



Foundations of Reading Study Guide

EXCERPTS

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Charts that Support General Concepts on the MTEL

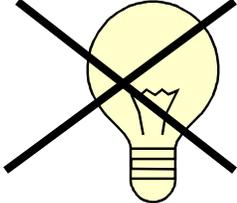
Explicit Instruction	Implicit Instruction
Most important “ <i>first step in a sequence of instruction</i> ”	For extension and practice; reinforcement of a previously taught skill
Teacher models, demonstrates; often direct instruction	Learning may be placed in an authentic context, where many skills and understandings are developed simultaneously (e.g. shared reading).
Overt objective; measurable	May feel less clear “what” would be assessed
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-directed; very focused	Learning experiences and assignments are not “random”, but have a clear and meaningful purpose
Explicit, systematic, sequential phonics instruction is of primary importance (use of syntax, semantics, context clues should be considered “back-up plans”)	Active learning instead of passive (based on current cognitive research, such as the value of creating semantic maps to remember vocabulary)

Reading Development and Identification of Gaps

Foundations of Reading Development	What is often the missing part of the equation???	Comprehension and Fluency
<p>Oral Language</p> <p>Phonological Awareness (specifically phonemic awareness)</p> <p>Emergent Literacy</p> <p>Concepts about Print</p> <p>Letter Identification</p> <p>Alphabetic Principle (letters and letter combinations represent sounds)</p> <p>Word Identification:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Phonics • Word Analysis • Sight Words • Use of Context Clues (semantics, syntax)—often observed when students self-correct 	<p>Vocabulary Knowledge</p> <p>Schema/Background Knowledge</p> <p>Self-Monitoring (metacognition--application of active reading strategies such as questioning, predicting, connecting)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <p>“Wide Awake” Reading</p>	<p>Demonstrates fluent reading and understanding of texts</p>

Comparison of Phonological Awareness and Phonemic Awareness to Phonics

PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS	PHONICS										
<p style="text-align: center;">Lights Out!</p>  <p style="text-align: center;">It's Auditory</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Lights On!</p>  <p style="text-align: center;">It's Auditory + Visual</p>										
<p>The following examples of phonological awareness skills are listed in a hierarchy from “basic” to “more complex”:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rhyming • Syllables • Counting words in a sentence • Hearing/manipulating onset and rime <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Sometimes identified as an example of basic Phonological Awareness; sometimes Phonemic Awareness <p>5. Phonemic Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Phonemic Awareness is the most complex level of phonological awareness. ○ The ability to manipulate and identify the individual phonemes in spoken words. ○ Phonemic awareness skills also fall within a hierarchy from “basic” to “complex” ○ Identification of initial sound (e.g. /v/ is the first sound in <i>van</i>) is one example of a basic level. ○ Phonemic segmentation is considered a benchmark for demonstrating a complex level of phonemic awareness. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Example: How many sounds/ phonemes in ship? /sh/ /i/ /p/=3 ○ One of the greatest predictors of reading success. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Alphabetic principle ○ Mapping phonemes to their corresponding letters and letter combinations (graphemes) <table border="1" data-bbox="870 1230 1393 1465" style="margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <thead> <tr> <th>Onset</th> <th>Rime</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>st</td> <td>op</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c</td> <td>at</td> </tr> <tr> <td>sh</td> <td>ape</td> </tr> <tr> <td>l</td> <td>ip</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Onset	Rime	st	op	c	at	sh	ape	l	ip
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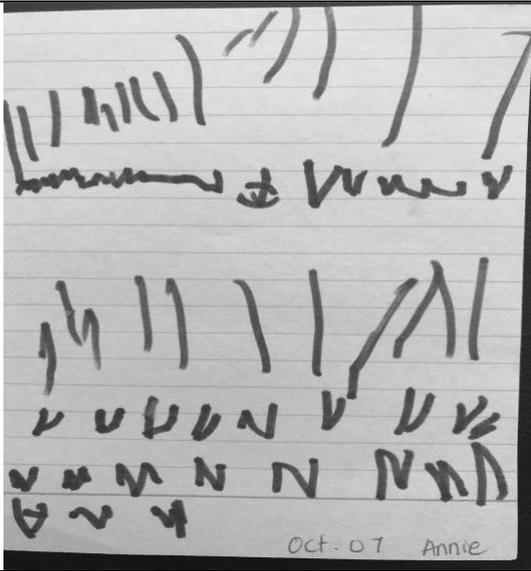
Literacy Development in Emergent Readers

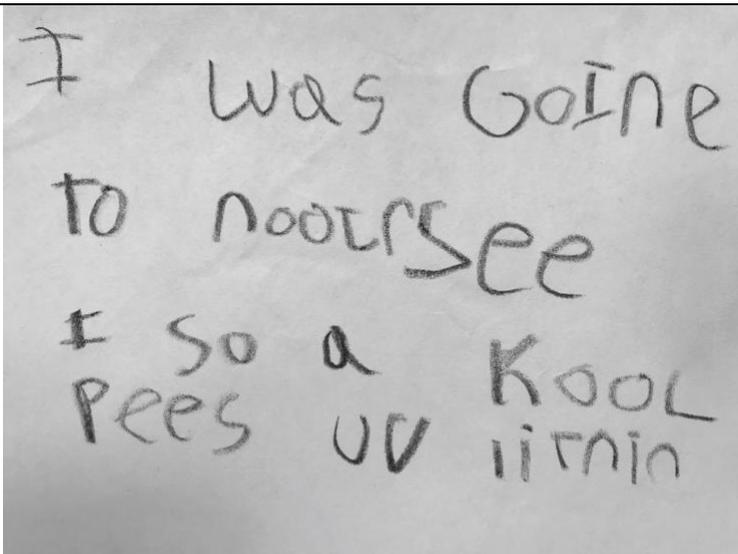
Emergent reading begins as soon as children are immersed in an environment in which they are exposed to print. For many children, this means they are emergent readers *from birth*. On the test, when the term “emergent readers” is used, it often means preschoolers or kindergarteners who have not yet begun formal reading instruction.

Emergent readers:

- Develop understandings about and dispositions toward reading; they do not just learn discrete skills (such as letter names and sounds).
- Develop the understanding that print carries meaning (through being read to and through having their spoken words written in print).
- Mimic readers in their lives (“pretend reading”, emergent storytelling; demonstrating concepts about print and book handling).
- Mimic writers in their lives (approximating in increasingly conventional ways writing to convey a message—from squiggles to strings of random letters, to simple phonetic spelling of dominant sounds in words).
- Develop oral language (building receptive and expressive vocabularies through conversation, through hearing language spoken around them, through being read to).
- Develop 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)

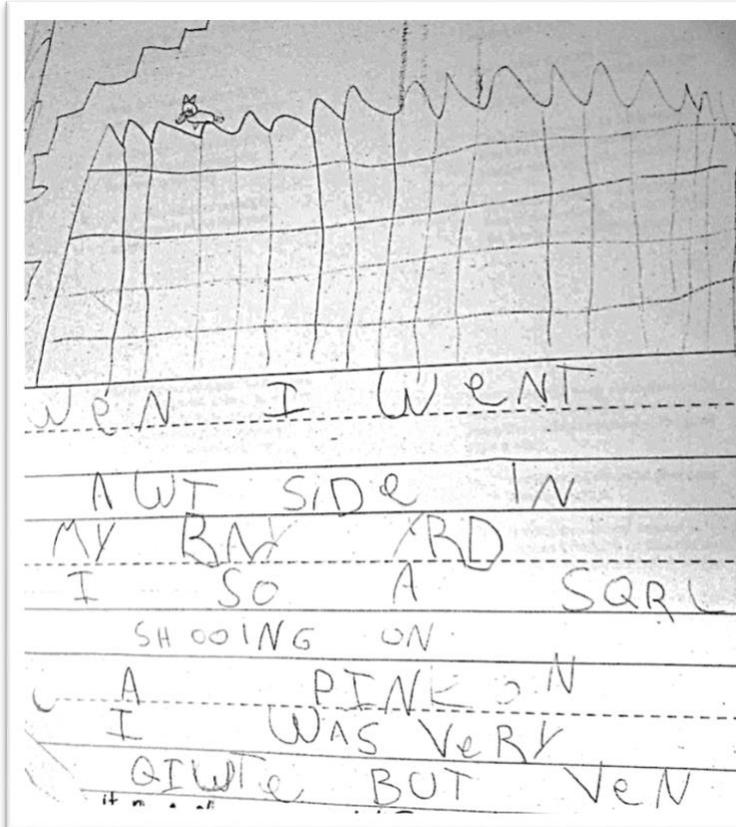
Samples of Emergent Writing

 <p>A piece of lined paper with several rows of squiggly lines and some recognizable shapes like 'N' and 'U' written in a child's handwriting. At the bottom right, it says "Oct. 07 Annie".</p>	<p>This first example illustrates the literacy skills of a child who knows that “print carries meaning”. She knows that the squiggles carry meaning and are different than pictures. She does not yet know conventional letters. Learning some letters that hold relevance for her (i.e. those in her name or the names of loved ones, letters from environmental print) would be a logical next step for her.</p>
 <p>The letters "S I S M K" are written in a simple, blocky font. Below them are two simple line drawings of people. At the bottom, the text "This is me and Ben" is written in a similar simple font.</p>	<p>This example shows the child further along in her literacy development. She is writing conventional letters, although the letters used are random and are not yet associated with the corresponding sound(s). She has grasped the idea that the function of print is distinct from that of pictures.</p>
 <p>The letters "V U D L L" are written on the top line and "L I F" on the bottom line. Below the text is a simple line drawing of a person holding a baby.</p>	<p>This child is now showing knowledge of the <u>alphabetic principle</u> (phonics). Her label says, “wonderful life”. She knows the letters are represented by sounds.</p>



This child's **“invented (phonetic) spelling”** is a window into her phonics knowledge (she is applying knowledge of the alphabetic principle and is representing sounds with the letters she knows). She also knows some high frequency words (I, was, to, a) and is showing knowledge of some print conventions such as left-right directionality and spaces between words.

“I was going to New Jersey I saw a cool piece of lightning.”

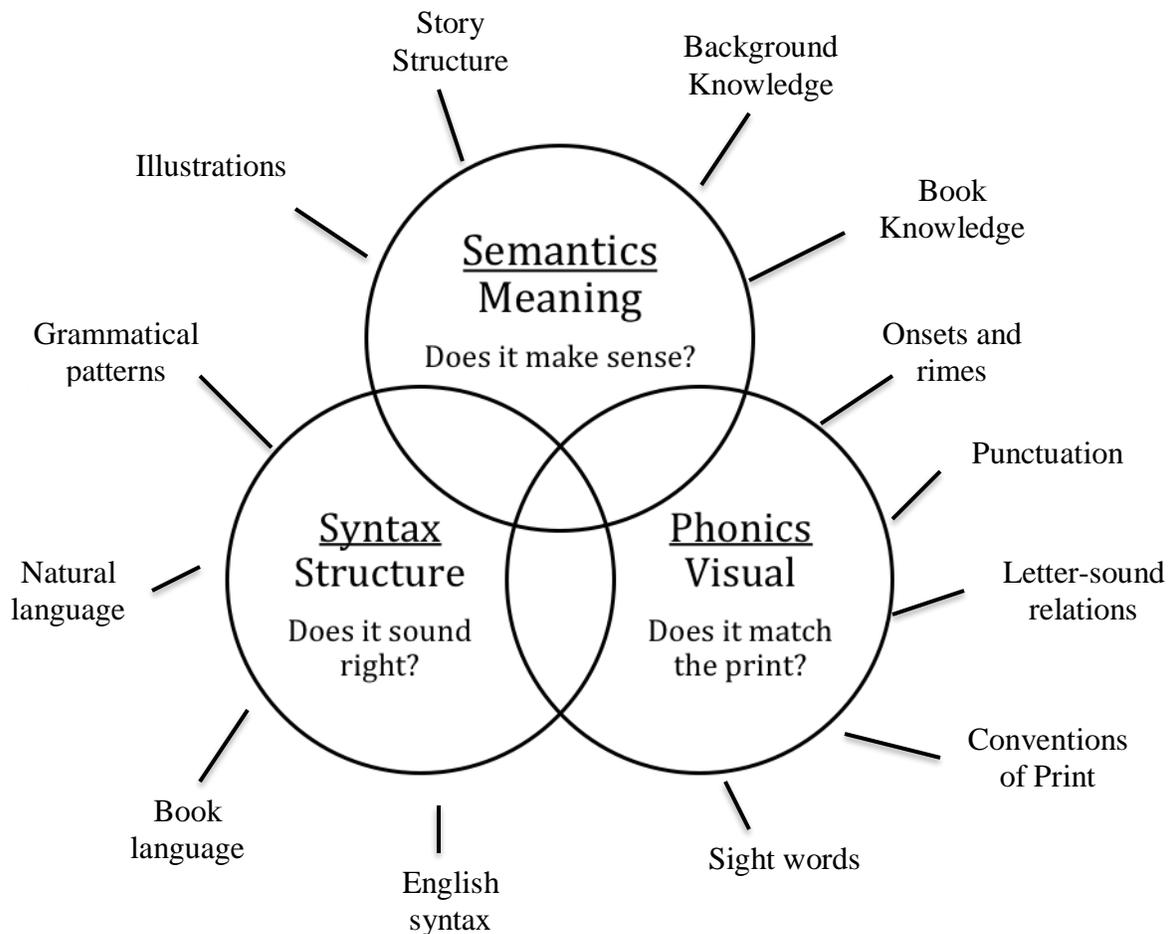


This child's story shows evidence of her knowledge of **concepts about print** and the **alphabetic principle**:

- Left to right and top to bottom directionality; return sweep
- Spaces between words
- High Frequency Words: I, went, in, my, a, on, was, very, but
- Knowledge of phonics generalizations with the dominant consonant and short vowel sounds
- Developing knowledge of phonics generalizations for digraphs and the CVCe (silent e) pattern. Note how she “uses but confuses” these generalizations in the words “shooing” for “chewing” and “ven” for “then”. She also uses the CVCe pattern in the word “side” but not in “pinecone”. She is ready to learn these patterns.

“When I went outside in my back yard I saw a squirrel chewing on a pinecone. I was very quiet but then [it ran up a tree].”

The Three Reading Cueing Systems¹



Capable readers use all three cueing systems. Teachers need to teach and assess for all three cueing systems.

Cueing Systems

What are the cueing systems? Cueing systems are strategies that readers use to predict, confirm and self-correct when reading words that they do not already know with automaticity.

When analyzing for use of cueing systems, analyze only up to the **point of error**, not beyond.

A simplified version of the cueing systems:

Cueing System	Questions and prompts for the reader:	Demands knowledge of. . .	MTEL Interpretation
<u>M</u> eaning/Semantics (M)	<i>What would <u>make</u> sense?</i> Does that make sense?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The context of sentence, paragraph, passage and/or text • Background knowledge • Illustrations, where available 	Context Clues- “Back-Up Plan”
<u>S</u> tructure/Syntax (S)	<i>What would <u>sound</u> right?</i> How would we <u>say</u> it? Would we say it that way?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar • An intuitive sense of the correct order of words in a sentence, subject-verb agreement, consistent use of tense 	
<u>V</u> isual/Phonics (V)	<i>What word matches the print?</i> What sounds do the letters/letter combinations make? “Sound it out”. “Tap it out.” “Chunk it.”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alphabetic principle • Letter-sound correspondence • Phonics generalizations • Structural Analysis Strategies 	THE CUEING SYSTEM GIVEN GREATEST PRIORITY AND IMPORTANCE for INSTRUCTION—

Important Phonics Generalizations and Terms^{2,3}

	Consonants (C)	Vowels (V)
<p>Some useful generalizations about consonants and vowels:</p>	<p>B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P etc.</p> <p>Consonant letters are fairly reliable. There is a strong relationship between the letter and the sound we expect it to represent.</p> <p>Consonants represent the dominant sounds in words.</p>	<p>Generally, vowel sounds are considered short, such as in the sounds below:</p>  <p>Or long, such as the sounds in the words below:</p>  <p>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).</p>

	CONSONANTS	VOWELS
. . .but there are irregularities. . .	<p>A letter may represent more than one phoneme. For example, some consonant letters may produce a hard or soft sound.</p> <p>The hard c is the sound of /k/ in <i>cat</i>.</p> <p>The soft c is the sound of /s/ in <i>cent</i>, and <i>city</i>.</p> <p>The hard g is the sound of /g/ in <i>game</i>.</p> <p>The soft g is the sound of /j/ in <i>gem</i> and <i>gentle</i>.</p>	<p>Vowel sounds behave differently in accented and unaccented syllables. The vowel is most clearly heard in the accented syllable.</p>
Final -y		Y functions as a vowel in the final position (e.g. very, merry)

Blend

(Each phoneme still heard)

Digraph

(Combination of letters creates a new phoneme)

<u>Blends</u>	<p>bl, sm, scr, gr, sl, etc.</p> <p>Blends are consonant pairs or clusters. <i>Trick to help you remember:</i> 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).</p>	<p>(The term “blend” is generally used when referring to consonants. A diphthong, described below, is the vowel equivalent.)</p>
<u>Digraphs</u>	<p>ch, ph, sh, th, wh, tch, gh (final position only), ng (final position only) etc.</p> <p>Two consonant letters that together make a <u>new sound</u>.</p> <p><i>Trick to help you remember:</i> A digraph makes me laugh. The last two letters in digraph (ph) and in laugh (gh) are connected to form two <u>completely new sounds</u>.</p>	<p>ai, ay, oa, ee, ea</p> <p>Generalization: “When two vowels go walking, the first one does the talking and says its name”.</p> <p>These combinations of vowels together make one <u>new sound</u>.</p>

	CONSONANTS	VOWELS
Silent “E”		<p>When a short word ends with an “e”, the first vowel usually has the long sound and the final “e” is silent.</p> <p>Word or syllable patterns that follow this generalization:</p> <p>VCe (ape) CVCe (cape) CCVCe (brave)</p>
“R-Controlled Vowels” or “Vowels followed by r”		<p>When a vowel letter is followed by “r”, the vowel sound is neither long nor short (it is different!).</p> <p><i>Examples:</i> “ar” in car, “or” in for, “ir” in bird</p>
Diphthongs		<p>A blend of vowel sounds, where each sound is still heard.</p> <p>The two most agreed upon vowel combinations are “oi” in boil and “ou” in mouth or ouch. The words “toy” and “cow” are also considered to contain diphthongs (ow and oy).</p>

Approaches to Phonics Instruction

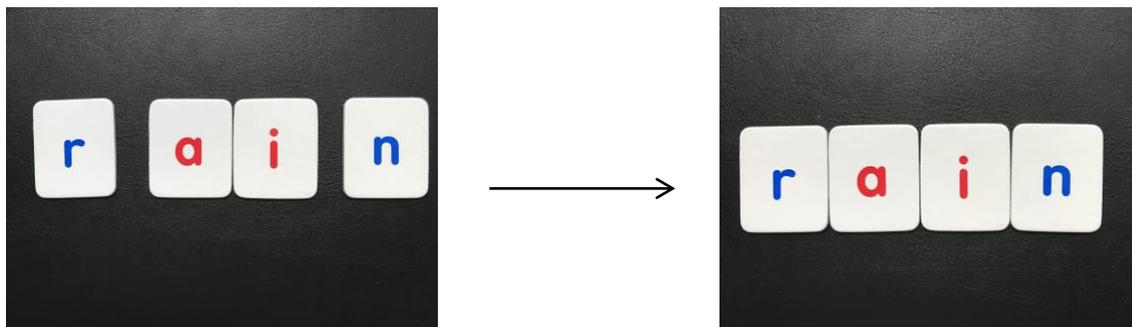
Synthetic vs. Analytic Approaches to Phonics Instruction:

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. . .⁴

Example: Teaching *ai* vowel digraph using a synthetic approach

- Students are introduced to a new phonics pattern (the vowel digraph *ai*) through explicit and direct instruction followed by blending individual letters and letter combinations into a new word.

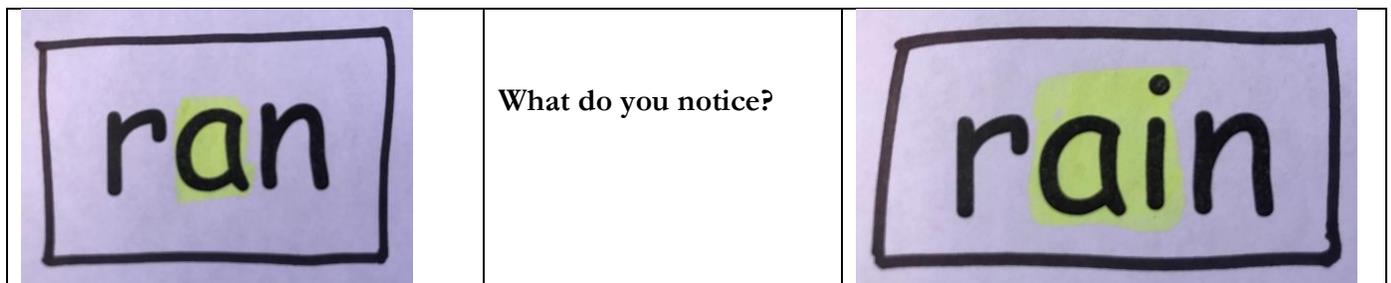


Analytic Phonics:

- 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.⁵

Example: Teaching *ai* vowel digraph using an analytic approach

- Students are introduced to a new phonics pattern by comparing the whole words *ran* and *rain* and are prompted to notice the change in the vowel pattern and in the pronunciation of the two words.



Researched-Based Sequence of Instruction for Phonics⁶

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

The words listed above are also known as **closed syllables**. They end in a consonant and contain a short vowel sound.

Next, children are introduced to **LONG VOWEL PATTERNS**.

CVCe: The “Silent e” Pattern

same
late
bike

CVVC: Words with Vowel Digraphs

rain
team
bait
train
chain
toast
reach
speech

SIGHT WORDS/HIGH FREQUENCY WORDS

Children at this stage also begin to learn a bank of sight words. The term “sight words” is often used interchangeably with “high frequency words,” but these terms have slightly different meanings.

High frequency words are words that appear so often in the texts children read (and write) that it is more efficient to memorize these words and know them with automaticity. Some of these words are also irregular (they cannot be decoded following phonics generalizations). There are several published lists of high frequency words (e.g. words by Dolch, Sitton).

Sight words refers to any word an individual child knows automatically by sight. A child’s “sight word vocabulary” refers to the bank of words an individual knows with automaticity.

Examples of high frequency words for beginning readers:

I, me, you, mom, play, the

Examples of high frequency words for more proficient readers:

because, friend, there, when, could, should, always

Transitional Readers (typically 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

Fluency

Reading fluently includes three elements (accuracy, rate and prosody).

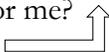
Accuracy: The percentage of words read correctly (usually allowing for self-corrections).

Rate: The speed with which a text is read (Words Per Minute: WPM)

Prosody: The overall “smoothness” of the reading which includes phrasing, expression and intonation.

Phrasing: I picked up my son and we drove to the soccer field.

Expression: “~~Wait for me!~~” exclaimed the child.

Intonation: Is that for me? 

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.

When building oral reading fluency, children need massive amounts of practice reading independent level texts. Independent texts are those with which the student reads with 95% or greater accuracy and with satisfactory comprehension. With independent level texts, the reader reads with no more than 5/100 errors (95/100 correct). When identifying the level of text difficulty appropriate for different purposes, keep in mind the accuracy rates below:

Independent Level	Instructional Level	Frustration Level
95-100% accuracy	90-94% accuracy	Below 90% accuracy
This is the level at which students should practice reading independently to build oral reading fluency.	This is the <i>student’s zone of proximal development</i> where small group instruction (such as guided reading) or individual instruction is appropriate.	There is little evidence to show that reading development can occur at this level of difficulty. <i>See note below about the place for reading complex texts at one’s grade level, even if the text level is at the reader’s “frustration level” on the page to follow.*</i>

Choosing Books for Independent Reading and Small Group Instruction:

When matching books to readers for independent reading and small group instruction (e.g. guided reading), teachers rely on different published systems to identify the text complexity level. Text complexity is determined by a number of factors including level of difficulty of the vocabulary, sentence length, and content. One such leveling system is the Fountas and Pinnell Guided Reading gradient. Guided Reading levels are identified with a letter (A-Z). Another system is the DRA which uses a numerical system. Lexile Levels are largely used in association with the Common Core. You will also find grade level equivalents for texts. For example, a text identified as at a 5.4 reading level would be appropriate for students typically reading in the middle of grade 5 (5th grade, 4th month).

***The place for reading complex texts even if they are at a “Frustration Level”:**

To develop proficient readers (readers who read fluently *and* comprehend deeply), readers need instruction that is differentiated. Reading instruction will be most effective when readers are instructed individually and in small groups with texts that have a slight degree of difficulty (these are the instructional level texts identified in the chart above).

That said, all children (regardless of their identified reading levels) should have access to complex texts—texts with the language, vocabulary, concepts and content identified as appropriate for the grade level. The teacher’s **read-aloud** provides such access as does **close reading**, a method by which the teacher engages children in repeated readings of short sections of text, providing modeling and scaffolding with each successive reading.

This emphasis on reading complex texts is a foundation of the *Common Core State Standards* (see the Introduction):

The Reading standards place equal emphasis on the sophistication of what students read and the skill with which they read. Standard 10 defines a grade-by-grade “staircase” of increasing text complexity that rises from beginning reading to the college and career readiness level. Whatever they are reading, students must also show a steadily growing ability to discern more from and make fuller use of text, including making an increasing number of connections among ideas and between texts, considering a wider range of textual evidence, and becoming more sensitive to inconsistencies, ambiguities, and poor reasoning in texts.

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 apply 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”.

PEDOMETER BIOLOGY MISFORTUNE

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) CVCC (damp) CVC (ham) 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 <i>long vowel sound</i> . CV (he, me) CV-CVC (ti -ger, na -tion, hu -man)
Inflectional Endings	Affixes added to the end of words to indicate number (ox/oxen, bush/bushes) or tense (play ing , play ed , play s)
Syllabication	<u>Examples:</u> sum-mer pre-vent um-brel-la
Compound Words	<u>Examples:</u> pancake shoelace
Contractions	<u>Examples:</u> have not: haven't can not: can't
Prefixes/Suffixes	<u>Examples:</u> re- un- -able -tion
Schwa	<p>ə An unstressed vowel sound, such as the first sound in “around” and the last vowel sound in “custom”. In the examples below, the bold part of the word is the accented (stressed) syllable.</p> <p>Would you present the present to the guest of honor? It is a good idea to record your expenses so you have a record of them.^{vii}</p>

Vocabulary Development: Overview

Vocabulary relates to understanding the MEANINGS of words.

Why is vocabulary so important to reading development?

- Teaching vocabulary improves students' comprehension.
- Students' ability to infer the meaning of the text is strongly related to their understanding of the meanings of words.
- The ability to read complex texts depends on a strong vocabulary.

Do we have a vocabulary “problem”?

- Students need but lack deep and meaningful understanding of words.
 - There are three levels of word knowledge: *unknown*, *acquainted*, and *established*^{viii}
 - Words at the established level are words that are easily, rapidly and automatically understood.
 - It is critical that we build students' established knowledge of words
- The more children are read to from birth, the more words in their oral and listening vocabularies.
- Reading aloud is also key for reading development. Many of the words in books do not arise naturally in discussions; wide reading builds rich vocabulary knowledge.
- A child's background knowledge also strongly affects their exposure to vocabulary. For example, consider children who lack knowledge of city life who live in rural settings and vice versa. Children are exposed to different words depending on their life experiences.
- Many children can appear to be strong readers because they read grade level texts with a high degree of accuracy; however, many of these same children may have little understanding of what they read.
 - When accuracy is strong and comprehension is weak, start by assessing whether or not the student understands the meanings of words in context. Lack of vocabulary knowledge is often the missing factor.

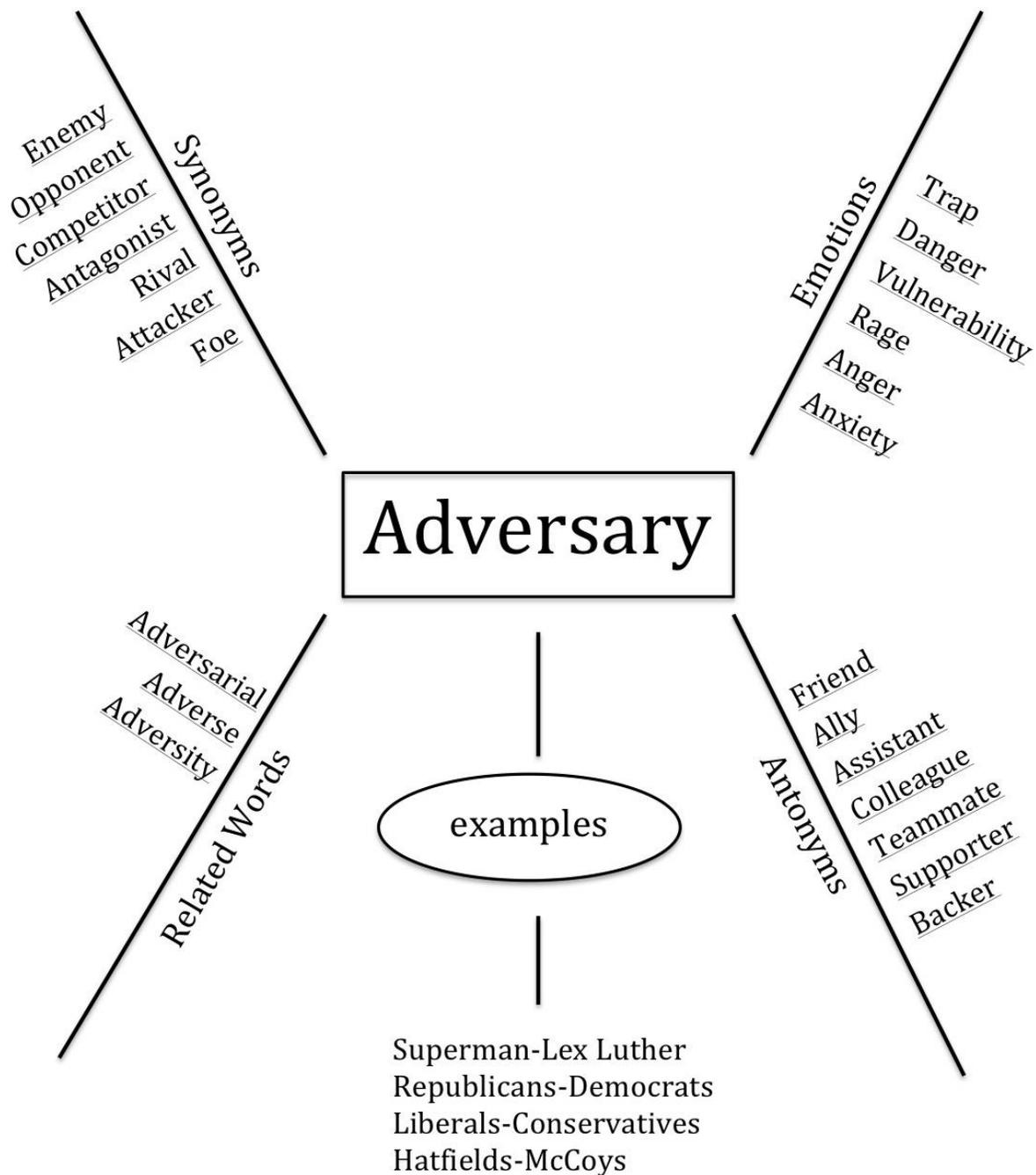
Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary Effectively

Effective instruction in vocabulary involves teaching both selected words and strategies for determining the meaning of unfamiliar words.

- **Provide explicit instruction in selected words that will likely be seen in other contexts**
 - Semantic maps and webs are effective for helping children make connections between known words and new words; graphic organizers provide a visual image of these connections and help children retain the meanings (see example on the next page)
 - Child-friendly definitions help children understand words in a meaningful context. For example, consider the dictionary definitions for *pedantic*:
 - *Random House, Webster's Dictionary*: overly concerned with minute details or formalisms, esp. in teaching
 - *Child-Friendly Definition*: being overly concerned with sticking to unimportant rules, being “stuffy” and inflexible about the small details of things
 - Providing opportunities to discover synonyms and antonyms help to clarify and expand word knowledge
 - *Collins Thesaurus of English Language—Synonyms for “pedantic”*: hairsplitting, particular, formal, precise, fussy, picky (informal); punctilious, priggish, pedagogic, pompous, erudite, didactic, bookish (formal)
 - Providing examples of words that “fit” and “don't fit” (i.e. providing examples and “non-examples”) also help students retain definitions

- o Providing multiple exposures of these words also help students retain word meanings

Semantic Map (example)



- **Provide explicit instruction in strategies to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words**
 - Use of context clues
 - Analysis of word parts (morphemic analysis) such as prefixes, suffixes, roots and bases
 - Dictionary skills
- Provide explicit instruction of technical (“domain specific”) vocabulary important to understanding content in social studies and science (e.g. lava, proton, atmosphere, colony)
- Provide opportunities for children to hear books read aloud.
 - Choose books that are ABOVE the students’ own reading level. Point out the meanings of important and a few selected words in context.
- Provide opportunities for children to read independently; wide reading across genres exposes students to words that do not appear in oral conversation.
 - 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.”^{ix}
- Provide opportunities for children to talk about what they read and what is read to them; talk supports vocabulary development and comprehension.
- Provide opportunities for children to make a connection between known words in speaking and the less familiar written form.
 - An effective strategy is to make sure children see the word at the same time that it is pronounced.
- Ensure that vocabulary instruction is active and engaging; engage children in developing word consciousness.
- Pair reading and writing (each supports the other!)

Note: The above strategies are suggested in place of traditional approaches that emphasize rote memorization of abstract definitions. For example, looking up and writing definitions from the dictionary for a long list of vocabulary words is not shown to be an effective practice for building vocabulary. Writing new vocabulary words in a sentence, in most cases, is also not an effective practice.

Some Important Considerations for Beginning Readers:

- Beginning reading instruction should focus on helping children learn to read words already in their spoken vocabularies
- As children develop as readers they 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.

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).

Vocabulary Tiers

Isabel Beck*

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

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.

Note how knowledge of Tier II vocabulary words affects one's overall comprehension of the passage.



Best Practices in Comprehension Instruction

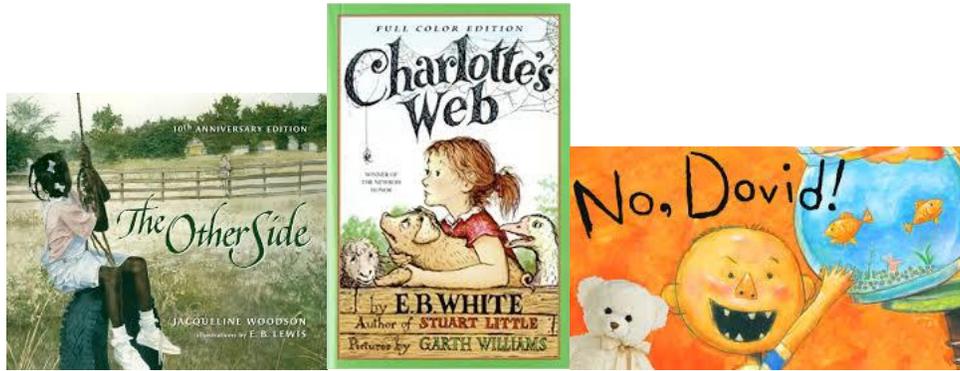
Reading = Thinking

Reading=Actively engaging in making meaning from texts

- Comprehension is not just “caught” (assessed); **it is taught**. One of the most effective methods for teaching students *how to comprehend* is by demonstrating one’s own thinking through a “think aloud”. Through this method the teacher talks out loud about his/her thinking as she engages with a portion of a text, demonstrating her strategies and ideas while making meaning.
- Traditional post-reading activities (e.g. answering a series of questions at the end of chapter or book or even completing creative projects such as dioramas) are not considered effective ways to strengthen students’ comprehension skills.
- Instead, conversation is at the heart of effective comprehension instruction. Teachers engage children in whole class, small group and one-on-one conversations about texts. Written response to reading occurs as students move into upper elementary grades, but these written responses have a more authentic feel (see examples below). With both conversation and written responses, students are expected to support their ideas with text evidence.
 - Primary grade children (K-2) learn *how to comprehend* and *demonstrate comprehension*, mostly through conversation among peers. A teacher may engage children in an interactive read-aloud in which children are prompted to talk with partners during key parts in the text. These ideas are then shared as a class. Conversation about texts is also an important part of guided reading.
 - Upper grade children (3-6) also *develop comprehension* through conversation among peers. During these grades, the teacher will likely still read aloud and engage students in whole-class conversations, but students also engage in comprehension conversations in increasingly independent ways (in the form of book clubs, literature circles). They also begin to demonstrate their comprehension through writing, sometimes by jotting their thinking on post-it notes or by developing written response to ideas in reader response journals and reader’s notebooks.

Example of Think-Aloud: Blackout

As children progress through the grades, they engage with texts in increasingly sophisticated ways, but the goals for each grade are essentially the same.



Literary Response Skills:

Examples: Retelling and Summarizing

Readers should be able to retell (and eventually summarize) the key ideas and details from a story that has been read aloud to them or that they have read independently. Retelling/summarizing these key elements is the same as demonstrating knowledge of story grammar (the elements of stories).

Primary grade children (K-2) may:

- Create a story map with their teacher and peers that identifies the key story elements (setting, characters, key events, problem, solution)
- Put items representing a story into a sequence (e.g. straw, hay, bricks for *The Three Little Pigs*)
- Discuss key events as part of a whole class post-reading conversation
- Create a simple summary through interactive or shared writing (in which the teacher leads the class in creating an enlarged class-created summary)

Upper grade children (3-6) may:

- Discuss the key story elements as part of a whole class conversation
- Summarize a text in a one-on-one conference
- Write a summary in a response journal

Examples of Literary Analysis:

Primary Grades: analyzing character feelings, character traits, lesson/moral and supporting one's analysis with text evidence

Upper Elementary: analyzing character traits, character change, character motivation, cause/effect of events, problem and resolution, central message/themes and supporting one's analysis with text evidence

- **Plot vs. Theme**
 - Plot: What happened (key events)
 - Theme: What the book is about (the "big ideas") ...for example, what is the author saying about Friendship? Love? Courage? Growing Up?

Craft and Structure: Analysis of the text as an “object”—how it’s structured (e.g. chronological, use of flashbacks); who is telling the story (who is the narrator? whose point of view?) and the impact of that perspective on the story; the writing techniques (writing style) the author employs (e.g. how the author might slow down the action to build suspense or use dialogue for humor); how the author might use particular words or phrases to convey mood/tone/develop a theme; use of literary devices (figurative language, symbolism)

Close Reading: While there are many interpretations of close reading, the one espoused by the Foundations of Reading test focuses on a **sequence** of repeated readings of an excerpt from a text or short “chunk” of text. Through each successive reading, students are guided to focus on a different aspect of the reading (such as the meaning of selected words and phrases) in order to form a deeper interpretation of the text. This process is used to support children in reading complex texts at grade level.

Development of literary response skills and Development of literary analysis skills

<https://study.com/academy/lesson/literary-response-analysis-skills-types-examples.html>



Informational/Expository Texts

Informational texts...

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

Analysis of Informational Texts:

Determining the main idea(s) and supporting details (evidence) is a crucial aspect of reading for meaning within an informational text. Synthesis of ideas across texts is another.

Craft and Structure

Analysis of the text as an “object”—noticing how it’s structured (true/false; cause/effect; pro/con; sequential etc.); determining the author’s purpose and perspective; analyzing the writing techniques (writing style) and use of text features the author employs for a particular effect; analyzing how the author might use particular words or phrases to convey a point of view

Close Reading: While there are many interpretations of close reading, the one espoused by the Foundations of Reading test focuses on a **sequence** of repeated readings of an excerpt from a text or short “chunk” of text. Through each successive reading, students are guided to focus on a different aspect of the reading (such as the meaning of selected words and phrases) in order to form a deeper interpretation of the text. This process is used to support children in reading complex texts at grade level. Close reading of informational texts allows reader to identify point of view, distinguish fact from opinion, determine whether a text has faulty (or biased) reasoning

Unique Reading Strategies of Informational Texts: adjusting reading rate based on text difficulty, skimming/scanning)

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.

Levels of Comprehension

Levels (from the more basic to the more complex)	Definition	Examples
<p>Literal</p> <p>--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)</p>	<p>Information that is stated <u>explicitly</u> in the text such as who, what, when, where, why.</p> <p>You can find the information “right there” on the page...just <i>read the lines</i>.</p>	<p>Excerpt from Text: <i>It was a bright, sunny day in April, and the flowers were in bloom.</i></p> <p>When does the story take place? <u>A sunny day in April.</u></p> <p>What was in bloom? <u>Flowers.</u></p>
<p>Inferential</p>	<p>Information that is <u>implied</u> within the text, but not directly or explicitly stated.</p> <p>The reader needs to “search and find” clues within the text and then <i>read between the lines</i>.</p>	<p>Excerpt from Text: <i>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.</i></p> <p>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></p>
<p>Evaluative</p>	<p>The reader needs to use information from the text and their own world experiences to form a judgment.</p>	<p>The question might sound like this:</p> <p>Do you think (character in the text) made the right choice for her family? Explain using text evidence.</p>

Notes on Reading Assessments^{xi}

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/graphophonics (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

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^{xii}

Preparation:

1. Select a passage of about 100 words.
2. Type it leaving the first and last sentences intact.
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 to 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 ratio 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^{xiii}

Student's name _____

Date _____

Score (number correct) _____

Directions: Today we're going to play 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 word.)

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.)

SAMPLE WORDS:

1. dog _____

2. keep _____

3. fine _____

4. sat _____

Another common test which measures phonemic awareness in the same manner is the DIBELS Phonemic Segmentation Test.

Concepts of Print Checklist (excerpt)^{xiv}

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:^{xv}

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.

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