching" is one important type of ongoing reading assessment. In this case, notes are made in a systematic way about students' reading behaviors.

Criterion-Referenced Tests: Tests based on objectives that contain specific conditions, outcomes, and criteria that are expected for satisfactory completion of the task.

Norm-Referenced Tests: A norm-referenced test (NRT) provides information on how well a student performs in comparison to an external reference group or norm group.

<u>Miscue Analysis</u>: Analysis of any responses (mistakes) made during oral reading that deviate from those anticipated

<u>Informal Reading Inventories</u> (IRIs): A compilation of graded reading selections with comprehension questions accompanying each selection. This inventory is individually administered to determine the student's strengths and weaknesses in word recognition and comprehension.

<u>Running Records:</u> The running record is an in-depth observation task that allows the teacher to determine:

- Text difficulty.
- Student placement in groups or materials.
- The directional movement of the child in reading connected text.
- The child's ability to coordinate oral language with the visual patterns in text.
- The child's speed of responding, a measure of the child's ability to slow oral language enough to rectify an oral reading error through self-correction.
- They type of cues the child uses to process printed language (meaning, syntax, or visual) about printed text with another type of information.
- The child's self-correction behavior

<u>Rubrics</u>: A set of scoring guidelines for evaluating student work.

<u>Portfolio Assessment</u>: Assessment made on the systematic collection of student work for use in evaluating changes in student performance in reading and language

Notes on Reading Assessments[xxi]

Individual Assessments

Informal Reading Inventories (IRIs)
- Test grade level passages from which children read aloud
- Primary purpose is to determine a student's independent reading level and to reveal processes that the student uses or neglects in decoding print
- By looking at processes (strategies) the student is or is not using, the teacher can then design appropriate instruction
- Strengths and needs are determined by a post-test analysis of what the child does when reading aloud
- Typically a word list is used as the initial assessment to determine the appropriate passage at which to start
- The standard cut-off is 80%. Once the child misses more than 20% of the words from a particular list, you turn to the reading passages and start a level or two below the highest level that the child could read.
- Then the child reads aloud and the teacher marks the behavior the student exhibits during reading (e.g. words the child skips over, inserts, omits, etc)
- The purpose of this assessment is to determine the independent reading level (highest passage scored at 95% accuracy or above) and the areas of decoding needing attention.
- There may be comprehension questions after the IRI passage is scored. Usually the child is asked to read again silently, this time focusing on comprehension
- Sometimes this child is asked to retell what was read: "Start at the beginning…"

Running Records
- More flexible, "on the run"
- Can be completed with any text the child is reading
- Check marks on a blank page indicate words read correctly
- Ran/Rat= ran is what the child said; rat is the correct word in the text

Miscue Analysis
- When analyzing on the test, it is important to keep in mind "test reality" vs. "real reality" (analysis of errors below indicates ways of interpreting according to "test reality")
- Some types of errors show more progress than others
- Omissions: high numbers show the child is not using any strategies to decode the print
- High number of initial letter attempts and substitutions can reflect that the child has emerging decoding skills; at least the child is attempting to decode – instruction would then focus on helping child become more skilled in decoding
- Errors with sight words: children need to memorize these so that they are accurate and efficient at automatically recognizing these words
- Insertions: shows the children is relying on something other than print while decoding – according to this model and the test perspective, the most important point is that the child is not relying sufficiently on the visual (print), regardless of how much meaning they are deriving from print
- Self corrections: in the real world, self corrections may be a very good sign (the child is self-monitoring and aware when something doesn't make sense or sound right). For the test, however, self-corrections still indicate an area in which the child needs direct skills instruction so that they can become more automatic and efficient
- Errors and self-corrections indicate the processes students are using while reading to make and correct mistake. This is where the 3 cueing systems come in:

Meaning/semantics (reading with the meaning in mind): "Does that make sense?
Visual/graphophics (reading with the print in mind): "Does that look right?
Syntax/grammar (reading with the grammar in mind): "Does that sound right?"

- MSV
- This model (and the test perspective) tends to prescribe skills instruction during this "learning to read" stage
- This model tends to view all children's miscues, even their self-corrections, as hindrances to learning to decode

<u>Portfolios</u>

Group Assessments

Norm-referenced
- 3 key terms to know: reliability, validity, reporting
- Reporting can also be associated with the terms raw score, rank and grade-equivalent
- Reliability means that the test measures things the same way *every time* it is used
- Validity: does the test measure what it says it measures?
- We need reliability and validity if we are to be able to make accurate comparisons.
- Test conditions also need to be the same.
- Example: a score of "6" is the same in one class vs. another, the same in one state vs. another
- Raw score: number of the correct items out of the number of items in total.
- Percentile rankings: this makes comparing one student to another easier. A student who was correct on all items then scored in the 99th percentile, which means she did better than 99 percent of the people who took the test.
- 50th percentile means a student did better than half and worse than half of all the students who took it
- Grade equivalent: what does the score mean? This helps us determine what "normal" is for children in each grade. A raw score of 5 might be normal for 2nd graders; a 9 might be "normal" for 3rd graders.
- When reporting, it is important to keep in mind the audience (e.g. parents) to determine how to report the scores and what to say about them so that they are understandable.

Criterion-referenced
- Terms associated: Benchmarks and rubric
- These tests look at both process and product
- For example, these assessments may consider what children are doing when they write answers they write, along with whether the answer is correct
- The benchmark establishes a criteria for success and a time at which it should be met
- Rubrics can rate how well children are progressing toward the criteria (e.g. beginning, developing, proficient)

Cloze Procedure[xxii]

Preparation:
1. Select a passage of about 100 words.
2. Type it leaving the first and last sentences in tack.
3. Beginning with the second sentence, delete every seventh word. Place a line where each word is deleted. All lines should be the same length.
4. Prepare one passage for you to use as a model and a different one for the child to use.

Administration:
1. Explain that you need help with your "homework." Explain in your own words that you are not testing the child but that you are getting practice in administering this tool.
2. Model this activity with a short practice passage.
3. Have the child read through the passage first, saying "blank" where the lines (deleted words are).
4. Have the child go back and insert a word for each space. S/he should be encouraged o guess. This is untimed, so there shouldn't be any pressure to move quickly.
5. Acknowledge that the child did a great job and thank him/her for helping with your "homework."

Evaluation:
1. Only EXACT replacements for the deleted words are CORRECT. Therefore, do not evaluate the child's work in front of him/her.
2. Tally the number of EXACT replacements and determine a percentage of correct responses. For example, if there are 18 deleted words and the child replaces 12 of them with the exact word that was in the original text, the ration would be 12/18 or 66.6%.
3. Independent Level = 60% or higher (At this level, the child should be successful without support.)
   Instructional Level = between 40-59% (At this level, the child should be able to read independently after you have provided prereading support.)
   Frustrational Level = between 0 and 39% (This level may be too difficult for the child, even with support.)

Example:
The Terrible Eek a Japanese tale retold by Patricia A. Campton

   A long time ago, in a certain place in the mountains, it began to rain. The wind shook a small house _____ a thatch roof.
   Inside a boy _____ his father sat warming their hands _____ a small fire. Nearby, the boy's _____ prepared the evening meal.
   The sounds _____ the wind and rain battering at _____ house frightened the boy. "Father, are _____ afraid?" the boy asked. [Continue in this manner through a passage of about 100 words. Leave the last sentence intact.]

Answers: with, and, over, mother, of, the, you.

Yopp-Singer Test of Phoneme Segmentation[xxiii][xxiv]

Student's name _____   Date _____

Score (number correct) _____

Directions: Today we're going to paly a word game. I'm going to say a word and I want you to break the word apart. You are going to tell me each sound in the word in order. For example, if I say "old," you should /o/ - /l/ - /d/." (Administrator: Be sure to say the sounds, not the letters, in the world.)

Practice items: (Assist the child in segmenting these items as necessary/) ride, go, man

Test items: (Circle those items that the student correctly segments; incorrect responses may be recorded on the blank line following the item.

1.	dog	12.	lay_____
2.	keep	13.	race_____
3.	fine	14.	zoo_____
4.	no	15.	three_____
5.	she	16.	job_____
6.	wave	17.	in _____
7.	grew	18.	ice_____
8.	that	19.	at _____
9.	red	20.	top_____
10.	me	21.	by _____
11.	sat	22.	do_____

Concepts of Print Checklist (excerpt)

Directions: Have the student read through a familiar book. During the reading, record your observations of the student's behaviors.

Grade	Teacher
Examiner	

Assess	Prompt the Student	Pre-	Post-	Comments
Book Concepts				
Cover of Book	Show me how you hold a book.			
	Show me the front of the book.			
	Show me the name of the author/illustrator.			
	Show me the back of the book.			
Title	Show me the title.			
Title Page	Show me the title page.			
Text Concepts				
Print tells a story	Where does the book tell the story?			
Concept of a word	Can you put your fingers around a word?			
	Can you find two words that are the same?			
	Where is the first word on this page?			
	Where is the last word on this page?			
Concept of letter	Can you put your fingers around a letter?			
	Can you tell me the names of same letters on this page?			

+   = Understands concept (answers the question or performs the indicated behavior without hesitation)

✓   = Needs review (answers the question or performs the indicated behavior with hesitation or with additional prompting)

-   = Does not understand concept (cannot answer the question or perform the indicated behavior)

Assessing for Different Purposes:[xxv]

Determining a child's reading level is one purpose for assessment, but checking in, gathering anecdotal information, talking with children and observing their reading behaviors will represent the bulk of assessments in the classroom. Informal observations are often called, "Kid Watching."

What elements of reading should we assess?
- Emergent literacy (familiarity with conventions of print; phonological awareness; knowledge of letter names and sounds; purpose of literacy in their lives)
- Word strategies (sight words, decoding and spelling behaviors). Ideally you want to know how students are using the skills you've taught IN CONTEXT. For example, how do they solve problems when determining how to read or write unfamiliar words?
- Fluency. (How smooth or choppy? Expression? Intonation?)
- Comprehension.
- Interest. Motivation. Attitudes toward reading.

Comparison of Norm-Referenced and Criterion-Referenced Tests

Point of Comparison	Norm-Referenced	Criterion-Referenced
Purpose	Determines a student's grade-level achievement.	Determines extent to which student objectives are being met.
Testing procedures	Each student takes a complete test.	Items may be randomly assigned as purposes dictate.
Achievement Standard	Comparison with other students of the same age.	Performance of the individual in regard to the objective.
Reporting of results	Grade-level achievement norms for individuals or groups.	Percentage score on the number of items correct for specific objective
Implications for teaching	Teaching for the test constrains classroom activity and invalidates the test.	Teaching for the objectives is desirable and expected if the objectives have been carefully formulated.

Section 0009 Understand Multiple Approaches to Reading Instruction

- ✓ Knowledge of the significant theories, approaches, practices and programs for developing reading skills and reading comprehension

- ✓ Strategies for planning, organizing, managing, and differentiating reading instruction to support the reading development of all students

- ✓ Adjustment of reading instruction based on ongoing assessment

- ✓ Instructional strategies for promoting development of particular reading skills (e.g., phonemic awareness, phonics skills, word identification, automatic recognition of sight words, vocabulary knowledge)

- ✓ The importance of close reading and rereading of well crafted, content-and idea-rich texts in reading development; strategies for evaluating and sequencing texts for reading instruction according to text complexity

- ✓ The importance of balancing students' exposure to and reading of literary and informational texts

- ✓ The uses of large-group, small-group and individualized reading instruction

- ✓ Strategies for selecting and using meaningful reading materials at appropriate levels of difficulty

- ✓ Creation of an environment that promotes love of reading

- ✓ Strategies for promoting independent reading in the classroom and at home

- ✓ Uses of instructional technologies to promote reading development

- ✓ Awareness of strategies and resources for supporting individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

Teaching Reading to English Language Learners

Reading Rockets

What Does Research Tell Us About Teaching Reading to English Language Learners?

By: Suzanne Irujo (2007)

In this article, a seasoned ELL teacher synthesizes her own classroom experience and the findings of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth to make recommendations for effective literacy instruction of ELL students.

In this article:

- **Phonemic awareness**

- **Phonics**

- **Fluency**

- **Vocabulary**

- **Comprehension**

- **Conclusion**

As a classroom teacher, I was largely ignorant of, and definitely suspicious of, research. I believed that researchers could make their studies come out any way they wanted them to, and that a good teacher who reflected on her own teaching knew much more about how to be effective with her students than any researcher did. Later, as a university professor, I learned how important good research can be, and how difficult it is to do really good experimental research in a field such as education, where it is impossible to control all the variables.

For that reason, I was pleased in 1997 when Congress funded the National Reading Panel (NRP) to evaluate research about teaching children to read. The panel's charge was to review existing studies, choose those that were well designed and well implemented, and synthesize their findings. The results were published in 2000 (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000), and became the basis of the Reading First grant program included in the *No Child Left Behind* legislation of 2001. Although there was initially a good deal of controversy about the findings of the report, all U.S. elementary school teachers were soon very aware of the five "essential elements" of reading instruction (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension).

Teachers of English language learners (ELLs), however, were left to wonder if and how the findings of the NRP applied to their students. How do you teach phonemic awareness and phonics in English to students who can't yet hear and distinguish the sounds? How do you teach fluency to students whose control of the structures of the English language is still limited? How do you teach them grade-level vocabulary when their vocabulary knowledge starts so far behind that of their English-speaking peers? How do you teach reading comprehension in English when they don't yet comprehend the English language?

Now there appears to be help. In 2002, the U.S. Department of Education funded the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority and Youth to survey, select, and synthesize research on teaching language-minority students to read and write. Their report was published recently (August & Shanahan, 2006).

How much help will this report provide for teachers of ELLs? A preliminary review of the Executive Summary (August, 2006) and the section of the full report on "Educating Language Minority Students" reveals these four potentially important general recommendations:

Literacy in the native language is an advantage.

We already knew this (see, for example, Collier & Thomas, 1997), and it doesn't help teachers working in situations where literacy instruction in the native language is not possible.

Substantial coverage of the five essential elements of reading instruction helps.

However, this finding is based on only 14 studies that looked at instruction of the essential elements of reading with ELLs. Because of the small number of studies, this recommendation is based on the fact that there is nothing in these 14 studies that contradicts the findings of the numerous studies of native speakers that were reviewed by the National Reading Panel. Also because of the small number of studies, no specific practices could be advocated for teaching the essential elements of reading to ELLs.

Reading programs for ELLs should include intensive language development as well as instruction in literacy strategies and skills.

This recommendation is not based specifically on the research, because there were no studies that addressed the inclusion of intensive language development in reading instruction for ELLs. It is instead a hypothesis drawn from several other findings: (1) native speakers benefit more from instruction in the essential elements than do ELLs; (2) ELLs with greater language proficiency benefit more from instruction in the essential elements than do those with less proficiency; and (3) instruction in the essential elements with ELLs has a greater effect on decoding and fluency than on comprehension.

Instruction needs to be adjusted to meet the needs of ELLs.

The report, however, states that there is not enough research to be able to identify specifically how those adjustments should be made. I could find only seven specific suggestions that would be useful to teachers of reading classes that include ELLs:

- Provide additional work on English phonemes that are not present in the students' native language.

- If students are literate in their native language, focus on differences between that language and English, with less attention given to elements that will transfer.

- Provide extra practice in reading words, sentences, and stories.

- Use cognate words in the native language as synonyms when teaching vocabulary.

- Identify and clarify difficult words and passages.

- Consolidate knowledge of the text through the use of summaries.

- Find appropriate ways to use the native language.

These seven findings do not constitute a reading program for ELLs. We obviously need much more research. However, given the fact that teachers cannot wait until research catches up with their needs in order to implement effective practices with their ELL students, I think it is important to look not only at the research that is available, but also at what experienced, reflective teachers of ELLs (and observers of those teachers) consider to be best practices. The rest of this article will discuss the implications of available research on instructional practices in the teaching of the five essential elements of reading to ELLs, based on the findings of the National Literacy Panel as much as possible, but also drawing on information from reliable sources such as *The Knowledge Loom: Spotlight on Elementary Literacy* (The Education Alliance at Brown University, n.d.), as well as my own experience.

Phonemic awareness

Phonemic awareness is difficult for ELLs because they may not yet have enough experience with English to be able to distinguish sounds that differ from those of their native language. There are three aspects of phonological awareness when learning to read in a second language that are important for teachers of ELLs to remember and incorporate into their instruction:

ELLs cannot develop phonological awareness in English until they are familiar with the sounds of English.

This means that before explicit instruction in phonological awareness begins, children should have extensive experiences with fun and appealing songs, poems, chants, and read-alouds that will allow them to hear and reproduce the sound patterns of English.

Once explicit instruction has begun, modifications must be made to allow for more practice with sounds that can potentially cause confusion.

These are sounds that either don't exist in the native language (most of the short vowel sounds of English don't exist in Spanish, for example), or sounds that are perceived as different in English but the same in the native language (such as /r/ and /l/ for speakers of Japanese, or /b/ and /v/ for speakers of Spanish). Because these differences vary from one language to another, teachers will have to become familiar with which sounds of English will need extra practice, depending on the language backgrounds of their students.

Once phonological awareness has developed in any language, it transfers to other languages that are learned.

Therefore, students who are literate in their native language will not need to develop this skill again in English; they will only need to become familiar with the sounds of English and to learn to discriminate sounds that are different between their native language and English.

Phonics

Phonics can be problematic because ELLs often have difficulty discriminating between similar sounds, and because the English language does not have a regular system of correspondence between letters and sounds. Here are some issues related to phonics instruction for ELLs, with discussion of their implications:

Systematic phonics instruction can be very effective in helping ELLs, even those at fairly low levels of language proficiency, learn to decode words.

However, this skill does not facilitate reading comprehension if students' oral language proficiency is not developed to the level of the texts they are expected to read. For this reason, reading instruction should be combined with intensive development of the oral language needed to understand the text.

The most effective reading programs for ELLs combine systematic phonics instruction with a print-rich environment that provides exposure to appealing reading materials in varied genres.

Skills practice that is embedded in meaningful texts helps ensure that decoding skills don't progress beyond students' ability to comprehend the text.

Many of the components of phonics instruction need to be modified to meet the particular needs of ELLs.

For example:

- Before phonics instruction begins, students must have the phonemic awareness skills they need in order to perceive individual sounds in words. This is particularly important for sounds that are problematic because of the native language.

- Teachers must be aware of whether a students' native language uses a non-Roman alphabet or is non-alphabetic. Even if ELLs have had no instruction in reading in the native language, environmental exposure to a different writing system can negatively affect the ease with which they learn to recognize the letters of the English alphabet.

- ELLs must be able to hear and reproduce English sounds with a degree of accuracy commensurate with their pronunciation abilities, before they are taught to make associations between those sounds and particular letters.

- It is helpful to explicitly point out different letter combinations that have the same sound, and provide extra practice with them. Multiple spellings of the same sound can be very confusing for ELLs, particularly if they have had some reading instruction in a language such as Spanish, which has almost completely regular sound-symbol correspondences.

- Teachers must pay attention to the meanings of the words used to teach phonics skills. Teaching students to decode words they don't know only reinforces the idea that "reading" is pronouncing sounds out loud rather than creating meaning.

- Automatic recognition of frequent words is very important for ELLs, whether the words follow phonics rules or not. Although ELLs may develop good decoding skills, their lack of total proficiency in the English language will always slow them down somewhat. Automatic recognition of words can help mitigate this difficulty.

Most ELLs will need additional time to master phonics. Given the need for extra practice to learn to hear and produce the sounds of English, to learn the meanings of the words used in phonics instruction, to learn the multiple combinations of letters that make the same sound, and to learn many more sight words than English speakers need, additional time for phonics instruction should be built into reading programs for ELLs.

Fluency

Fluency is difficult for ELLs because their lack of proficiency in English slows down their ability to decode words and hinders their ability to understand the meanings of the words and how the words combine to produce meaningful sentences and discourse. These suggestions will help teachers adapt fluency instruction for ELLs:

ELLs cannot achieve fluency in oral reading before they have achieved fluency in speaking.

Repeated readings of texts that contain unfamiliar vocabulary and sentence structures will not increase fluency. When working on developing fluency, be sure that students are reading texts that they are familiar with and can understand. Students' own language experience stories are a very good choice, as are read-alouds that students have heard several times and discussed.

ELLs' normal self-consciousness about accents and errors can affect their reading fluency, especially if they are asked to read aloud in front of the entire class.

This effect will be magnified if students are openly corrected or criticized. Fluency practice for ELLs can be facilitated by having them read along with the teacher, or by reading chorally with a group. If individual oral reading is necessary, provide an authentic purpose for the reading (such as a theatrical

performance, or delivering information that the rest of the class needs), and let students practice first with a partner.

Decoding skills, fluency in oral reading, and reading comprehension interact in various ways.

The ability to decode words easily is obviously necessary for fluency, and it also facilitates comprehension by allowing the reader to pay more attention to meaning. Comprehension, in turn, facilitates fluency by making it easier to recognize new words. Effective instruction for ELLs integrates these three elements of reading (plus vocabulary learning) into the same lessons using the same text, as each element helps build and reinforce the others, producing a multiplier effect.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is difficult for ELLs; even for quite proficient learners, the extent of their knowledge of vocabulary is only a fraction of what it is for native speakers of English, and the failure to understand even a few words of a text can have negative effects on comprehension. There are many things teachers can do to help ELLs improve their reading vocabulary, including the following:

ELLs need more vocabulary instruction than their native-speaking peers.

If a native-speaking child enters kindergarten knowing about 5,000 English words, and an ELL with no previous exposure to English enters the same class knowing no English words, it's obvious that the same instruction for each of them will not produce the same results. Everything a teacher of ELLs does should revolve around vocabulary acquisition-explaining, demonstrating, drawing, repeating, reading, writing, and playing with words throughout every aspect of instruction.

ELLs need instruction in different vocabulary words than their native-speaking peers.

ELLs lack many of the basic words that native speakers know, so just teaching the vocabulary words that are suggested in the reading materials you are using will not be sufficient. Here are some of the many types of words that need to be explicitly taught:

- words that are crucial for understanding a text;

- words that are encountered in a wide variety of contexts;

- frequently used words that contain word parts (roots, prefixes, suffixes) that can help students analyze other unknown words;

- words with multiple meanings, whether spelled differently (homophones such as *to*, *two*, and *too*) or spelled the same (such as a dining room *table* and a multiplication *table*);

- figurative language and idiomatic expressions;

- academic words that indicate relationships among other words (such as *because*, *therefore*, and *since* to indicate cause and effect).

ELLs need different vocabulary teaching techniques and strategies than their native-speaking peers.

Handing out a list of definitions or asking students to put the words into sentences won't help ELLs learn the meanings of the words. Here are some things to keep in mind:

- ELLs who are literate in a language that has many words that are similar in meaning and form to English words should be taught to recognize these cognates and use them to create meaning.

- The meanings of words are acquired through multiple opportunities to hear, say, read, and write the words in slightly different meaningful contexts. Teachers will have to create these contexts in the classroom, since incidental learning of vocabulary cannot be relied on for ELLs.

- Explicit explanations of unknown words should include contextual support through real objects, pictures or drawings, gestures, examples, demonstrations, or experiments that accompany the verbal explanations.

- The use of context clues to infer meaning is not always successful with ELLs because they may not understand the context well enough to infer an accurate meaning.

- Having to explain what a word means to other students helps develop comprehension of the full meaning of the word.

Comprehension

Reading comprehension is more difficult for ELLs than for native speakers for various reasons. Three of the most important reasons are discussed here:

ELLs are more likely than native speakers to lack the background knowledge necessary for understanding texts.

ELLs' prior educational experiences may have been substandard or interrupted, so reading texts that assume certain prior knowledge becomes difficult. Even for students with good educational backgrounds, cultural differences and culturally based assumptions can result in a lack of background knowledge and thus loss of comprehension. Whatever the reasons for a lack of necessary background knowledge, before asking ELLs to read a particular text, teachers must identify information that is prerequisite for understanding the text, evaluate students' prior knowledge of these prerequisites, and fill any gaps that are found. The best kinds of activities for building background knowledge are those that get students involved in manipulating language and concepts, rather than just receiving information from the teacher. These include experiential activities such as science experiments, classification activities, role playing, previewing a reading and generating questions about it, and sharing predictions about the answers to those questions.

The language level of the text to be read, compared with ELLs' language proficiency, is a major factor in how much they will understand of the text.

Even advanced ELLs and those who have been redesignated as fluent in English will experience difficulty with unusual vocabulary, figurative language, very complex sentence structures, or unfamiliar styles and genres (just as many native speakers of English do). For this reason, the integration of intensive language development with reading instruction is highly recommended for ELLs at all levels of language proficiency.

Reading comprehension instruction for ELLs needs to be modified to address their needs.

Asking ELLs to read the same texts and do the same activities as everybody else will only result in frustration for teachers and failure for students. This is not a matter of "dumbing down" the curriculum or applying different standards. It is a matter of implementing the curriculum at a language level that makes it accessible to ELLs, while at the same time working to develop their oral language so they will be able to comprehend texts at higher levels. Here are some general principles for modifying reading instruction for ELLs:

- Provide as much nonverbal support for reading comprehension as possible, including pictures, diagrams, real objects, gestures, acting, and graphic organizers. The support can be used both for helping students understand a reading passage and for assessment, so students can show what they have understood in ways that are not entirely dependent on verbal ability.

- Explicitly teach comprehension strategies, such as reader-generated questions, summarizing, and monitoring comprehension. Remember, however, that teaching strategies is not enough; students must practice them with texts that are accessible at their level of language proficiency. If students don't experience successful application of the strategies, they won't even try to use them with other texts.

- Plan interactive activities around reading and interpreting texts. Sharing ideas, comparing perspectives, and coming to agreement (or agreeing to disagree) are all ways that students use the language of the text in meaningful ways, and thus progress to higher levels of language proficiency and reading comprehension.

Conclusion

The original intention of this article was to provide specific suggestions for modifying reading programs to meet the needs of English language learners, based on the findings of the National Literacy Panel. Because of the paucity of appropriate research studies, however, the recommendations made in the NLP report are not extensive enough to help teachers build appropriate reading programs for ELLs. I therefore looked beyond the NLP findings and included theory and experience as well as research.

I hope that readers will take this synthesis of research, theory, and experience and integrate it into their ongoing examination of what they do in their classrooms, what happens as a result of what they do, and why it happens. Research can tell us which kinds of practices are effective in general, but ultimately only individual teachers can determine what is most effective for them and the particular group of students they are teaching at the moment.

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References

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English Sounds not in Other Languages

Below is an example of a sound used in English that are not part of other languages. These sounds are difficult for new speakers of English.

Language	Sounds Not Part of the Language
Chinese	b, ch, d, dg, g, o, ash, s, th, *th,* v, z
French	ch, ee, j, ng, oo, th, *th*
Spanish	dg, j, sh, th, *z*

Stages of Reading Development

Early Literacy Development[xxvi]

Stages of Early Literacy Development:

Emergent – Early – Early Fluent –Fluent

The terms "Beginning Reading and Writing" or "Early Literacy Development" actually include several phases of learning through which children progress in different ways and tempos. It is an exciting and complex process that usually occurs between the ages 5 through 8. As in most other areas of development all children do not follow one clear sequential path in lock-step. Rather, individual children may take a variety of routes to reading and writing mastery. Literacy learning is circular or "recursive"; learners may move forward in some areas and seem to step back as they consolidate understanding in others. Thus, reading and writing may not develop evenly. A child may be fluent in one area and emergent in another. Ultimately however, whatever the timetable or path, the goals are the same for all:

- To become fluent and efficient readers and writers who can make sense of and convey meaning in written language;
- To become thinkers and communicators who are actively reviewing and analyzing information;
- To enjoy reading and writing; and,
- To feel successful as users of literacy for a variety of purposes.

NOTE: Keep in mind that the grade levels associated with each phase describe below are only approximate. In each grade there are likely to be children in all phases of literacy acquisition. Also, remember that within each phase there may be a range of learners who are developing in different ways.

I. Emergent Readers and Writers (typically pre-kindergarten through first grade).*xxvii*

- Understand that written language conveys messages
- Pretend read and write: they turn pages of books, invent the story using pictures and their memory of a story
- Begin to match spoken words with print
- May know some letter names and some letter sound associations
- May recognize some words and letters in their environment or in texts; but not again in a different context; they may still be unsure of the concept of "word" or "letter"
- Can write some letters, usually those in their own names
- In writing may reverse some letters, and may use mostly upper case letters
- May make scribbles or strings of random letters with no spaces; one letter may represent a whole word
- May "read" or attribute meaning to his or her marks; may not be able to "re-read" these marks at a later time.

Children in this phase benefit from:

- Seeing reading and writing modeled through listening to good stories and seeing others write meaningful messages
- Supported practice while reading engaging, predictable books with pictures that clearly relate to and illustrate the story line
- Encouragement to experiment with writing
- Experience with sorting words and pictures to build letter and sound recognition
- Experience with rhyming and other word play
- Activities that engage students in using oral and written

II. Early Readers (typically first through second grade).[xxviii]

- Know that reading needs to make sense
- Are more attentive to print and know more print conventions
- Understand that books have exact and unchanging messages carried by print as well as pictures
- Can identify most letters by name, and can use some letter/sound knowledge (i.e.: the sound of the first letter) to help figure out words.
- Know the meaning of some punctuation (capitals and periods), but may not use consistently in writing and reading
- Can recognize, by sight, a small but growing store of words in different contexts
- Use pictures, story patterns, context and memory of some words as well as some phonics to make sense of print

Early Writers:

- Use spaces between words, but not consistently
- Include more sound/letter association in spelling, especially initial or final consonants; may write some whole words or word parts (like "ing") from memory
- Can usually re-read his or her own writing
- Have variable handwriting: may use more lower case letters, but still could be mixed with caps, may reverse some letters (writing b instead of d)

Children in this phase benefit from:

- Continued exposure to shared and guided reading of pattern stories and other predictable books, with clear print and pictures
- Modeling and explicit teaching of and practice with using three cuing systems and strategies to figure out words and make sense of print
- Games, activates to consolidate voice/print match and build sight word recognition
- Games and activates to build phonemic awareness
- Encouragement to write using invented spelling
- Language experience activities
- Hearing, discussing, retelling a variety of stories read aloud

III. Early Fluent/Fluent Readers (typically second through third grade).*xxix*

- Recognize many words in and out of context
- Can apply phonics and other word analysis skills to figure out and confirm new words
- Monitor their own reading for meaning and self correct as needed
- Read with increased fluency, accuracy, and expression

Early Fluent/Fluent Writers:

- Are more comfortable with drafting, revising and editing
- Show influence of the texts they have read
- Express their ideas more elaborately
- Use spelling that is closer to conventional spelling
- Increase their use of punctuation

Children in this phase benefit from:

- Continued opportunities to read and discuss a variety of increasingly challenging and personally meaningful texts
- Continued practice reading for meaning using various strategies: integrating cueing systems, self monitoring and self correcting
- Exposure to and practice with more aspects of word analysis
- Practice building accuracy, fluency, expression
- Practice reading silently
- Guidance and practice with specific comprehension strategies
- Encouragement to continue writing with increasing support for revision and editing
- Hearing and discussing a variety of literature read aloud

SUBAREA: Integration of Knowledge and Understanding (20% of the test)

Section 0010 Prepare an organized, developed analysis on a topic related to one or more of the following: foundations of reading development; development of reading comprehension; reading assessment and instruction.

- ✓ The role of phonological and phonemic awareness in reading development
- ✓ Development of alphabetic knowledge
- ✓ Role of phonics in developing rapid, automatic word recognition
- ✓ Development of word analysis skills and strategies in addition to phonics, including structural analysis
- ✓ The relationship between vocabulary development and reading comprehension
- ✓ Use of comprehension strategies to enhance comprehension of imaginative/literary texts
- ✓ Knowledge of organizational patterns in informational/expository texts
- ✓ Techniques for assessing particular reading skills
- ✓ Strategies for planning, organizing, managing and differentiating reading instruction to support the reading development of all students

Open Response Questions and MTEL Overview Charts

Tips for Analyzing the Running Record and Comprehension Discussion Components of the MTEL Test

Miscue Analysis/Analysis of Oral Reading:

1. Make sure you read the "background" information at the top of the page. It can be easy to miss. It will likely tell you the grade level of the student and provide you with some context for reviewing the running record.

2. As you read through the running record, note the type of miscues that the student makes. One helpful way is to make a T chart with a comparison of the word from the text and the miscue. In this way you can identify the <u>patterns</u> of miscues or trends. See example below:

Text	Miscue
rain	ran
pain	pan
team	tem

3. You will probably be asked to identify <u>one strength</u> and <u>one weakness</u> in the running record. When you look for a strength/weakness, it is critical that you use several examples from the text to support your conclusions.

4. The test will ask you to use your knowledge of **word identification strategies** to write your response. There are four types of these word identification strategies you will keep in mind as you assess strengths and weaknesses:
   - Use of Phonics
   - Analysis of Word Structure
   - Use of Context Clues and
   - Identification of Sight Words

Use of Phonics: *Look for use of phonics in <u>single syllable words</u> and in <u>single syllables</u>.*

In what ways does the child use/not use phonics knowledge (knowledge of letter-sound correspondence) and phonics generalizations to decode words? Look for patterns of words that the reader reads successfully or with which he struggles such as *vowel digraphs, words ending in silent e, consonant blends etc.* A strong answer depends upon your use of correct terminology to support your conclusions.

Analysis of Word Structure (also known as Structural Analysis or Word Analysis):
Look for analysis of word structure with <u>multi-syllable words</u>.

Consider whether or not the reader has strategies for decoding longer, multi-syllable words. Does the reader break these longer words into more manageable parts by looking for "chunks" or word parts that they know? Does the reader divide these words into their syllables? Compound words into the smaller words from which they're composed? Accurately read words with inflections (ed, ing, plural endings)? Does the reader use word analysis to divide words into meaning-bearing parts such as prefixes, suffixes, and roots or bases?

The goal is strategy use! Does the reader attempt to read these longer words strategically?

Use of Context Clues: *Does the reader use context clues to identify an unfamiliar word?*

Here's how you can tell that Use of Context Clues is a <u>strength</u>: The reader may SELF-CORRECT © errors by saying to themselves "That didn't sound right!" or "That didn't make sense!" Once they apparently notice the error, these readers use context clues to return to the error to self-correct ©.

A reader may also have a <u>strength</u> in the use of context clues if they substitute words into the passage that still make sense (use of semantics) and sound right (use of syntax).

On the other hand, a reader may have a <u>weakness</u> in the use of context clues if they routinely make substitutions (miscues) that don't make sense or sound right. They may use the first letter to guess, and then plug away without regard to meaning.

* <u>NOTE</u>: If the child's strength is in the use of context clues, you must then ask yourself the following question: "Why did the child <u>need</u> to use context clues with these words? With which types of words did s/he struggle? Which types of words did s/he initially read incorrectly?" Once you determine a pattern of miscues (usually in the area of phonics or word analysis), you will have also identified your weakness!

Identification of Sight Words: Does the reader show automaticity in reading high frequency words? High frequency words that are phonetically "regular" are words such as: *am, at, mom,* and *big*. Irregular sight words are words such as *because, were, what, said,* and *the*. (See page 73 of the study guide for more examples). These irregular words need to be memorized because they do not follow phonics generalizations. If a child misreads a number of these common words, particularly those with irregular spellings, they show a weakness in this area.

WHY IS WORD IDENTIFICATION SO IMPORTANT? In order for a child to read fluently and with comprehension, they need to be "freed" from the burden of decoding unknown words. If they struggle to identify words on the page, they cannot then simultaneously focus on the meaning of the text. Therefore, strong readers need to read with automaticity. Automaticity is required for fluent reading. Fluency is strongly related to comprehension.

Answering the Open Response Question related to Comprehension:

1. Read all information carefully!

2. *The question will likely read, "Using your knowledge of reading comprehension (e.g. literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, engagement of schema, self monitoring) write a response. . .*

3. Be sure that you are familiar with the elements of reading comprehension listed above (and discussed below) and be prepared to provide examples and evidence to support your answer.

Literal Comprehension: If the student can repeat back the sequence of events (plot), provide characters, setting etc. stated *directly* and *explicitly* in the text, they are using their literal comprehension skills. Look for the reader's ability to retell in a sequential fashion, highlighting key details as explicitly stated.

Inferential Comprehension: After considering literal comprehension skills, the next step is to determine if the reader can use *clues* from the passage to infer what is happening (to "read between the lines" or to look beneath the surface). Students who can ponder/wonder/predict are inferring. They may wonder WHY something happened, or consider WHAT MIGHT happen, or HOW.

Engagement of Schema: Does the reader show evidence of activating background knowledge? Does the reader use connections (text-to-self, text-to-text, and/or text-to-world) to better understand what he/she is reading? Does the reader show understanding of the vocabulary in the passage? If so, the reader is engaging with his/her schema (background knowledge) to better understand the text.

Self-Monitoring: Does the reader show evidence of metacognition? Does s/he apply comprehension strategies (visualization, summarizing, synthesizing, making connections etc) to better understand the text? Is s/he aware of areas where comprehension breaks down and where a strategy is needed to make sense of the text?

How to Form Your Open Response

Step 1:

Identify and name the <u>strength</u> and then, in the next paragraph, the <u>weakness.</u>

This means for the Running Record you will identify and name the **Word Identification strategy.** Refer to the specifc terms provided in the parenthesis of the question, but also be more specific where possible:

> *Joe appears to have a weakness in the <u>Use of Phonics</u>. Specifically he has difficulty decoding words with <u>vowel diagraphs</u>.*

For the Comprehension Question you will identify and name the **Comprehension Strategy.**

> *Joe appears to have a strength in* **inferential comprehension.**

Step 2:

Define the strength or weakness in your own words. Be very clear!

Step 3:

Provide **evidence.** Use at least 3 examples, possibly more.

Step 4:

Briefly wrap-up by explaining how a strength/weakness in the area you've identified **contributes to overall reading performance.**

Running Record Scenarios

Scenario #1

Text	Miscue
Dream	Deam
Tried	Tied
Smell	Sell
Driver	Diver
Smart	Sart
Broil	Boil

What is the obvious weakness?

Scenario #2

Text	Miscue
Dream	Deam ©_
Tried	Tied ©
Smell	Sell ©
Driver	Diver ©
Smart	Sart ©
Broil	Boil ©

Obvious strength?

Weakness?

(The © means self-correct)

Scenario #3

Text	Miscue
Situation	s-i-t-u-a-t-i-u-n
Appreciation	a-p-p-re-k-i-a-t-u-n
Perfecting	Pr-f-e-c-t-i-n-g
Unopposed	u-n-opp-os-ed

Weakness?

What would it look like if it was a strength?

Scenario #4

Text	Miscue
Situation	Sit-u-a-tion
Appreciation	ap-pre-ci-a-tion
Perfecting	Per-fect-ing
Unopposed	Un-op-posed
Inefficient	In-ef-fi-cient

Strength or weakness?

Scenario #5

Text	Miscue
because	- (omit) ©
there	this
friend	fend
could	- (omit) ©
through	-(omit) ©

Strength?

Weakness?

See Answers on Next Page

<div align="center">

Answers:

</div>

Each of these responses would need to be fully developed on the MTEL test, but the answers to each question are listed below.

Scenario 1:
- Weakness is in **Use of Phonics**, specifically decoding words with **consonant blends.**
- **NO STRENGTH in this scenario.**

Scenario 2:
- Strength is in **Use of Context Clues**, as evidenced by the many **self-corrections**. The student was likely self-correcting by using context clues to ask themselves: "What would make sense?" "What would sound right?" *Keep in mind, however, that you really would only know if the strength was in Use of Context Clues by analyzing the substitutions in the context of the passage.*
- The weakness was in the **Use of Phonics**, specifically decoding words with **consonant blends.**

Scenario 3:
- Weakness is in the **Use of Word Analysis**. Student does not appear to have a strategy to break-apart multisyllabic words.
- Strength would appear as the words do in Scenario 4 (words broken apart strategically)

Scenario 4:
- Strength is in **Use of Word Analysis.**

Scenario 5:
- Strength is in **Use of Context Clues**, as evidenced by the many **self-corrections**. The student was likely self-correcting by using context clues to ask themselves: "What would make sense?" "What would sound right?" *Keep in mind, however, that you really would only know if the strength was in Use of Context Clues by analyzing the substitutions in the context of the passage.*
- Weakness is in **Sight Word Recognition** as evidenced by the omissions of these words and in the errors with reading sight words.

Scenario 7: Identify the weakness:

Text	Miscue
Dropping	Drop
Waking	Wake
Sleeping	Sleep
Walked	Walk
Changed	Change

Scenario 8: Identify the strength only

Text	Miscue
Rainbow	Rain-bow
Cargo	Car-go
Particular	Par-ti-cu-lar
Hotdog	Hot-dog
Mastermind	Master-mind
Determine	De-ter-mine

Scenario 9: Identify the strength and weakness:

Text	Miscue
Treat	tret
Because	(correct)
Pray	Pra
Strain	Stran
Through	(correct)
Street	Stret
Been	(correct)

Answers:
Scenario 7
WEAKNESS: Word Analysis, leaving off the inflections (inflectional endings)
Scenario 8
STRENGTH: Word Analysis (chunking, breaking words into syllables and compound words into the two words from which they are composed)
Scenario 9
STRENGTH: Identification of sight words; WEAKNESS: Use of phonics, specifically vowel digraphs (even though the reader clearly knows how to decode consonant blends); Could also be context clues (student should have shown an attempt to self-correct)

Sample Open Response Answer (Running Record)

Jonathan appears to have a strength in the area of structural analysis. Structural analysis, also known as analysis of word structure, is the ability to break down multisyllabic words into their meaning-bearing parts. Jonathan is able to read these words strategically. For example, he read the following words correctly by breaking down these words into syllables: summer (sum-mer), mountain (moun-tain), nearly (near-ly). He was also able to read compound words (words such as shoebox and newspaper) by breaking down these words into the two words from which they're composed (i.e. shoe-box and news-paper). Clearly it is one of Jonathan's strengths that he can break these unfamiliar words down in order to read them accurately. While he is not reading with automaticity, as evidenced by the pauses before many multisyllabic words, he *is* able to apply these strategies to help him.

Jonathan's weakness appears to be in the area of sight word recognition. Sight words, also known as high frequency words, are words that children need to know with automaticity. Many of these words are also irregular and need to be memorized. For example, Jonathan read went for what, will for would and through for though. It would benefit Jonathan to develop automaticity with these sight words. With greater automaticity and accuracy, Jonathan will be able to focus on comprehension.

Sample Open Response Passage (Comprehension Assessment):

The Wednesday Surprise by Eve Bunting

- 4 different open response questions follow, but the test will only give you one response related to the passage.

A third grade student reads the following excerpt from the *Wednesday Surprise* by Eve Bunting silently and then retells the story to his teacher. In the excerpt below, the narrator (a seven-year-old girl) describes an experience with her grandmother.

"Have you heard from your Dad?" Grandma asks Sam.

"He'll be back Saturday, same as always," Sam says. "In time for his birthday."

"His birthday?" Grandma raises her eyebrows as if she'd forgotten all about that. Grandma is some actress!

When Sam goes she and I do the dishes. Then we get down to business.

I sit beside her on the couch and she takes the first picture book from the bag. We read the story together, out loud, and when we finish one book we start a second.

We read for an hour, get some ice cream, then read some more.

Grandma gives me another hug. "Only seven years old and smart as paint already!"

I'm pleased. "They're all going to be so surprised on Saturday," I say.

When Sam comes home we play card games, and when Mom comes she plays, too.

"You'll be here for the birthday dinner?" Mom asks as Grandma is getting ready to leave.

"Oh yes, the birthday," Grandma says vaguely, as if she'd forgotten again. As if we hadn't been working on our special surprise for weeks and weeks. Grandma is tricky.

"I'll be here," she says.

[The story continues as the family throws the father a birthday party.]

Dad blows out the birthday candles and we give him his gifts. Then Grandma shoots a glance in my direction and I go for the big bag [of books] and drag it across the table. I settle it on the floor between us.

"Another present?" Dad asks.

"It's a special surprise for your birthday, Dad, from Grandma and me."

My heart's beating awfully fast as I unzip the bag and give the first book to Grandma. It's called <u>Popcorn</u>. I squeeze Grandma's hand and she stands and begins to read."

Open Response Question #1:

After the student reads the passage silently, the teacher asks her to retell the story in her own words:

> Well, the story is about a grandmother and a granddaughter who spend time together. The grandma wants to know when the father is going to be back home and the grandchildren say that he'll be back in time for his birthday. It seems that she has forgotten that he's having a birthday, but she says she'll be there to celebrate it. Then the story tells how she spends time reading with her granddaughter and how they also play card games. At the end the father has the party and it says they give him a surprise present. The grandmother reads a book for him, but it doesn't say what the present is.

Using your knowledge of comprehension (i.e. literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, engagement of schema, and self-monitoring), write a response in which you identify a strength and weakness in the student's comprehension.

Open Response Question #2:

After the student reads the passage silently, the teacher asks her to retell the story in her own words:

> Well, it's a story about a grandma and a granddaughter who decide one day to surprise the dad for his birthday. So they do the dishes to get ready and then they play cards while they wait for him to get home. When he gets home they have a surprise. The grandma starts to read a book and I think maybe that's the surprise, because you can tell the granddaughter is really excited about it when it says her heart was beating fast. I think maybe it's a surprise that she can read the book.

Using your knowledge of comprehension (i.e. literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, engagement of schema, and self-monitoring), write a response in which you identify a strength and weakness in the student's comprehension.

Open Response Question #3:

After the student reads the passage silently, the teacher asks her to retell the story in her own words:

> Well, it's a story about a grandma and a granddaughter by Eve Bunting and they are planning a surprise for the dad. I know another book by Eve Bunting so I thought that this one might be kind of like that one about a family and how the celebrate together. They keep talking about a surprise in the story and how they are going to surprise the dad and at the end a grandma starts to read but they never get to the part where they tell you about the surprise.

Using your knowledge of comprehension (i.e. literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, engagement of schema, and self-monitoring), write a response in which you identify a strength and weakness in the student's comprehension.

Open Response Question #4:

After the student reads the passage silently, the teacher asks her to retell the story in her own words:

> Well, it's a story about a grandma and a granddaughter who plan a surprise for the dad's birthday. I was kind of confused about the whole thing at first and I kept wondering, "What is the surprise?" At first I predicted that they were just going to make the dad a cake, but then I wondered if it was about something more important than that. It seemed like they were going to surprise him with the books and so I kept looking for hints about that. The only thing is that they never really tell you what the surprise is and in the end the grandma reads but I don't know why that would be a surprise.

Using your knowledge of comprehension (i.e. literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, engagement of schema, and self-monitoring), write a response in which you identify a strength and weakness in the student's comprehension.

Sample Responses:

Open Response #1:

According to the student's retelling of the *Wednesday Surprise*, this student appears to have a strength in the area of literal comprehension. In other words, the student is able to retell key details that are explicitly stated in the story. For example, the student is able to identify that the grandmother and granddaughter spend time together; the grandmother asks when the father will be returning home and the children reply; the grandmother and granddaughter spend time reading together; in the end of the story the father has a party and is given a "surprise present". While the student misses many subtle clues in the passage, that indicate the truth behind the surprise (see below for the weakness), it does appear that the student was able to identify and understand some of the essential facts of the story as they are explicitly stated.

The student's weakness appears to be in the area of inferential comprehension. Inferential comprehension is the ability to use both background knowledge and the clues that are implied within the text to "read between the lines." In the case of the *Wednesday Surprise*, it is necessary that the reader picks up on the subtle hints throughout the passage to understand that a) the grandmother is in on the surprise and b) that the surprise itself is that the granddaughter has taught the grandmother how to read. The student seemed to miss these many hints and ultimately missed the real surprise of the passage. The student will benefit from more opportunities to strengthen her inferential comprehension skills.

Open Response #2:

According to the student's retelling of the *Wednesday Surprise*, this student appears to have a strength in the area of inferential comprehension. In other words, the student is able to pick up on the subtle hints implied within the passage to "read between the lines". For example, the student says, "You can tell they are keeping it a secret because…" and then the student is able to identify clues in the passage that indicate the grandmother is really a part of planning the surprise. The student also shows evidence of inferential thinking when she says, "The grandma starts to read a book and I think maybe that's the surprise because…" and once again refers to clues within the passage (such as the granddaughter's heart beating fast) to indicate she thinks that the big surprise is the fact that the grandma can read. The student's inferential thinking is clear every time she says, "I think maybe…" because it shows she is using her own background knowledge about what would be possible and the clues within the passage to try to guess what is going on, even though these points are not explicitly stated in the text.

Her weakness, however, appears to be in the area of literal comprehension. Literal comprehension is the ability to retell key details that are explicitly stated in the story. The student seems to miss several key facts presented in the passage, even though she was able to get the "gist" and the big picture. For example, she misses the fact that the grandmother and granddaughter have been working on this surprise for "weeks and weeks" and that the story takes place across many days, not just once. These key details help the reader to understand how hard the grandmother and granddaughter worked together so that the grandmother could read. The details also show that the surprise was one they planned over time, again demonstrating how much the surprise mattered to

the characters. Often without strong literal comprehension it can be easy to miss or misunderstand the subtler messages such as these.

Open Response #3: *These answers are not written out in a complete form, but the answers are provided below.

Strength: Engagement of Schema (also known as using background knowledge or prior knowledge). In this case, the student uses her knowledge of the author, Eve Bunting, to better understand the story. She is able to make connections to the author and the fact that she knows another book by the same author that also describes a family and how they celebrate together.

Weakness: Ironically, the student weakness appears to be in the area of inferential thinking. While she was able to use her schema to connect to the context of the story, and she has picked up on the fact that the grandmother is on planning the surprise, she is not able to pick up on the subtle hints implied within the story to identify the real surprise: the fact that the grandmother is able to read aloud one of the books on her own to the family. The student appears to wait for this information to be explicitly stated ("they never get to the part where they tell you about the surprise"), but doesn't seem to pick up on the fact that the big surprise happens when the granddaughter's heart "beats awfully fast" because she is giving "the first book to Grandma". This is the part in the story where the reader should realize that the surprise itself is the fact that the grandma can read.

***Notice in this case that the student did show some inferential thinking, but she fails to infer an important and key part of the story. As long as you have evidence that the student is not applying the strategy where necessary, you can identify it as a weakness (even if you qualify your answer as I did in the beginning).

Open Response #4: **The strength and weakness are listed below, but the answers are not developed as they were in the first two responses.

Strength: Self-Monitoring (shows the student is aware of their thinking, aware of places where "comprehension broke down" and used metacognitive—self-monitoring—strategies to make sense of the passage). Some of the e examples: The student says "I was confused at first and kept wondering, 'What is the surprise?'" (which shows the student is asking questions as he reads, an important strategy to try to understand the text); "I predicted" (another important strategy), "then I wondered" (continues to ask questions), "I kept looking for hints"…(knows it is important to look for clues to infer).

Weakness: Inferential thinking…uses self-monitoring, but looks for the surprise to be explicitly stated, rather than recognizing that the clues imply the surprise…

Sunshine Home (excerpt)
By: Eve Bunting

Mom and Dad and I are going to visit Gram. She's Mom's mom and she used to live with us. But she has been in the Sunshine Home for five weeks now and she'll be there longer. Maybe forever.

I haven't seen Gram since she fell and can't walk anymore . . . since the doctors said she needed full-time nursing care. I haven't seen her like that and I'm scared. I don't say so, though.

Dad and I pick sweet peas from our wire fence to bring to Gram.

Mom puts the new school picture of me in her purse to take with us. We're ready.

The Sunshine Home is right opposite the bus stop. It's square as a building block and it's painted barf green.

"Gross!" I say, and Mom says, "Stop that, Timmy. It's a very nice place."

There's a little market by the bus stop. Dad gets a bag of lemon drops for Gram and he buys a balloon that says LOVE for me to take.

It's an embarrassing balloon and I'm glad I don't have to carry it far.

A ramp leads to the door of the Sunshine Home.

My stomach hurts and I want to run. Dad takes my hand. I pull back.

"What's wrong, Tim?"

"Well . . .ah. . ."

"Are you scared?" Dad asks.

I hang my head.

Dad squeezes my hand. "No need to be. Just keep remembering that this is Gram. She can't walk anymore. That's all that's different.

"Honest?" I ask. "She's still the same?"

"Honest," Dad says, and I feel better.

[The family enters Sunshine home.]

"How nice and clean everything is!" Mom says to Dad in a voice I've never heard before, all bright and sparkly. I guess it's the one she uses in the Sunshine Home. "What do they do to keep this floor so shiny?"

It's shiny all right, like a mirror where the wheelchairs reflect themselves, upside down.

"There's Gram!" Mom's hurrying, with Dad behind her. I move more slowly.

[The family visits with the Grandmother.]

A nurse brings Gram's dinner and puts it on a table tray. He ties a big, blue bib around her neck.

I'm embarrassed for her. A bib!

I think Gram knows the way I feel. She gives me a nudge. "You ought to get one of these for your dad, Tim," she says. "It sure would save his ties."

"Your dinner looks good," Mom tells her, all cheery and chipper. I'll be glad when we're home and Mom gets her normal voice back.

Retelling #1:

In the story a mom, dad and boy are going to visit a grandmother at a place called Sunshine Home. She's at this house because she fell and it says that the boy who is visiting her is scared. They don't explain why he is scared, though. Then they go to visit her and they bring her some candy and a balloon. The boy's stomach hurts and so he might have a stomach bug. The boy doesn't rush to see the grandma when they get there, but the mom and dad do. After that she gets dinner and the boy is embarrassed that they give her a bib. Everyone else is cheery.

Retelling #2:

It's a story about a boy and his family that go to visit their Gram at a nursing home. My grandpa was in a nursing home so I could really understand how he felt when it said he was scared. It's like he's nervous to see her because he doesn't know what it will be like there. The mom and dad seem fine about visiting her though. It says the mom's pretty cheery.

Retelling #3:

The story is about a family that goes to visit their grandma. I think they've been visiting her a lot because she's been there for five weeks and I can tell that that kind of place makes them kind of uncomfortable. You can tell everyone is feeling nervous and is trying really hard to have everything be normal and happy, but inside they aren't. The boy seems shy and scared about seeing his grandma and the mom keeps being extra friendly about everything. You can tell he just wants to go home.

Retelling #4: **This example does <u>not</u> have a clear weakness.

I really felt bad for everyone in this story. I could tell how scared the boy was to see his grandma in nursing home and it even gave him a stomach ache! The dad seems really caring, though, and I could tell that he was trying to be reassuring, but I wondered if the dad really did think the grandma would be the same or if he was just saying that. I had to reread the part about the mom being cheery too. At first I thought she was happy and fine about her mother being at the place, but then I really wondered if she was also just trying to be reassuring.

Glossary

Make sure you are familiar with these terms!

Accuracy (part of fluency): Reading words in text with no errors.

Academically Engaged: Students are academically engaged when they are participating in activities/instruction in a meaningful way and understanding the tasks in which they are involved.

Affix: A general term that refers to prefixes and suffixes.

After-Reading Comprehension Strategies: Strategies that require the reader to actively transform key information in text that has been read (e.g., summarizing, retelling).

Aligned Materials: Student materials (texts, activities, manipulatives, homework, etc.) that reinforce classroom instruction of specific skills in reading.

Alphabetic Principle: The concept that letters and letter combinations represent individual phonemes in written words.

Ample Opportunities for Student Practice: Students are asked to apply what they have been taught in order to accomplish specific reading tasks. Practice should follow in a logical relationship with what has just been taught. Once skills are internalized, students are provided with more opportunities to independently implement previously learned information.

Analogy: Comparing two sets of words to show some common similarity between the sets. When done as a vocabulary exercise this requires producing one of the words (e.g., cat is to kitten as dog is to _____?).

Antonym: A word opposite in meaning to another word.

Automaticity: Reading without conscious effort or attention to decoding.

Background Knowledge: The knowledge and understandings of the world that students have acquired through their everyday experiences – riding in cars or buses, playing and talking with other children and adults, that help them to make sense of the texts they read.

Base Word: A unit of meaning that can stand alone as a whole word (e.g., friend, pig). Also called a free morpheme.

Before-Reading Comprehension Strategies: Strategies employed to emphasize the importance of preparing students to read text (e.g., activate prior knowledge, set a purpose for reading).

Blending: The task of combining sounds rapidly, to accurately represent the word.

Bloom's Taxonomy: A system for categorizing levels of abstraction of questions that commonly occur in educational settings. Includes the following competencies: Knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Choral Reading/Chanting: Two or more individuals reading aloud from the same text-this can help students to develop oral reading fluency.

Chunked Text: Continuous text that has been separated into meaningful phrases often with the use of single and double slash marks (/ and //). The intent of using chunked text or chunking text is to give children an opportunity to practice reading phrases fluently.

Chunking: A decoding strategy for breaking words into manageable parts (e.g., yes/ter/day). Chunking also refers to the process of dividing a sentence into smaller phrases where pauses

might occur naturally (e.g., When the sun appeared after the storm, / the newly fallen snow. shimmered like diamonds).

Comprehension: Understanding what one is reading, the ultimate goal of all reading activity.

Comprehension Questions: Questions that address the meaning of text, ranging from literal to inferential to analytical.

Concepts About Print/Conventions of Print: The understanding an individual has about the rules or accepted practices that govern the use of print and the use of written language. For example concepts about print include: reading left to right, top to bottom, words are made of letters, use of spaces between words, use of upper case letters, spelling patterns, punctuation, etc.

Concept Definition Mapping: Provides a visual framework for organizing conceptual information in the process of defining a word or concept. The framework contains the category, properties, and example of the word or concept.

Connected Text: Words that are linked (as opposed to words in a list) as in sentences, phrases, and paragraphs.

Consonant Blend: Two or more consecutive consonants which retain their individual sounds (e.g., *bl* in *bl*ock; *str* in *str*ing).

Consonant Digraph: Two consecutive consonants that represent one phoneme, or sound (e.g., *ch*, *sh*).

Context/Context Cues: Information from the surrounding text that helps identify or gives meaning to a specific word or phrase i.e. "yesterday I read the book". The words surrounding "read" help us know how to pronounce it.

Context Clue: Using words or sentences around an unfamiliar word to help clarify its meaning.

Conventional Spelling: Spelling that is in the standard or correct form for written documents.

Cueing System: Any of the various sources of information that may aid identification of a word such as: graphophonics, semantic and syntactic information.

Decodable Text: Text in which a high proportion of words (80%-90%) comprise sound-symbol relationships that have already been taught. It is used for the purpose of providing practice with specific decoding skills and is a bridge between learning phonics and the application of phonics in independent reading.

Decodable Words: Words containing phonic elements that were previously taught.

Decoding: The ability to translate a word from print to speech, usually by employing knowledge of sound-symbol correspondences; also the act of deciphering a new word by sounding it out.

Derivational Affix: A prefix or suffix added to a root or stem to form another word (e.g., -ness in likeness, un- in unhappy).

Diagnostic: Diagnostic tests can be used to measure a variety of reading, language, or cognitive skills. Although they can be given as soon as a screening test indicates a child is behind in reading growth, they will usually be given only if a child fails to make adequate progress after being given extra help in learning to read. They are designed to provide a more precise and

detailed picture of the full range of a child's knowledge and skill so that instruction can be more precisely planned.

Differentiated Instruction: Matching instruction to meet the different needs of learners in a given classroom.

Digraphs: A group of two consecutive letters whose phonetic value is a single sound (e.g., *ea* in *bread*; *ch* in *ch*art; *ng* in si*ng*).

Diphthong: A vowel produced by the tongue shifting position during articulation; a vowel that feels as if it has two parts, especially the vowels spelled ow, oy, ou, and oi.

Direct Instruction: The teacher defines and teaches a concept, guides students through its application, and arranges for extended guided practice until mastery is achieved.

Discourse: How we combine sentences to communicate ideas.

During-Reading Comprehension Strategies: Strategies that help students engage the meanings of a text (e.g., asking questions at critical junctures; modeling the thought process used to make inferences; constructing mental imagery).

Echo Reading: Reading of a text where an adult or experienced reader reads a line of text, and the student repeats the line. A good technique for Emergent and Early Readers to build fluency and expression.

Elkonin Boxes: A framework used during phonemic awareness instruction. Elkonin Boxes are sometimes referred to as Sound Boxes. When working with words, the teacher can draw one box per sound for a target word. Students push a marker into one box as the segment each sound in the word.

Emergent Reader: a reader who is developing an association of print with meaning – the early stages of learning to read.

Empirical Research: Refers to scientifically based research that applies rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge. This includes research that: employs systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment; has been accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of independent experts through a comparably rigorous, objective and scientific review; involves rigorous data analyses that are adequate to test the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions drawn; relies on measures or observational methods that provide valid data across evaluators and observers and across multiple measurements and observations; and can be generalized.

Etymology: The origin and history of a word.

Explicit Teaching:

1. Teacher **Models** and **Explains**
2. Teacher provides **Guided Practice**
   - Students practice what the teacher modeled and the teacher provides prompts and feedback
3. Teacher provides **Supported Application**
   - Students apply the skill as the teacher scaffolds instruction
4. **Independent Practice**

Expository Text: Text that reports factual information (also referred to as informational text) and the relationships among ideas. Expository text tends to be more difficult for students than narrative text because of the density of long, difficult, and unknown words or word parts.

Five Components of Reading: Phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

Flexible Grouping: Grouping students according to shared instructional needs and abilities and regrouping as their instructional needs change. Group size and allocated instructional time may vary among groups.

Floss Rule: Words of one syllable, ending in f, l, or s – after one vowel, usually ending in ff, ll, or ss (sounds /f/, /l/, /s/).

Fluency Probe: An assessment for measuring fluency, usually a timed oral reading passage at the student's instructional reading level.

Fluency: Ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with proper expression. Fluency provides a bridge between word recognition and comprehension.

Frayer Model: An adaptation of the concept map. The framework of the Frayer Model includes: the concept word, the definition, characteristics of the concept word, examples of the concept word, and non-examples of the concept word. It is important to include both examples and non-examples, so students are able to identify what the concept word is and what the concept word is not.

Frustrational Reading Level: the Level at which a reader reads at less than a 90% accuracy (i.e., one or more errors per 10 words read). Frustration level text is difficult text for the reader.

Grammar Conventions: the rules, or accepted practices, that govern the use of grammar in written or spoken language.

Grapheme: A letter or letter combination that spells a phoneme; can be one, two, three, or four letters in English (e.g., e, ei, igh, eigh).

Graphic Organizers: A visual framework or structure for capturing the main points of what is being read, which may include concepts, ideas, events, vocabulary, or generalizations. Graphic organizers allow ideas in text and thinking processes to become external by showing the interrelatedness of ideas, thus facilitating understanding for the reader. The structure of a graphic organizer is determined by the structure of the kind of text being read.

Graphophonics (Phonics): referring to the relationship between the letters and the letter sounds of a language

Graphophonemic Knowledge: Knowledge of the relationships between letters and phonemes.

Guided Practice: Students practice what the teacher modeled and the teacher provides prompts and feedback.

Guided or Supported Reading: a method by which an experienced reader provides structure and purpose, and models strategies in order to move beginning readers towards independence.

High Frequency Words: a small group of words (300-500) that account for a large percentage of the words in print and can be regular or irregular words. Often, they are referred to as "sight words" since automatic recognition of these words is required for fluent reading.

Homograph: Words that are spelled the same but have different origins and meanings. They may or may not be pronounced the same (e.g. *can* as in a metal container/*can* as in able to).

Immediate Intensive Intervention: Instruction that may include more time, more opportunities for student practice, more teacher feedback, smaller group size, and different materials. It is implemented as soon as assessment indicates that students are not making adequate progress in reading.

Implicit Instruction: The opposite of explicit instruction. Students discover skills and concepts instead of being explicitly taught. For example, the teacher writes a list of words on the board that begin with the letter "m" (mud, milk, meal, and mattress) and asks the students how the words are similar. The teacher elicits from the students that the letter m stands for the sound you hear at the beginning of the words.

Independent Reading Level: The level at which a reader can read text with 95% accuracy (i.e., no more than one error per 20 words read). Independent reading level is relatively easy text for the reader.

Independent-Instructional Reading Level Range: The reading range that spans instructional and independent reading levels or level of text that a student can read with 90% to 95% or above accuracy.

Inference: Drawing meaning from a combination of clues in the text without explicit reference to the text. "The sky was dark and cloudy so I took my umbrella." We can infer that it might rain even though the text does not say that.

Inflectional Suffix: In English, a suffix that expresses plurality or possession when added to a noun, tense when added to a verb, and comparison when added to an adjective and some adverbs. A major difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes is that inflections added to verbs, nouns, or adjectives do not change the grammatical role or part of speech of the base words (-s, -es, -ing, -ed).

Informal Assessment: Does not follow prescribed rules for administration and scoring and has not undergone technical scrutiny for reliability and validity. Teacher-made tests, end-of-unit tests and running records are all examples of informal assessment.

Informational Test: Non-fiction books, also referred to as expository text, that contain facts and information.

Intervention: Highly skilled teachers in a small pupil-teacher ration classroom provide explicit and systematic instruction that is tailored to meet the identified needs of struggling readers. Teaches will utilize assessment to guide accelerated instruction, use teacher modeling and scaffolding with gradual release of responsibility to students, and provide extensive practice opportunities.

Intervention Program: Programs that provide instruction intended for flexible use as part of differentiated instruction and/or more intensive intervention to meet student learning needs in one or more of the specific areas of reading (phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension). These programs are used to provide targeted, intensive intervention for small groups of struggling readers.

Invented Spelling: An attempt by beginning writers to spell a word when the standard spelling is unknown, using whatever knowledge of sounds or visual patterns the writer has.

Inversions: Reversal or "flipping" of letters either horizontally or vertically, i.e.: p-d, or b-d, m-w, u-n. Not unusual for Emergent writers or readers.

KWL Chart (*K*now, *W*ant to know, *L*earned): A pre-reading or during reading activity to support understanding in which adult and child develop a chart organized in three columns: 1) things the child already *K*nows about a specific topic, 2) what the child *W*ants to know about the same topic, and 3) what the child *L*earns about the topic after reading about it.

Language Experience Approach: a method of teaching reading by using the reader's own dictated language.

Language Structure: The organization of words (both spoken and written) into meaningful segments (phrases or sentences) using conventions of grammar and syntax.

Letter Combinations: Also referred to as digraphs, a group of consecutive letters that represents a particular sound(s) in the majority of words in which it appears (e.g., *ai* in m*ai*d; *ch* in *ch*air; *ar* in c*ar*; *kn* in *kn*ow; *ng* in ri*ng*).

Letter Recognition: The identification of individual letters by name and/or sound in a variety of contexts.

Letter-Sound Correspondence: Making a connection between individual letters and the sounds they represent (graphophonics).

Linguistic Approach: A reading based on highly regular spelling patterns. Such as: Nat the cat sat on the mat.

Literal Comprehension: Understanding of the basic facts that the student has read.

Main Idea: The central thought or message of a reading passage.

Miscue: Any substitution of a word in a text that a reader makes.

Miscue Analysis: An examination of reading errors or substitutions (miscues) as the basis for determining the strengths and weaknesses of students' reading skills.

Modeled Reading: An experienced reader's oral reading of a text to aid students in learning strategies, understanding intonation and expression, and the use of punctuation, among other aspects of reading.

Metacognition: An awareness of one's own thinking processes and how they work. The process of consciously thinking about one's learning or reading while actually being engaged in learning or reading. Metacognitive strategies can be taught to students; good readers use metacognitive strategies to think about and have control over their reading.

Modeling: Teacher overtly demonstrates a strategy, skill, or concept that students will be learning.

Morpheme: The smallest meaningful unit of language.

Morphemic Analysis: An analysis of words formed by adding prefixes, suffixes or other meaningful word units to a base word.

Morphology: The system of meaningful parts from which words may be created.

Multisyllabic Words: Words with more than one syllable. A systematic introduction of prefixes, suffixes, and multisyllabic words should occur throughout a reading program. The average number of syllables in the words students read should increase steadily throughout the grades.

Narrative Text: Text that tells a story about fictional or real events.

Objectives: Measurable statements detailing the desired accomplishments of a program.

Oddities: Vowels that are pronounced differently from the expected pronunciation (e.g., the "o" in old is pronounced /ō/ instead of the expected /o/).

Onset and Rime: In a syllable, the onset is the initial consonant or consonants, and the rime is the vowel and any consonants that follow it (e.g., the word *sat*, the onset is *s* and the rime is *at*. In the word *flip*, the onset is *fl* and the rime is *ip).*

Orthographic Units: The representation of the sounds of a language by written or printed symbols.

Orthography: A writing system for representing language.

Pacing: the pace of a lesson should move briskly, but not so fast as to rush students beyond their ability to answer correctly. The purposes for a fast pace are to help students pay close attention to the material being presented, and provided students more practice time which increases the opportunity for greater student achievement, keeps students actively engaged, and reduces behavior management problems by keeping students on-task.

Partner/Peer Reading: Reading aloud taking turns with a partner who provides word identification help and feedback.

Pattern Story or Cumulative Story: A story that has many elements or language patterns repeated until the climax; a predictable text.

Phoneme: The smallest unit of sound within our language system. A phoneme combines with other phonemes to make words.

Phoneme Isolation: Recognizing individual sounds in a word (e.g., /p/ is the first sound in pan).

Phoneme Manipulation: Adding, deleting, and substituting sounds in words (e.g., add /b/ to out to make boat; delete /p/ in pan to make at; substitute /o/ for /a/ in a pat to make pot).

Phonemic Awareness: The ability to notice, think about, or manipulate the individual phonemes (sounds) in words. It is the ability to understand that sounds in spoken language work together to make words. This term is used to refer to the highest level of phonological awareness: awareness of individual phonemes in words.

Phonics: The study of the relationships between letters and the sounds they represent; also used to describe reading instruction that teaches sound-symbol correspondences.

Phonics Approach: Teaching reading and spelling in a way that stresses the connection between letters and the sounds they represent, teaches the dissection of words into parts and then blending the sounds together again. Phonics can be taught directly or can be incorporated in ongoing reading and writing.

Phonogram: A succession of letters that represent the same phonological unit in different words, such as *igh* in fli*gh*t, m*igh*t, t*igh*t, s*igh*, and h*igh*.

Phonological Awareness: One's sensitivity to, or explicit awareness of, the phonological structure of words in one's language. This is an "umbrella" term that is used to refer to a student's sensitivity to any aspect of phonological structure in language. It encompasses awareness of individual words in sentences syllables, and onset-rime segments, as well as awareness of individual phonemes.

Phonology: The speech-sound system.

Picture Cues: Use of images that accompany and reflect the content of a text to help readers figure out words and understand the meaning of text.

Picture Walk: A pre-reading strategy: an examination of the text looking at pictures to gain an understanding of the story and to illicit story related language in advance.

Pragmatics: A branch of linguistics concerned with the use of language in social contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language.

You have invited your friend over for dinner. Your child sees your friend reach for some cookies and says, "Better not take those, or you'll get even bigger." You're embarrassed that your child could speak so rudely. However, you should consider that your child may not know how to use language appropriately in social situations and did not mean harm by the comment.

An individual may say words clearly and use long, complex sentences with correct grammar, but still have a communication problem – if he or she has not mastered the rules for social language known as pragmatics.

Prefix: A morpheme that precedes a root and that contributes to or modifies the meaning of a word as re-in reprint.

Pre-reading Strategies: Activities that take place just before reading, like reviewing a book cover or looking at the pictures, predicting, and formulating questions; these strategies provide students with valuable information about the text and prepare them for reading.

Print Conventions/Conventions of Print: The understanding an individual has about the rules or accepted practices that govern the use of print in the use of written language: for example concepts about print include: reading left to right, top to bottom, words are made of letters, use of spaces between words, use of upper case letters, spelling patterns, punctuation, etc.

Prior Knowledge: Refers to schema, the knowledge and experience that readers bring to the text.

Progress Monitoring: Tests that keep the teacher informed about the child's progress in learning to read during the school year. They are a quick sample of critical reading skills that will tell the teacher if the child is making adequate progress toward grade level reading ability at the end of the year.

Prosody: Reading with expression, proper intonation, and phrasing. This helps readers to sound as if they are speaking the part they are reading. It is also this element of fluency that sets it apart from automaticity.

Rate: the speed at which a person reads.

Readability Level: refers to independent, instructional, and frustrational levels of text reading.

Reading Centers: Special places organized in the classroom for students to work in small groups or pairs, either cooperatively or individually. Students work in centers while the teacher is conducting small group reading instruction. Each center contains meaningful, purposeful activities that are an extension and reinforcement of what has already been taught by the teacher in reading groups or in a large group. Reading centers offer students the opportunity to stay academically engaged as they apply the skills they have been learning. They are an excellent way for teachers to determine whether or not students know what they have been

taught. It is important to develop a system and organize your classroom in such a way that you can provide feedback to students in a timely manner. Waiting until the end of the week to look at what students have worked on all week is not a productive use of instructional time, as students may have been practicing errors all week.

Examples of Reading Centers: Students practice phonics skills at the phonics center, sort word cards at the vocabulary center, and at the reading center, they read books, listen to taped books, record the reading of a book, and read in pairs. The reading center would contain a variety of books at various reading levels to meet the needs of all students. Other centers may consist of writing and spelling activities, pocket charts, white boards, magnetic letters to practice word building, sentence strips and word cards to create stories, sequencing activities with pictures, story boards, or sentence strips to retell a story that has been read. Some centers may be permanent; others will change according to the skills, books, and activities being currently addressed. It is recommended that teachers not bring in material from other content areas unless the activity from science or math, for example, specifically focuses on a skill that is being addressed in reading instruction. Reading centers require careful planning.

Reading Fluency Prorating Formula: when students are asked to read connected text for more than one minute or less than one minute, their performance must be prorated to give a fluency rate per minute. The prorating formula for this is the following:

words read correctly x 60 / by the number of seconds = Reading Fluency Score

Repeated Reading: Rereading of text until the reader is able to read at a predetermined rate to produce fluency.

Retelling: Recalling the content of what was read or heard.

Reversals: The result of reversing the order of letters in a word (tap/pat), or confusing similar letters such as d-b, or writing letters backwards. Not uncommon with Emergent readers and writers.

Rhyming: Words that have the same ending sound.

Root: A bound morpheme, usually of Latin origin, that cannot stand alone but is used to form a family of words with related meanings.

Scaffolded Instruction: The process of modeling and encouraging strategic, successful reading by providing structure, organization, questioning, clarification, summarizing, or trying information to what is known or what will be found out. Students are given all the support they need to arrive at the correct answer. For example, after an error occurs, the support or assistance a teacher offers may include cues, giving reminders or encouragement, breaking the problem down into steps, providing an example, or anything else so that students can arrive at the correct answer instead of the teacher giving the answer.

Schema: Refers to prior knowledge, the knowledge and experience that readers bring to the text.

Schwa: The vowel sound sometimes heard in an unstressed syllable and is most often sounded as '*uh*' or as the short '*u*' sound as in 'c*u*p.'

Scientifically Based Reading Research (SBRR): Refers to empirical research that applies rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge. This includes research that: employs systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment; has been accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of

independent experts through a comparably rigorous, objective and scientific review; involves rigorous data analyses that are adequate to text the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions drawn; relies on measurements or observational methods that provide valid data across evaluators and observers and across multiple measurements and observations; and can be generalized.

Scope and Sequence: A "roadmap" or "blueprint" for teachers that provides an overall picture of an instructional program.

Screening: Tests that provide the teacher a beginning assessment of the student's preparation for grade level reading instruction. They are a "first alert" that a child will need extra help to make adequate progress in reading during the year.

Segmenting: Separating the individual phonemes, or sounds, of a word into discrete units.

Self Monitoring: Paying attention to one's own reading process while reading, and taking steps to reread or make corrections as needed to make sense of the text.

Semantics: The study of the meaning in language; the analysis of the meanings of words, phrases, sentences.

Semantic Feature Analysis: Uses a grid to help explore how a set of things are related to one another. By analyzing the grid one can see connections, make predications, and master important concepts.

Semantic Maps: Portray the schematic relations that compose a concept; a strategy for graphically representing concepts.

Shared Reading: When children are involved in reading a text with an adult in such a way that the adult models strategies and concepts such as predicting and noticing letter patterns. Helpful with very early readers in developing concepts about print such as "word" and directionality.

Sight Words: Words that are recognized immediately. Sometimes sight words are thought to be irregular, or high frequency (e.g., the Dolch and Fry lists). However, any word that is recognized automatically is a sight word. These words may be phonetically regular or irregular.

Sound(ing) Out: Using phonics to figure out words.

Sound to Symbol: Phonics instruction that matches phoneme to grapheme.

Spelling Patterns: Refers to digraphs, vowel pairs, word families, and vowel variant spellings.

Story Elements: Characters, problem, solutions, themes, settings, and plot.

Story Grammar: The general structure of stories that includes story elements.

Story Maps: A strategy used to unlock the plot and important elements of a story. These elements can be represented visually through various graphic organizations showing the beginning, middle, and end of a story. Answering the questions of who, where, when, what, and how or why, and listing the main events is also part of story mapping. These elements are also referred to as story grammar.

Story/Text Structure: A set of conventions that govern different kinds of texts such as characters, plot, settings, or in an informational text, comparison and contrast.

Strategic Learners: Active learners. While reading they make predictions, organize information, and interact with the text. They think about what they are reading in terms of what they already know. They monitor their comprehension by employing strategies that facilitate their understanding.

Strategy: A means to enhance understanding of text.

Structural Analysis: A procedure for teaching students to read words formed with prefixes, suffixes, or other meaningful word parts.

Student Friendly Explanation: An explanation of the word's meaning rather than a definition.

1. Characterizes the word and how it is typically used.
2. Explains the meaning in everyday language.

Suffix: An affix attached to the end of a base, root, or stem that changes the meaning or grammatical function of the word, as –en in oxen.

Summarizing: Reducing large selections of text to their bare essentials: the gist, the key ideas, the main points that are worth noting and remembering.

Syllable: A segment of a word that contains one vowel sound. The vowel may or may not be preceded and/or followed by a consonant.

 Syllable Types: There are six syllable types:

1. Closed: cat, cobweb
2. Open: he, silo
3. Vowel-consonant-e (VCE): like, milestone
4. Consonant-l-e: candle, jungle (second syllable)
5. R-controlled: star, corner
6. Vowel pairs: count, rainbow

Symbol to Sound: Matching grapheme to phoneme.

Synonym: Words hat have similar meanings.

Syntax: The pattern or structure of word order in sentences, clauses and phrases; the grammatical rules that govern language. Sentences have to follow certain structural rules in order to make sense. You can't just throw any words together to make a sentence!

 *Order words make sense need to…*this doesn't make sense!

 *Words need order to make sense…*Ahh! Much better!

 So what is the structure of a sentence? How do we know what is supposed to go where? The answer lies in syntax.

Systematic Instruction: A carefully planned sequence for instruction, similar to a builder's blueprint for a house. A blueprint is carefully thought out and designed before building materials are gathered and construction begins. The plan for instruction that is systematic is carefully thought out, strategic, and designed before activities and lessons are planned. Instruction is clearly linked within, as well as across the five components (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension). For systematic instruction, lessons build on previously taught information, from simple to complex.

Systematic Phonics Instruction: Systematic phonics programs teach children an extensive, pre-specified set of letter-sound correspondences or phonograms.

Target Words: Words which are specifically addressed, analyzed, and/or studied in curriculum lessons, exercises, and independent activities.

The Writing Process: A view of teaching writing as an ongoing process involving several steps such as: planning, drafting, revising, editing, publishing.

Timed Reading: Student reads appropriate text with a predetermined number of words to be red within a specific amount of time.

Trade Book: A book intended for general reading that is not a textbook.

Utility: Degree of usefulness.

Variant Correspondences: various corresponding spelling patterns for a specific sound or a variety of spelling patterns for one sound (e.g., long a spelled a, a_e, ai_, _ay).

Visual Information: Information that is accessed through visual means such as the size and shape of a word, format, pictures, diagrams, etc.

Vocabulary: Refers to all of the words of our language. One must know words to communicate effectively. Vocabulary is important to reading comprehension because readers cannot understand what they are reading without knowing what most of the words mean. Vocabulary development refers to stored information about the meanings and pronunciation of words necessary for communication. Four types of vocabulary include listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Vowel Digraph or Vowel Pair: Two vowels together that represent one phoneme, or sound (e.g., ae, ai, oa).

Word Analysis/Word Attack Strategies: The process of using strategies to figure out or decode unfamiliar words.

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