

reading phonics
phonological awareness
word structure
fluency vocabulary

For All Educators Working to Improve Reading Achievement

Teaching Reading Sourcebook



comprehension
strategies informational
literature print
prosody decoding
word recognition

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Teaching Reading Sourcebook

THIRD EDITION

**Bill Honig, Linda Diamond,
Linda Gutlohn**

CONTRIBUTING AUTHORS

*Carrie L. Cole, Pamela Beard El-Dinary, Roxanne F. Hudson,
Holly B. Lane, Jacalyn Mahler, Paige C. Pullen*



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1300 Clay Street, Suite 600
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888-249-6155
www.corelearn.com

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CREDITS

Editorial Director: Linda Gutlohn
Book Design and Production: Lucy Nielsen
Contributors: Susan Blackaby, Catherine Boote, Carrie L. Cole, Pamela Beard El-Dinary, Jan E. Hasbrouck, Roxanne F. Hudson, Holly B. Lane, Jacalyn Mahler, Christine Fleming McIsaac, Paige C. Pullen, Small Planet Communications
Editorial: Shelle Epton, Lawrence DiStasi, Tom Hassett, David Sweet, Lynn Trepicchio

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For printable
PDFs of the Resources
section, go to
[www.corelearn.com/
SB2Resources.html](http://www.corelearn.com/SB2Resources.html)

For educators at every level, the *Teaching Reading Sourcebook* is a comprehensive reference about reading instruction. Organized according to the elements of explicit instruction (what? why? when? and how?), the Sourcebook includes both a research-informed knowledge base and practical sample lesson models.

what?
a thorough but concise graphic explanation of research-based content and best practices

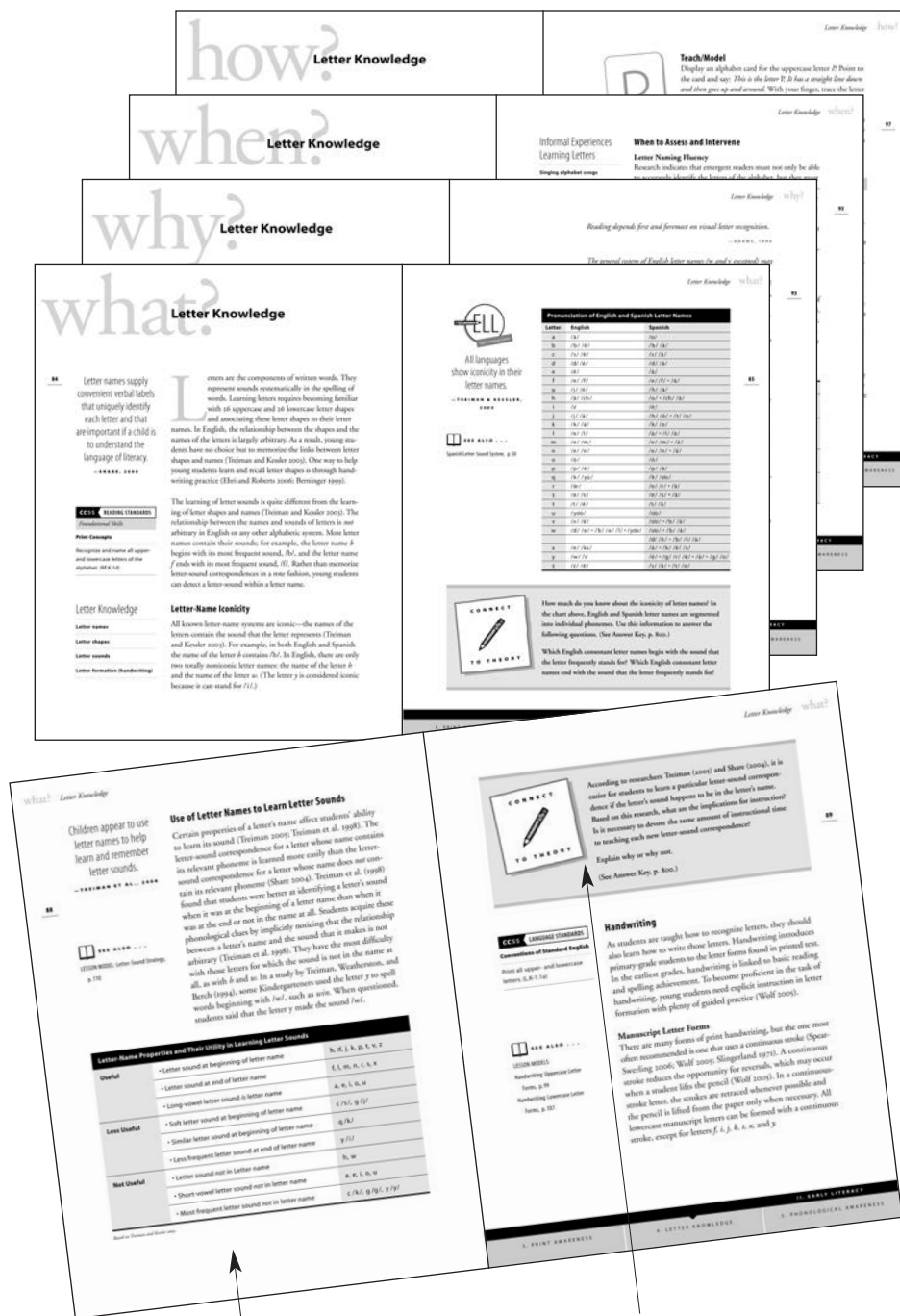
why?
a readable summary of scientifically based research, selected quotes from researchers, and a bibliography of suggested reading

when?
information about instructional sequence, assessment, and intervention strategies.

how?
sample lesson models with suggestions for corrective feedback; providing a bridge between research and practice, and making explicit instruction easy

The *Teaching Reading Sourcebook* combines the best features of an academic text and a practical hands-on teacher's guide. It is an indispensable resource for teaching reading and language arts to both beginning and older struggling readers.

WHAT? • WHY? • WHEN? • HOW?



Connect to Theory


- User-friendly text
- Plentiful charts and tables
- Interactive activities for the reader
- Opportunities to review and interpret content

- **elementary teachers**
to enhance reading instruction in
core reading programs
- **middle and high school teachers**
to enhance language arts and
content-area instruction
- **college professors and students**
as a textbook for pre-service
teacher education
- **providers of professional
development**
as an educational resource tool
- **school or district administrators**
to support and facilitate effective
literacy instruction
- **literacy coaches**
as a resource for implementation
- **teachers of English-language
learners (ELLs)**
to support reading acquisition
- **teachers of older struggling readers**
for research-based strategies
tailored to individual needs
- **new teachers**
as a comprehensive foundation
for reading instruction


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ma

567


Guidelines for Using the Dictionary



The first entry that you find for a word might not be the one you are looking for. Make sure you have found and read all the entries for a word.



When you find the right entry, read all the different meanings, or definitions, that the dictionary gives for the word. Do not just read only one of the entry.



Choose the dictionary meaning that best matches the context in which the word is used. One meaning will make sense, or fit better, than any other.

Display Guidelines for Using the Dictionary, such as the example shown above. Discuss the guidelines above, explaining each one of the points. Make sure that students understand the kinds of information they can derive from a dictionary definition.

Teach/Model

Use interactive whiteboard technology to display "Weekend Campus." Underline the word *pitch* in the fourth sentence. Tell students that you are going to show them how to use a dictionary to determine the meaning of the word *pitch*. Explain that they might have a feel for what the word *pitch* means without being exactly sure. Then read aloud the following sentence:

She will even **pitch** her tent in the backyard just to sleep outside.

DICTIONARY USE

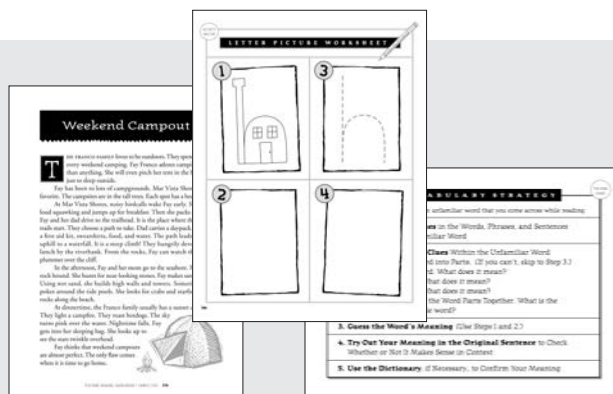
Target Word

pitch

1. VOCABULARY
2. READING STRATEGIES
3. WRITING STRATEGIES

- Focus and materials sidebar
- Explicit instruction
- Clear explanation
- Teacher modeling
- Useful background information
- Identification of research base
- Support for English-language learners
- Suggestions for corrective feedback

The Resources section provides reproducible sample texts, activity masters, and teaching charts designed to be used in conjunction with sample lesson models. Sample texts include literary and informational texts that provide a context for explicit instruction.



The Common Core State Standards do not tell teachers how to teach, but they do help teachers figure out the knowledge and skills their students should have

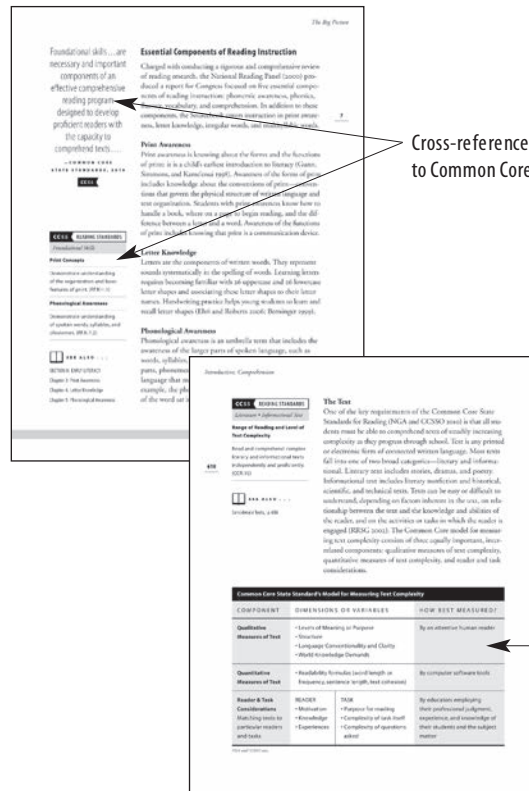
—Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2012

CCSS

How the Sourcebook can be useful for implementing the Common Core ...

- It provides a bridge between the Standards and evidence-based instruction.
- It encompasses the Reading strand, especially Foundational Skills.
- It extensively covers Vocabulary Acquisition and Use in the Language strand.
- It enhances understanding of Common Core's Appendix A: Research Supporting Key Elements of the Standards.
- It emphasizes reading of informational text: 8 out of 12 Sample Texts are informational.

The *Teaching Reading Sourcebook* has always supported educators in bridging the gap between evidence-based reading research and actionable instructional strategies. The Sourcebook also supports educators' efforts in understanding, transitioning to, unpacking, and implementing the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts. In the Third Edition, useful features seamlessly connect and clarify the Sourcebook's alignment to the Common Core.



CCSS FEATURES

- CCSS cross-references clearly indicate how Sourcebook content aligns to the Common Core.
- Sourcebook's section and chapter titles reflect terminology used in the Common Core.
- Sourcebook includes an easy-to-understand, graphic explanation of the Common Core's text complexity standard.
- CCSS text complexity levels are provided for all Sample Texts.

Charts and Tables Further Elicit Understanding of the Common Core

- Organization of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts, p. xvii
- Quick Reference: Where to Find the Common Core in the Sourcebook, p. xvii
- Correlation: Sourcebook Sample Lesson Models to Common Core State Standards, pp. xviii-xix
- Common Core State Standard's Model for Measuring Text Complexity, p. 610
- Qualitative Measures of Text Complexity: Literary and Informational Text, p. 611



CCSS Organization of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts

Strands	College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards	Grade-Specific Standards
READING: Literature (RL) READING: Informational Text (RI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key Ideas and Details (1, 2, 3) • Craft and Structure (4, 5, 6) • Integration of Knowledge and Ideas (7, 8, 9) • Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity (10) 	Grades K–5 Grades 6–12
READING: Foundational Skills (RF)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Print Concepts (1) • Phonological Awareness (2) • Phonics and Word Recognition (3) • Fluency (4) 	Grades K–5
WRITING (W)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Text Types and Purposes (1, 2, 3) • Production and Distribution of Writing (4, 5, 6) • Research to Build and Present Knowledge (7, 8, 9) • Range of Writing (10) 	Grades K–5 Grades 6–12
SPEAKING AND LISTENING (SL)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comprehension and Collaboration (1, 2, 3) • Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas (4, 5, 6) 	Grades K–5 Grades 6–12
LANGUAGE (L)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conventions of Standard English (1, 2) • Knowledge of Language (3) • Vocabulary Acquisition and Use (4, 5, 6) 	Grades K–5 Grades 6–12

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010.






See next page
for correlations of
Sourcebook
Sample Lesson
Models to CCSS

CCSS Quick Reference: Where to Find the Common Core in the Sourcebook


COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS

TEACHING READING SOURCEBOOK

STRAND	CCR ANCHOR STANDARD	SECTION	CHAPTER
READING: Foundational Skills	• Print Concepts	II: Early Literacy	3. Print Awareness 4. Letter Knowledge
	• Phonological Awareness	II: Early Literacy	5. Phonological Awareness
	• Phonics and Word Recognition	III: Decoding and Word Recognition	6. Phonics 7. Irregular Word Reading 8. Multisyllabic Word Reading
	• Fluency	IV: Reading Fluency	9. Fluency Assessment 10. Fluency Instruction
READING: Literature READING: Informational Text	• Key Ideas and Details	VI: Comprehension	14. Literary Text
	• Craft and Structure • Integration of Knowledge and Ideas • Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity	VI: Comprehension	15. Informational Text
LANGUAGE	• Conventions of Standard English	II: Early Literacy	4. Letter Knowledge
		III: Decoding and Word Recognition	6. Phonics 7. Irregular Word Reading 8. Multisyllabic Word Reading
		V: Vocabulary	11. Specific Word Instruction 12. Word-Learning Strategies 13. Word Consciousness
	• Vocabulary Acquisition and Use	VI: Comprehension	14. Literary Text 15. Informational Text

TEACHING READING SOURCEBOOK			COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS							
CHAPTER	SAMPLE LESSON MODEL	PAGE	READING						LANGUAGE	
			RF.1	RF.2	RF.3	RF.4	RL	RI	L.1,2	L.4,5,6
3. Print Awareness	Print Referencing in Shared Storybook Reading	78	x				x	x		
4. Letter Knowledge	Letter Names and Shapes: Uppercase Letters	96	x							
	Handwriting: Uppercase Letter Forms	99							x	
	Letter Names and Shapes: Lowercase Letters	103	x							
	Handwriting: Lowercase Letter Forms	107							x	
	Letter-Sound Strategy	110	x	x	x					
5. Phonological Awareness	The Hungry Thing	128		x						
	Phonological Medley	132		x						
	Salad Toss	137		x						
	Critter Sitter	140		x						
	Bridge Game	143		x						
	Sound Match	146		x						
	Odd One Out	149		x						
	Simon Says	151		x						
	Say-It-and-Move-It	154		x						
	Elkonin Sound Boxes	156		x						
6. Phonics	Integrated Picture Mnemonics	196	x	x	x				x	
	Introducing Consonant Digraphs	200			x					
	Introducing Short Vowels	204			x					
	Reading and Writing CVC Words	208			x				x	
	Reading and Writing CCVC Words	214			x				x	
	Reading and Writing CVCe Words	221			x				x	
	Reading and Writing Words with Vowel Combinations	226			x				x	
	Reading and Writing Words with Phonograms	232			x				x	
	Method for Reading Decodable Text	235			x	x	x	x		
7. Irregular Word Reading	Sound-Out Strategy	252			x				x	
	Spell-Out Strategy	255			x				x	
8. Multisyllabic Word Reading	Introducing Open and Closed Syllables 	272			x					
	Syllable Division Strategy: VC/CV 	276			x				x	
	Syllable Division Strategy: VCV 	283			x					
	Syllable Segmentation Strategy	292			x				x	
	Syllable Search Procedure	298			x				x	
	Introducing Affixes 	304			x					
	Flexible Strategy for Reading Big Words 	308			x				x	
	Root Word Transformation Strategy	314			x				x	
9. Fluency Assessment	Assessment of ORF Rate and Accuracy	340				x				
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	Assessment of Prosodic Reading	355				x				
10. Fluency Instruction	Timed Repeated Oral Reading	374				x				
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 **Lesson Model Videos** corelearn.com/resource-posts/index-lesson-model-videos/

TEACHING READING SOURCEBOOK			COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS							
CHAPTER	SAMPLE LESSON MODEL	PAGE	READING						LANGUAGE	
			RF.1	RF.2	RF.3	RF.4	RL	RI	L.1,2	L.4,5,6
11. Specific Word Instruction	Text Talk: Read-Aloud Method	436					X	X		X
	Meaning Vocabulary: Direct Explanation Method	443					X	X		X
	Method for Independently Read Text	453					X	X		X
	Introducing Function Words	462							X	X
	Concept Picture Sort	467								X
	Semantic Map	470								X
	Semantic Feature Analysis	474								X
	Possible Sentences	478								X
	Word Map	481								X
	Keyword Method	484								X
12. Word-Learning Strategies	Using the Dictionary	506								X
	PAVE Procedure	511				X				X
	Concept of Definition Map	516								X
	Compound Words	521			X					X
	Word Families	524								X
	Word-Part Clues: Prefixes	527			X					X
	Word-Part Clues: Suffixes	533			X					X
	Word-Part Clues: Roots	537			X					X
	Context Clues	541				X	X	X		X
	Introducing Types of Context Clues	545				X	X	X		X
	Applying Types of Context Clues	551				X	X	X		X
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13. Word Consciousness	Animal Idioms	580					X			X
	Latin and Greek Number Words	584			X					X
	Antonym Scales	588								X
	Web Word Web	592								X
	Five-Senses Simile Web	595					X			X
	Poetry as Word Play	598					X			X
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	TSI (Transactional Strategies Instruction)	659					X	X		X
	Book Club: Writing in Response to Literature	677					X			
15. Informational Text	QAR (Question-Answer Relationships) 	702					X	X		
	Strategies for Summarizing	711					X	X		
	CSR (Collaborative Strategic Reading)	720				X		X		X
	QtA (Questioning the Author)	733					X	X		
	CORI (Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction)	739						X		X

 **Lesson Model Videos** corelearn.com/resource-posts/index-lesson-model-videos/

**KEY****Common Core State Standards**

RF.1	Print Concepts	RL	Literature
RF.2	Phonological Awareness	RI	Informational Text
RF.3	Phonics & Word Recognition	L.1,2	Conventions of Standard English
RF.4	Fluency	L.4,5,6	Vocabulary Acquisition and Use

Note: RF stands for Reading: Foundational Skills.

The Big Picture

motivation
scientific approach
reading deficit
differentiated
instruction



The Big Picture

2

Where the press is free
and every man is
able to read, all is safe.

— THOMAS JEFFERSON

NAEP Achievement Levels

basic

partial mastery of knowledge
and skills fundamental for profi-
cient academic performance

proficient

solid academic performance

advanced

superior academic performance

The Reading Deficit

Literacy is an essential skill needed to participate in today's world. Whether we are reading a ballot, a map, a train schedule, a driver's test, a job application, a text message, a label on a medicine container, or a textbook, reading is required to fully function in our society. Unfortunately, an enormous proportion of young citizens cannot read well enough to adequately function or to expand their knowledge about the world. This situation is especially distressing because we now know that the majority of students can learn to read regardless of their backgrounds (Lyon 2002).

The State of Reading Today

The focus on learning to read has never been greater. The latest National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) indicates that fourth- and eighth-grade reading scores are abysmally low. According to the achievement-level results in reading, 63 percent of fourth graders and 64 percent of eighth graders scored at or below the basic level of reading achievement.

NAEP Overall Achievement-Level Results in Reading

GRADE	Below Basic	Basic	Proficient	Advanced
Grade 4	32%	31%	28%	9%
Grade 8	24%	40%	32%	4%

National Center for Education Statistics 2017.

Online Source

Common Core State Standards Initiative

 www.corestandards.org

Educational standards help teachers ensure their students have the skills and knowledge they need to be successful by providing clear goals for student learning.

— COMMON CORE
STATE STANDARDS
INITIATIVE, 2012

CCSS

Sources of Reading Failure

Neurological factors
(brain metabolism)

Familial factors (environment)

Socioeconomic factors (poverty)

Instructional factors (teaching)

Common Core State Standards

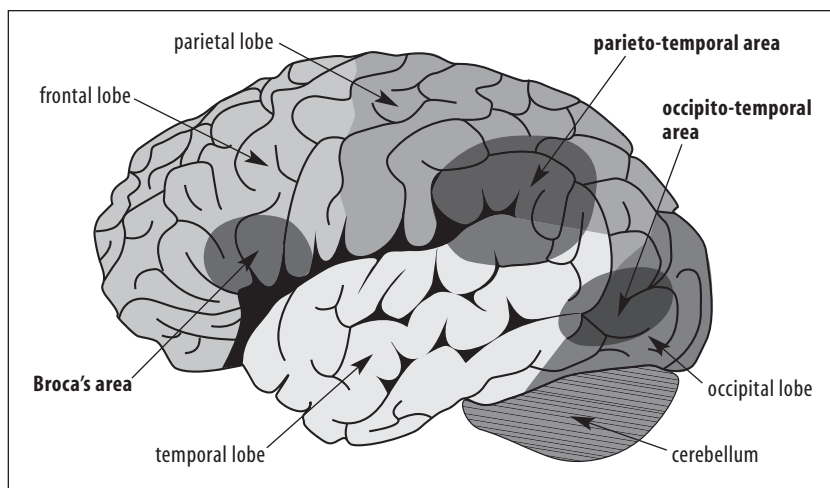
The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) for English Language Arts (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers 2010) are the culmination of an extended, broad-based effort to create the next generation of K–12 standards to help ensure that all students are college and career ready in literacy no later than the end of high school. The Standards aim to be research and evidence based, aligned with college and work expectations, rigorous, and internationally benchmarked. Until now, most states have had their own set of English language arts standards, meaning public education students at the same grade level in different states have been expected to achieve at different levels. It is believed that common standards will provide more clarity about and consistency in what is expected of student learning across the country. They will allow states to share information effectively and will help provide all students with an equal opportunity for an education that will prepare them to go to college or enter the workforce, regardless of where they live.

What's Not Working?

With all this focus on reading and education, one might wonder why scores have not dramatically changed for the better. Research suggests that using ineffective teaching methods along with instructional strategies that are without “enough research evidence” limit student mastery of essential skills and new concepts (Rosenshine 2012; Moats 2007; Sweet 2004). For example, even though extensive research clearly shows that students, regardless of their learning difficulties, reach higher and faster achievement with systematic and explicit instruction, this type of instruction is still not always used (Gill and Kozloff 2004).

LEFT HEMISPHERE
OF THE BRAIN

4



DYSLEXIA

a specific learning disability that is neurobiological in origin; characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities

Online Source

**IDA: International
Dyslexia Association**

About Dyslexia

 www.dyslexiaida.org

The Brain and Reading

Brain research is an area of scientific investigation looking for the best ways to teach students how to read. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) technology has allowed scientists to track brain activity. Researchers have discovered that the brain activation patterns of students with dyslexia and other poor readers are different from those of good readers.

Brain Geography

The brain is made up of two mirror-image sides, or hemispheres. Each hemisphere of the brain is divided into four lobes, or sections: frontal, parietal, temporal, and occipital. The left hemisphere of the brain is associated with speech, language processing, and reading. Within the left hemisphere, the frontal lobe controls speech, reasoning, planning, regulating emotions, and consciousness; the parietal lobe controls sensory perceptions as well as links spoken and written language to memory; the temporal lobe is involved in verbal memory; and the occipital lobe is important in the identification of letters (Hudson, High, and Al Otaiba 2007; Shaywitz 2005).

Within and between these lobes, there are areas that are especially important for skilled reading: Broca's area, the parieto-temporal area, and the occipito-temporal area (Shaywitz 2005). Broca's area is important for the organization, production, and



At all ages, good readers show a consistent pattern: strong activation in the back of the brain with lesser activation in front.

—SHAYWITZ, 2005

Sources

Overcoming Dyslexia

Overcoming Dyslexia (2005) by Sally Shaywitz, M.D. New York: Vintage.

Proust and the Squid

Proust and the Squid: The Story and Science of the Reading Brain (2007) by Marianne Wolf. New York: Harper Perennial.

manipulation of language and speech (Joseph, Nobel, and Eden 2001). The parieto-temporal area analyzes words by pulling them apart and linking the letters to their sounds—conscious, effortful decoding (Shaywitz 2005). The occipito-temporal area identifies words rapidly and automatically on sight, instead of analyzing them sound by sound.

How the Brain Reads

In her research, Shaywitz (2005) found that the parieto-temporal and occipito-temporal areas in the back of the brain are especially important to skilled reading but have different roles. The parieto-temporal system's slow, analytic, step-by-step decoding function seems to be relied upon more by beginning readers. In contrast, the occipito-temporal area is the “express pathway to reading.”

According to Shaywitz (2005), during brain imaging skilled readers show the highest level of activation of the occipito-temporal area. It is the hub where, for example, all the relevant incoming information about a word—how it looks, how it sounds, and what it means—is tightly bound together and stored. After a reader has analyzed and correctly read a word several times, then he or she forms a neural model of that specific word that is then stored permanently in the occipito-temporal area. After that, just seeing the word in print immediately activates the neural model and all the relevant information about that word. This all happens automatically, without the reader's conscious thought or effort.

As they read, good readers activate the back of the brain and also, to some extent, the Broca's area in the front of the brain, an area that helps in slowly analyzing a word. On the other hand, poor readers underutilize the areas in the back of the brain. Evidence-based reading instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics can change brain activity in struggling readers and assist in the activation and use of the areas in the back of the brain (Shaywitz et al. 2004; Aylward et al. 2003).



Research—when it is based on sound scientific observation—provides reliable information about what works and why and how it works.

—REYNA, 2004

6

Has the research been published in a peer-reviewed journal?

Have the research results been replicated by other scientists?

Is there a consensus that the research findings are supported by other studies?

Scientific Approach to Reading Instruction

The term *scientifically based reading instruction* was first defined in the Reading Excellence Act of 1998 as “the application of rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge relevant to reading development, reading instruction, and reading difficulties.” According to Stanovich and Stanovich (2003), reflective teachers use scientific thinking every day—they “inquire into their own practice and . . . examine their own classrooms to find out what works best for them and their students.”

How to Recognize Effective Research

Educators can use three simple questions to distinguish between research that confirms the effectiveness of an instructional practice and research that does not: (1) Has the research been published in a peer-reviewed journal? (2) Have the research results been replicated by other scientists? (3) Is there a consensus that the research findings are supported by other studies?

INDEPENDENT PEER REVIEW Articles published in peer-reviewed journals have gone through a process of review. This process of quality control exposes ideas and experimentation to examination and criticism by other scientists in the same field.

REPLICATION OF RESULTS BY OTHER SCIENTISTS To be considered scientifically based, a research finding must be presented in a way that enables other researchers to reach the same results when they repeat the experiment. True scientific knowledge is public and open to challenge.

CONSENSUS WITHIN THE RESEARCH COMMUNITY Scientists do not simply evaluate data from a single study; they evaluate data from many studies. Research findings are most often accepted after the scientific community agrees that sufficient evidence has converged to support one finding over another.

Foundational skills...are necessary and important components of an effective comprehensive reading program designed to develop proficient readers with the capacity to comprehend texts....

—COMMON CORE
STATE STANDARDS, 2010

CCSS

CCSS

READING STANDARDS

Foundational Skills

Print Concepts

Demonstrate understanding of the organization and basic features of print. (RF.K-1.1)

Phonological Awareness

Demonstrate understanding of spoken words, syllables, and phonemes. (RF.K-1.2)



SEE ALSO . . .

SECTION II: EARLY LITERACY

Chapter 3: Print Awareness

Chapter 4: Letter Knowledge

Chapter 5: Phonological Awareness

Essential Components of Reading Instruction

Charged with conducting a rigorous and comprehensive review of reading research, the National Reading Panel (2000) produced a report for Congress focused on five essential components of reading instruction: phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. In addition to these components, the Sourcebook covers instruction in print awareness, letter knowledge, irregular words, and multisyllabic words.

7

Print Awareness

Print awareness is knowing about the forms and the functions of print; it is a child's earliest introduction to literacy (Gunn, Simmons, and Kame'enui 1998). Awareness of the forms of print includes knowledge about the conventions of print—conventions that govern the physical structure of written language and text organization. Students with print awareness know how to handle a book, where on a page to begin reading, and the difference between a letter and a word. Awareness of the functions of print includes knowing that print is a communication device.

Letter Knowledge

Letters are the components of written words. They represent sounds systematically in the spelling of words. Learning letters requires becoming familiar with 26 uppercase and 26 lowercase letter shapes and associating these letter shapes to their letter names. Handwriting practice helps young students to learn and recall letter shapes (Ehri and Roberts 2006; Berninger 1999).

Phonological Awareness

Phonological awareness is an umbrella term that includes the awareness of the larger parts of spoken language, such as words, syllables, and onsets and rimes—as well as the smaller parts, phonemes. A phoneme is the smallest unit of spoken language that makes a difference in a word's meaning. For example, the phonemes /s/ and /f/ are different; the meaning of the word *sat* is different from the meaning of the word *fat*.

CCSS **READING STANDARDS***Foundational Skills***Phonics and Word Recognition**

Know and apply grade-level phonics and word analysis skills in decoding words. (RF.K-5.3)

**SEE ALSO . . .**

SECTION III: DECODING AND

WORD RECOGNITION

Chapter 6: Phonics

Chapter 7: Irregular Word Reading

Chapter 8: Multisyllabic Word Reading

According to the National Reading Panel (2000), phonemic awareness instruction is most effective when students are taught to use letters as they manipulate phonemes.

Phonics

Phonics is a method of instruction that teaches students the systematic relationship between the letters and letter combinations (graphemes) in written language and the individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken language and how to use these relationships to read and spell words. Phonics instruction—which is intended for beginning readers in the primary grades and for older students who are struggling to read—can help students learn how to convert the printed word into its spoken form (National Reading Panel 2000). This process, called decoding, involves looking at a word and connecting the letters and sounds and then blending those sounds together. Phonics instruction also helps students to understand the alphabetic principle—written letters represent spoken sounds. In other words, letters and sounds work together in systematic ways to allow spoken language to be written down and written language to be read.

Irregular Word Reading

Not all words are regular or can be read by sounding them out. An irregular word contains one or more sound/spelling correspondences that a student does not know and therefore cannot use to decode the word. Within a reading program, there are basically two types of irregular words: words that are permanently irregular and words that are temporarily irregular (Carnine et al. 2006). Some of the most common words in English are irregular. These high-frequency words appear often in printed text and therefore are crucial for comprehension.

CCSS READING STANDARDS*Foundational Skills***Fluency**

Read with sufficient accuracy and fluency to support comprehension. (RF.1–5.4)



SEE ALSO . . .

SECTION IV: READING FLUENCY

Chapter 9: Fluency Assessment

Chapter 10: Fluency Instruction

CCSS LANGUAGE STANDARDS**Vocabulary Acquisition and Use**

Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases. (CCR.4)

Demonstrate understanding of figurative language, word relationships, and nuances in word meanings. (CCR.5)

Acquire and use accurately a range of general academic and domain-specific words and phrases. (CCR.6)



SEE ALSO . . .

SECTION V: VOCABULARY

Chapter 11: Specific Word Instruction

Chapter 12: Word-Learning Strategies

Chapter 13: Word Consciousness

Multisyllabic Word Reading

While phonics instruction gives students the basic tools to decode most single-syllable words, explicit instruction in recognizing syllables and morphemes gives students additional strategies for reading longer multisyllabic words. To read words in text fluently and accurately, the brain's orthographic processor must learn to “see” common letter patterns and recurring word parts (Moats 2005). In multisyllabic words, these multi-letter patterns, or “chunks,” may be syllables, affixes, or phonograms (Ehri 2002).

Fluency

According to Hudson, Lane, and Pullen (2005), reading fluency is made up of at least three key elements: “*accurate* reading of connected text at a conversational *rate* with appropriate *prosody* or expression.” Each of these elements—accuracy, rate, and prosody—has a clear connection to reading comprehension. Differences in reading fluency distinguish good readers from poor; a lack of reading fluency is a good predictor of reading comprehension problems (Stanovich 1991). Teachers can think of reading fluency as a bridge between the two major components of reading—decoding and comprehension.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings. It occupies an important position both in learning to read and in comprehending text (National Reading Panel 2000). According to Michael Graves (2000), there are four components of an effective vocabulary program: (1) wide or extensive independent reading to expand word knowledge, (2) instruction in specific words to enhance comprehension of texts containing those words, (3) instruction in independent word-learning strategies, and (4) word consciousness and word-play activities to motivate and enhance learning. Not surprisingly, vocabulary development is especially important for English-language learners (ELLs).

CCSS READING STANDARDS*Literature • Informational Text***Key Ideas and Details****Craft and Structure****Integration of Knowledge and Ideas****Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity**

10

TEXT COMPLEXITY

the inherent difficulty of reading and comprehending a text combined with reader and task variables

**SEE ALSO . . .**

SECTION VI: COMPREHENSION

Chapter 14: Literary Text

Chapter 15: Informational Text

**SEE ALSO . . .**

MTSS for Reading Success, p. 743

Comprehension

Reading comprehension is the process of extracting and constructing meaning from written texts. It has three key elements—the text, the reader, and the activity and related tasks (RAND Reading Study Group 2002; Snow 2003). Good comprehension instruction requires teachers to consider all of these factors. More important, it involves showing students how these factors affect their understanding when reading. Recent innovations in comprehension instruction have been built on a foundation of what good readers do. Research has shown that the effective reading processes, or strategies, of good readers can be explicitly taught and that doing so improves comprehension (National Reading Panel 2000).

Reading Assessment

Scientifically based research studies have repeatedly demonstrated the value of regularly assessing students' reading progress (e.g., Fuchs and Fuchs 1999; Shinn 1998). Reliable and valid assessments help monitor the effectiveness of instruction. An assessment is reliable if it provides a dependable, consistent measurement of a particular trait or ability; it is valid if it actually measures that trait or ability (Torgesen 2006).

Types of Assessment

There are basically four types of assessments—screening, progress monitoring, diagnostic, and outcome. Screening assessments identify those students who are at risk for reading difficulty. If screening results indicate a potential difficulty, the student is usually provided with additional support and increased progress monitoring. In cases where screening results indicate a severe reading problem, immediate diagnostic evaluation may be warranted. Diagnostic assessment is usually reserved for students who, according to progress monitoring, fail to respond to additional support (Hosp, Hosp, and Howell 2007).

Reading Assessments		
TYPE	PURPOSE	ADMINISTRATION
► Screening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To identify students who are at risk for reading difficulty and may benefit from additional support • To determine the most appropriate starting point for instruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To elementary students, three times a year (e.g., fall, winter, spring) • To secondary students, at the end of the previous school year
► Progress Monitoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To determine whether students are making adequate progress • To determine whether instruction needs to be adjusted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To students reading at the expected level, three times a year • To students reading below the expected level, monthly or bimonthly • To students reading significantly below the expected level, weekly or biweekly
Curriculum Embedded	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To measure the extent to which students have learned the material taught in a specific reading program 	
General or External	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To measure critical reading skills (phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, or comprehension) in general • To predict success in meeting grade-level standards by the end of the year 	
► Diagnostic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To pinpoint a student's specific area of weakness • To provide in-depth information about students' skills and instructional needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only after other forms of assessment reveal that an individual student is reading below the expected level or not making sufficient progress
► Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To provide a bottom-line evaluation of the overall effectiveness of a reading program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To all students, at the end of the school year or semester





SEE ALSO . . .

MTSS for Reading Success, p. 743

Comprehensive Assessment Plan

Assessment not only directs students' reading development, but also supports educators by helping them to make instructional decisions and monitor program implementation (Diamond 2005). According to Torgesen (2006), a comprehensive assessment plan is "a critical element of an effective school-level plan for preventing reading difficulties." The plan has four main objectives which correspond roughly to the types of assessment: (1) to *identify* students at the beginning of the school year who are at risk for reading difficulties and who may need extra support or intervention, (2) to *monitor* students' progress during the school year to determine whether the at-risk students are making adequate progress and to identify any other students who may be falling behind, (3) to *collect* student assessment data that inform instruction, and (4) to *assess* whether instruction is sufficient enough to ensure that all students achieve grade-level expectations.



SEE ALSO . . .

Chapter 9: Fluency Assessment

Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM)

Curriculum-based measurement (CBM) is an assessment tool that usually includes a set of standard directions, a timing device, a set of passages, scoring rules, standards for judging performance, and record forms or charts (Hosp et al. 2007). With CBM students are tested on the curriculum they are being taught. Because CBM emphasizes repeated measurement over time, it is often used for progress monitoring. Reading CBM consists of oral reading fluency (ORF) and maze passage reading. In ORF CBM, students read aloud from a passage for one minute. In Maze CBM, students read a passage silently for one minute. In the passage, every seventh word has been replaced with a word choice. As they read, students choose the one out of three words that makes sense within the sentence context.

Stumbling Blocks to Becoming a Proficient Reader

Difficulty learning to read words accurately and fluently

Insufficient vocabulary, general knowledge, and reasoning skills to support comprehension of written language

Absence or loss of initial motivation to read, or failure to develop a mature appreciation of the rewards of reading

Snow, Burns, and Griffin 1998.

MATTHEW EFFECTS

A term used to describe a negative spiral in which good readers get increasingly “richer” in reading ability, while nonproficient readers get increasingly “poorer.”

Downward Spiral of Reading Failure

Early assessment is one of the best ways to prevent the downward spiral of reading failure; it serves to identify students who need extra help in reading before they experience serious failure—or “catch them before they fall” (Torgesen 1998). The sooner an intervention occurs, the more likely students will regain ground (Torgesen 1998, 2004). Studies show that students who are poor readers at the end of first grade almost never acquire average-level reading skills by the end of elementary school (Francis et al. 1996; Shaywitz et al. 1999; Torgesen and Burgess 1998). This delayed development of reading skills affects students’ exposure to text. Having less exposure to text prevents readers from fully developing language, vocabulary, and background knowledge, therefore adding to the downward spiral in which students have a difficult time ever catching up (Stanovich 1986, 1993). Stanovich calls this phenomenon the “Matthew effects,” in which students who learn to read early continue improving and thus get “richer.” But students who do not learn to read early continue to struggle, faced with harder and harder text, and so become “poorer” and increasingly distanced from the students “rich” in reading ability. The term refers to a Bible verse in the Book of Matthew.

The Fourth-Grade Slump

According to Jeanne Chall’s stages of reading development (1983, 1996), reading is a process that changes as the reader becomes more able and proficient. Generally, Stages 1 and 2 (Grades 1–3) are characterized as a period when students are “learning to read,” and Stages 3–5 (Grades 4 and above) are characterized as a period of “reading to learn.” In the learning-to-read stage, students typically read simple texts containing familiar words within their oral vocabularies and knowledge base. In the reading-to-learn stage, students read increasingly more demanding academic texts containing challenging words and complex concepts beyond their oral vocabularies and knowledge base. In the critical transition period, from Stage 2 to Stage 3, from “learning to read” to “reading to learn,” teachers have often



14

One of the most compelling findings from recent reading research is that children who get off to a poor start in reading rarely catch up.

— TORGESSEN, 1998



SEE ALSO . . .

Fundamentals of Comprehension, p. 609

Motivation and Engagement with

Reading, p. 695



SEE ALSO . . .

Section V: Vocabulary

noticed an apparently sudden drop-off in reading scores, particularly for socioeconomically disadvantaged students (Chall and Jacobs 2003). This phenomenon has been referred to as the “fourth-grade slump.” To combat the fourth-grade slump, Chall and Jacobs (2003) recommend focusing on vocabulary development to expand students’ word knowledge along with reading fluency and automaticity.

Motivation and Interest in Reading

There is often a decline in motivation and interest in reading in students who at first had difficulty in learning to read (Eccles et al. 1993; McKenna, Kear, and Ellsworth 1995). According to Torgesen et al. (2007), this lack of motivation has “two unfortunate consequences, both of which have a direct impact on the growth of reading proficiency in adolescents.” The first consequence is that students with low motivation and interest in reading do not read as much. The second is that students who are less motivated to read are usually less interested in fully understanding what they are reading (Guthrie et al. 2004).

Anderson (1996) suggests that “reading books may be a cause, not merely a *reflection*, of students’ level of reading proficiency.” In a study of fifth graders, Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988) found a positive relationship between the amount of students’ out-of-school, independent reading and measures of reading comprehension, vocabulary, and reading speed. The table on the facing page shows staggering differences in fifth graders’ reading habits; students in the 90th percentile spent more than 200 times as many minutes reading than students in the 10th percentile.

Academic Language

Dutro and Moran (2003) define academic language as “the language of texts, of academic discussion, and of formal writing.” It is the advanced form of language needed to communicate successfully in formal, often academic, situations. Many skills

Variation in Amount of Independent Reading

Percentile Rank ^a	Minutes of Reading per Day		Words Read per Year	
	B O O K S	T E X T ^b	B O O K S	T E X T ^b
98	65.0	67.3	4,358,000	4,733,000
90	21.2	33.4	1,823,000	2,357,000
80	14.2	24.6	1,146,000	1,697,000
70	9.6	16.9	622,000	1,168,000
60	6.5	13.1	432,000	722,000
50	4.6	9.2	282,000	601,000
40	3.2	6.2	200,000	421,000
30	1.8	4.3	106,000	251,000
20	.7	2.4	21,000	134,000
10	.1	1.0	8,000	51,000
2	0	0	0	8,000

^a Percentile rank on each measure separately. ^b Books, magazines, and newspapers.
Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding 1988.



To be successful academically, students need to develop the specialized language of academic discourse that is distinct from conversational language.

— FRANCIS ET AL., 2006

are wrapped up in the concept of academic language. Components of academic language include vocabulary knowledge, syntax (sentence architecture), and rules of grammar. Academic vocabulary consists of both specialized, content-specific words such as *phoneme* or *morpheme* and highly utilized terms such as *cognitive* or *diagnostic*.

In terms of exposing students to new academic vocabulary, speech is far more limited than written language. According to an analysis by Hayes and Ahrens (1988), students are more likely to encounter a word outside their academic vocabularies from a printed text than from a television show or a conversation with a college-educated adult. In fact, the text of a children's book contains more rare words than does any kind of oral language. The table on the following page shows selected statistics from Hayes and Ahrens' analysis.

Selected Statistics for Major Sources of Spoken and Written Language (Sample Means)		
	RANK OF MEDIAN WORD	RARE WORDS PER 1,000
1. Printed texts		
Abstracts of scientific articles	4,389	128.0
Newspapers	1,690	68.3
Popular magazines	1,399	65.7
Adult books	1,058	52.7
Comic books	867	53.5
Children's books	627	30.9
Preschool books	578	16.3
2. Television texts		
Popular prime-time adult shows	490	22.7
Popular prime-time children's shows	543	20.2
Cartoon shows	598	30.8
<i>Mr. Rogers and Sesame Street</i>	413	2.0
3. Adult speech		
Expert witness testimony	1,008	28.4
College graduates to friends, spouses	496	17.3

Hayes and Ahrens 1988.



SEE ALSO . . .

MTSS for Reading Success, p. 743

Source

The Power of RTI and Reading Profiles

The Power of RTI and Reading Profiles: A Blueprint for Solving Reading Problems (2015)
by Louise Spear-Swerling.
Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.

Differentiated Instruction

Students come to school with a wide variety of skills, abilities, and interests as well as varying proficiency in English and other languages. Some students struggle, while others are right on level or even above it. Diverse learners demand instruction that supports their special needs. This differentiated instruction meets the needs of students with reading difficulties, students with disabilities, advanced learners, and English-language learners.

Common Profiles of Reading Difficulties

Struggling readers are not all exactly alike. According to Louise Spear-Swerling (2015), research on different types of reading difficulties suggests that three broad profiles of reading problems are common to students learning to read English: specific word-recognition difficulties (SWRD), specific reading comprehension difficulties (SRCD), and mixed reading difficulties (MRD).

Common Profiles of Reading Difficulties		
Common Profile	Common Patterns	Specific Patterns
Specific Word-Recognition Difficulties (SWRD) <i>Average or better listening comprehension and oral vocabulary</i>	Nonalphabetic word readers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited phonological awareness • Limited knowledge of letter sounds • No ability to decode unknown words
	Inaccurate word readers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some phonological awareness • Some knowledge of letter sounds • Lack fully accurate decoding skills
	Nonautomatic word readers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack automatic word recognition • Poor multisyllabic word reading
Specific Reading Comprehension Difficulties (SRCD) <i>No history of word-recognition or phonological difficulties</i>	Nonstrategic comprehenders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack comprehension strategies
	Suboptimal comprehenders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack higher-order comprehension skills (e.g., evaluating) • Have comprehension strategies
Mixed Reading Difficulties (MRD)	SWRD SRCD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nonalphabetic, inaccurate, or nonautomatic word reading • Areas of comprehension weakness

Based on Spear-Swerling 2015.

In general, a SWRD profile is relatively more common in K–3 beginning readers, and a SRCD profile is more common in older struggling readers. For example, according to Leach and colleagues (2003), approximately 49% of reading problems in Grades K–3 involved the SWRD profile, 6% involved the SRCD profile, and 46% involved the MRD profile. After Grade 3, the proportions of the profiles were similar with each constituting roughly one-third of the struggling readers.



English-Language Learners (ELLs)

The U.S. Department of Education defines ELLs as “national-origin-minority students who are limited-English proficient.” The population of ELLs in public schools continues to grow.

English-Language Learners in Public Schools	
Language	Percentage
Spanish	77.1%
Arabic	2.3%
Chinese	2.2%
Vietnamese	1.8%
Hmong	.8%

National Center for Educational Statistics 2016.



SEE ALSO . . .

ELL Index, p. 826



Acquiring reading skills in a second language is similar to the process of acquiring reading skills in a first language.

—FRANCIS ET AL., 2006

In school year 2014–15, 4.6 million students in the United States were ELLs, or 9.4 percent (National Center for Education Statistics 2016).

Educating English-language learners has become both a challenge and a necessity across the country. The National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth (August and Shanahan 2006) published the following findings:

- As is for native English speakers, the essential components of effective reading instruction—phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension—have a positive influence on the literacy development of ELLs.
- Instruction in the essential components of reading is necessary—but not sufficient—for teaching ELLs to read and write proficiently in English. ELL students need more work in oral language development, vocabulary, and text comprehension than native English speakers.
- ELLs enter classrooms with varying degrees of oral proficiency and literacy in their first language. Tapping into first-language literacy can confer advantages to ELLs and can be used to facilitate literacy development in English.

Francis et al. (2006) make the following recommendations for planning effective reading instruction and interventions for ELLs: (1) build decoding skills through early, explicit, and intensive instruction in phonological awareness and phonics, (2) offer additional opportunities for the development of in-depth vocabulary knowledge, (3) provide the strategies and knowledge necessary to comprehend challenging literary and informational texts, (4) focus instruction in reading fluency on vocabulary and increased exposure to print, (5) supply significant opportunities for students to engage in structured, academic talk, and (6) ensure that independent reading is structured and purposeful, with good reader–text match.

MTSS for Reading Success

MTSS FOR READING SUCCESS

behavioral
intervention
multi-tiered
evidence based
academic
intervention

MTSS for Reading Success

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MTSS Lingo

MTSS Multi-Tiered Systems of Support

RtI Response to Intervention

PBIS Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

SEL Social and Emotional Learning

UDL Universal Design for Learning

Source

Integrated Multi-Tiered Systems of Support

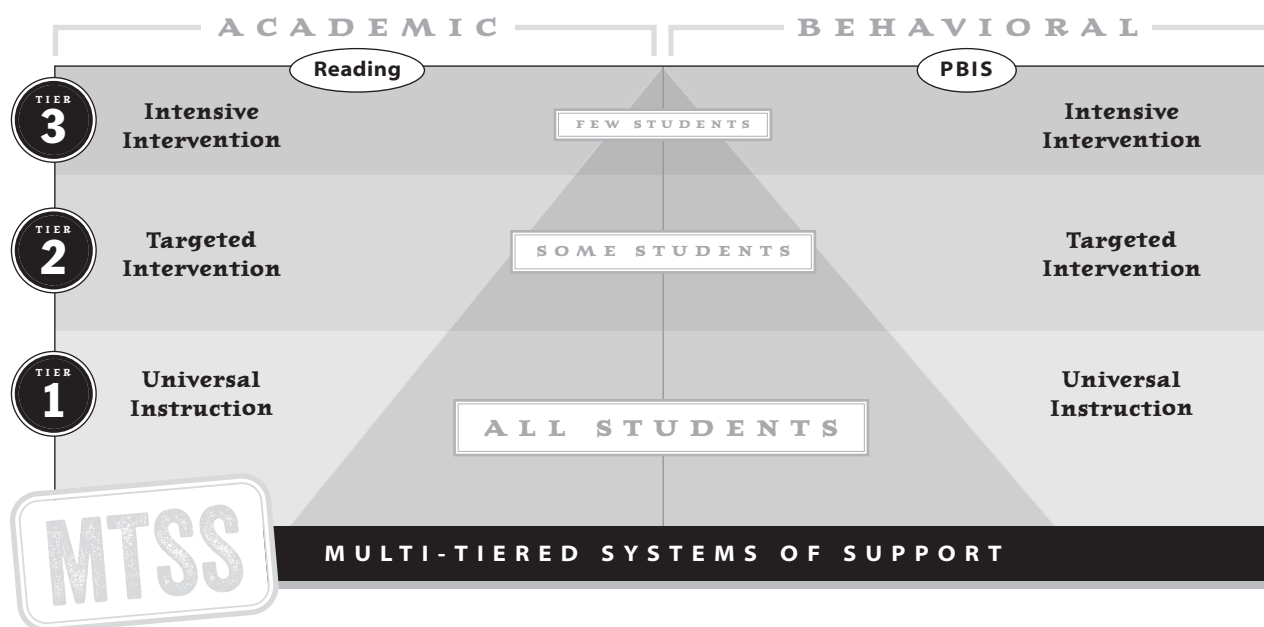
Integrated Multi-Tiered Systems of Support: Blending RTI and PBIS (2016) by Kent McIntosh & Steve Goodman. New York: Guilford.

Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS) is a coordinated system of academic and behavioral supports designed to ensure that all students get off to a healthy start and achieve school success. While Response to Intervention (RtI), a first-generation service delivery model, focused initially on improving academic achievement in areas such as reading or math, MTSS addresses the interconnectedness of both academic achievement and student behavior. For adopting and organizing interventions, MTSS incorporates a tiered approach to academics as well as a tiered approach to schoolwide behavior called Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS).

Students with low academic skills are more likely to exhibit unwanted behavior in school. The connection is strongest between literacy (e.g., reading) and externalizing problem behavior such as disruption or “acting out” (Lin et al. 2013). Throughout schooling, this reciprocal connection intensifies. For example, a student who originally faced only one challenge such as a reading difficulty or a problem behavior in elementary school is at much greater risk of facing both reading and behavioral challenges in middle or high school (Fleming et al. 2004; McIntosh et al. 2008).

MTSS has four basic components:

- Multi-Tiered Levels of Prevention and Support
- Evidence-Based Programs with High-Quality Instruction
- Ongoing Assessment
- Data-Based Decision Making and Problem Solving



Online Sources

PBIS: Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports

Tier 1 Supports
Tier 2 Supports
Tier 3 Supports

Q www.pbis.org

RtI Action Network

Tiered Instruction/Intervention

Q www.rtinetwork.org

Multi-Tiered Levels of Prevention and Support

A multi-tiered system can be applied as a unifying framework to nearly any approach in education (McIntosh and Goodman 2016). The system incorporates three hierarchical levels, or tiers, that represent levels of prevention or support. They are Tier 1: Universal Instruction; Tier 2: Targeted Intervention; and Tier 3: Intensive Intervention. The tiers describe intensity of instruction—not specific programs, students, or staff. Each tier is layered on the previous tier's level of support; that is, students receive additional support, not support that replaces or supplants what preceded it. Based on assessment data, a student can transition up or down within the tiers.

Tier 1 is the differentiated, evidence-based core instruction that all students receive. Core instruction should meet the needs of most students, but *some* students will require Tier 2 targeted, small-group interventions in addition to Tier 1 instruction. In Tier 2, there may be a *few* students who do not respond to the targeted interventions; they may require more individualized interventions provided in Tier 3. For students who do not respond to Tier 3 intensive interventions, referral to special education may be warranted.