Eighth Edition

TEACHING CHILDREN to READ

The Teacher Makes the Difference

D. RAY REUTZEL | ROBERT B. COOTER, JR.

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For my wife, Pamela, my children and their spouses, and my grandchildren, who are my life's inspiration. To the many teachers and administrators who have also inspired in me a passion for improving the education of teachers and children and a desire for literacy to light the eyes and hearts of every human soul.

—DRR

For the dedicated teachers and literacy coaches around the world who give children the great gift of literacy, for it is truly the gateway to a promising life and social justice.

—RBC

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About the Authors

D. Ray Reutzel is Dean of the College of Education at the University of Wyoming in Laramie. He was the Emma Eccles Jones Distinguished Professor and Endowed Chair of Early Literacy at Utah State University for 14 years. He has taught kindergarten, first grade, third grade, and sixth grade. Dr. Reutzel is the author of more than 225 refereed research reports, articles, books, book chapters, and monographs published in *The Elementary School Journal, Early Childhood Research Quarterly, Reading Research Quarterly, Journal of Literacy Research, Journal of Educational Research, Reading Psychology, Literacy Research and Instruction, Language Arts, Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy,* and *The Reading Teacher,* among others. He has received more than $16 million in research and professional development funding from private, state, and federal agencies, including the Institute of Education Sciences and the U.S. Department of Education.

Dr. Reutzel is the past editor or coeditor of *The Reading Teacher, Literacy Research and Instruction,* and the current Executive Editor of *The Journal of Educational Research.* He is author or co-author of several chapters published in the *Handbook of Classroom Management,* the *Handbook of Research on Literacy and Diversity,* and the *Handbook of Reading Research* (Vol. IV), and is editor of the *Handbook of Research-Based Practice in Early Education,* published by Guilford Press. His most recent book, *Young Meaning Makers: Teaching Reading Comprehension, K–2,* published by Teachers College Press, explains how to use Construction-Integration Theory to inform the teaching of reading comprehension with young learners. Dr. Reutzel received the 1999 A. B. Herr Award from the College Reading Association for outstanding research and published contributions to reading education. He was the recipient of the John C. Manning Public School Service Award from the International Reading Association in May 2007 for his many years of working in schools with teachers and children. He also served as past president of the College Reading Association/Association for Literacy Educators and Researchers, and as a member of the board of directors of the International Reading Association from 2007 to 2010. Dr. Reutzel was inducted as a member of the Reading Hall of Fame in 2011. From 2012 to 2015, he served on the Board of Directors of the Literacy Research Association. Dr. Reutzel was elected to serve as President of the *Reading Hall of Fame* for 2017–2018.

Robert B. Cooter, Jr., currently serves as Ursuline Endowed Professor and Dean of the Annsley Frazier Thornton School of Education at Bellarmine University in Louisville, Kentucky. From 2006 to 2011, he served as editor of *The Reading Teacher,* the largest circulation literacy education journal worldwide. His research is focused on the improvement of literacy acquisition for children living in poverty. In 2008, Professor Cooter received the A. B. Herr Award from the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers for contributions to the field of literacy.

Earlier in his career, Professor Cooter served as an elementary classroom teacher and Title I reading specialist. In public school administration, he was appointed as the first "Reading Czar" (associate superintendent) for the Dallas Independent School District. He was also named Texas State Champion for Reading by the governor for development of the acclaimed Dallas Reading Plan for some 3,000 elementary school teachers. Professor Cooter later designed and served as principal investigator of the Memphis Striving Readers Program, a $16 million middle-school literacy research project funded by the U.S. Department of Education. In 2007, he and colleagues J. Helen Perkins and Kathleen Spencer Cooter were recipients of the Urban Impact Award from the Council of Great City Schools for their work in high-poverty schools.

Professor Cooter has authored or co-authored over 20 books in reading education and more than 60 journal articles. His books include the best-selling *Strategies for Reading Assessment and Instruction* (co-authored with D. Ray Reutzel) used at over 200 universities; *The Flynt-Cooter Comprehensive Reading Inventory–2,* a norm-referenced classroom reading assessment with English and Spanish versions; and *Perspectives on Rescuing Urban Literacy Education: Spies, Saboteurs, and Saints.* Professor Cooter is currently working on a new book with his wife and colleague, Professor Kathleen Cooter, titled *Urban Literacy Education: Helping City Kids in Regular and Special Education Classrooms.*

Professor Cooter lives in Prospect, Kentucky, and enjoys family time with his bride, grandchildren, and pups on their houseboat, *Our Last Child*. He sometimes appears in reunion concerts with The George Washington Bridge Band, a Nashville-based rock group he cofounded and toured with during the 1960s and 70s.

Preface

Why is high-quality teacher education so critical for literacy teachers? The preponderance of research tells us it is the teacher, not the instructional program or technology, who makes the difference in effective reading instruction. As a knowledgeable, skilled, and successful literacy teacher, you will need to reflect regularly and carefully on your teaching decisions in order to understand and meet the literacy needs of every student in your classes, especially today, when the responsibility for quality education has been returned to the states—many of which have adopted the Common Core State Standards or some version of standards closely aligned with the Common Core. It is a tall order, but this book will become your personal guide to help you succeed in meeting the literacy needs for each child.

Teaching Children to Read: The Teacher Makes the Difference, Eighth Edition, emphasizes the essential nature of the teacher's role in effective literacy instruction. At the core of this new edition, we continue to assert the primacy of the role of teacher effectiveness as the key to powerful literacy instruction. To that end, we have thoroughly updated our popular *seven pillars of effective reading instruction* to provide a logical and consistent structure for closely examining the essential elements of effective reading instruction that well-prepared literacy teachers know, understand, and are able to implement in classrooms. By organizing every chapter around learning outcomes and these seven pillars, and aligning chapter content to the International Literacy Association and the Common Core State Standards within each of these seven pillars, the concept of the teacher as lynchpin in literacy instruction is reinforced and cemented. The seven pillars will help ground your thinking about future teaching and enable you to successfully perform your vital role of helping all children become college- and career-ready readers and writers.

New to This Edition

- **Coverage of Dialogic Reading in Chapter 2, "Developing Children's Oral Language to Support Literacy Instruction,"** gives teachers updated and expanded information about how to use this approach to develop children's oral language—especially as this relates to supporting later reading comprehension ability.
- **An updated Chapter 3, "Early Reading Instruction,"** gives teachers new and expanded information about the importance of learning letter names. The chapter offers exceptionally useful instruction on helping younger students learn concepts about print, phonemic awareness, and letter names and put this knowledge to work in early reading.
- **An updated Chapter 4, "Phonics and Word Recognition,"** gives teachers expanded information about phonics foundations in the Common Core State Standards, and a free and valid phonics assessment—The CORE Phonics Survey. This survey provides expanded teaching suggestions for struggling readers, new technology links to phonics and word recognition apps and Internet games, and the *Words-to-Go* family phonics program.
- **Chapter 5, "Reading Fluency,"** gives teachers an update on research related to how fluency supports the acquisition of reading comprehension. It also provides many new fluency practice apps and access to Internet games, readers' theatre scripts, and information about the Family Fluency Program.
- **Chapter 6, "Increasing Reading Vocabulary,"** focuses on the latest information to assist teachers in helping typically developing and struggling readers acquire robust listening, speaking, reading, and writing vocabularies to meet and exceed expectations associated with achieving grade level Common Core State Standards. Also included in this new edition are multifaceted word-learning strategies to help students learn independently. A myriad of new technologies for teaching vocabulary are likewise included for English learners (ELs) and native English speakers.
- **A newly revised Chapter 7, "Teaching Reading Comprehension,"** includes effective new strategies giving teachers the tools to boost students' reading comprehension through effective instruction of literature and informational text to grow learners' knowledge and a strong theoretical framework rooted in Kintsch's (2013) Construction-Integration (CI) Theory of Text Comprehension. This chapter also includes new coverage of brain research and its impact on reading comprehension. Our new "roadmap" unifies the Common Core State Standards, and evidence-based research helps teachers clearly understand the nonnegotiable comprehension skills to be learned at each grade level. Innovative comprehension assessment strategies also address metacognitive skills that improve students' comprehension self-monitoring and motivation.
- You will also discover a great deal of attention on ways for increasing students' comprehension of informational and complex texts. In our Response to Intervention (RTI) section, we zoom in on the needs of children with mild learning disabilities and, a first in literacy methods textbooks, meeting the needs of children with Asperger's syndrome. New technologies focus in part on the use of iPads in the classroom. We conclude the chapter with new ways to involve families through summer reading programs.
- **Chapter 8, "Writing,"** brings fresh ideas for integrating the reciprocal processes of reading and writing. Discover the latest writing skills to be learned from the National Assessment of Educational Progress of Writing, as well as the Common Core State Standards. A plethora of innovative teaching strategies such as *self-regulated strategies development (SRSD)* are provided to add to teachers' teaching toolkits. Ways to introduce the writing process as part of a comprehensive writing program are the hallmark of this chapter, as well as writing-on-demand strategies that prepare students for high-stakes testing situations.

- **Chapter 9, "Evidence-Based Reading Programs and Tools,"** helps new teachers understand the anatomy of core reading programs provided in most school districts, including their advantages and weak points. In this way, teachers are able, as wise consumers, to pick and choose that which works best for meeting students' reading needs. Also included are the latest ratings by *What Works Clearinghouse* as to the programs, program components, and supplemental materials found to be effective with specific groups of students, including English Learners.
- **Chapter 10, "Assessment,"** supplements assessment strategies provided in other chapters by providing a new section on formative assessment and a global view of the assessment process and how it informs instruction. Introduced are the four primary purposes of reading assessment: screening, progress monitoring, outcome, and diagnostic assessments. Also featured are specific tools for meeting these purposes, as well as our popular "IF-THEN" system for analyzing data and making instructional decisions.
- **Chapter 11, "Effective Reading Instruction and Organization in Grades K–3,"** takes teachers on a tour de force of early literacy instruction, from preparing the classroom before the children arrive, the first day, the first week, and daily literacy instructional routines, to designing and implementing a yearlong early literacy assessment plan. This practical chapter lays out many of the most popular and well-researched instructional practices that teachers of young children should be implementing in early reading and writing instruction. Packed with practical tips, this chapter is a perennial favorite!
- **Chapter 12, "Effective Disciplinary Literacy Instruction in Grades 4–8,"** provides the latest in research-proven strategies for helping students become literate in the core subject areas of mathematics, science, social studies, and English language arts. A good deal of the new information and strategies come directly from work in the Memphis Striving Readers Project, a federally funded research project in some of our nation's most challenging schools. Helping every student become college and career ready, this chapter includes critical information for teachers at all levels, especially in the intermediate and middle-school grades.
- **A major focus on—and new lesson examples for—explicit instruction of reading skills, strategies, and concepts** gives teachers a way to "think aloud" and provide students with clear, systematic, and highly practical strategies that lead to reading success.

The Seven Pillars of Effective Reading Instruction

Pillar 1: Teacher Knowledge

This eighth edition thoroughly examines how teacher knowledge can lead to informed instructional decision making. Purple headings, figures, and tables mark the chapter sections that address Pillar 1—Teacher Knowledge. Material in the purple section of each chapter gives you the foundational, evidence-based knowledge you need to understand in order to assure you are well prepared as an informed literacy decision maker.

Pillar 2: Classroom Assessment

The role of assessment, highlighted in royal blue in each chapter, is integral to effective instruction and is part of informed instruction as covered in this new edition. Because you, the teacher, must be able to gauge your students' development of literacy skills to make informed instructional decisions, the blue assessment section is designed to help you make important determinations about student progress and intervention selections.

Pillar 3: Evidence-Based Teaching Practices

Effective, evidence-based teaching practices, highlighted in light blue in each chapter, are richly described in this new edition. This section lays out practical intervention strategies and teaching practices for instructing essential literacy skills and strategies effectively. Great teachers have a large assortment of effective tools in their instructional toolboxes, helping all children to reach their literacy potential.

Pillar 4: Response to Intervention (RTI), or Multi-tiered Systems of Support (MTSS)

This fourth pillar, highlighted in green in each chapter, guides teachers toward ways to differentiate the instruction, monitor the effectiveness of that instruction, and then adapt the instruction based on progress-monitoring data, as found in many renditions of Response to Intervention and Multi-tiered Systems of Support models. It is clear to any teacher who has spent more than 5 seconds in today's classrooms that students come to school with diverse learning needs. Your goal must be to help all the students in your classroom succeed, including students who struggle because English is not their first language or because they have learning disabilities or other special needs.

Pillar 5: Motivation and Engagement

Highlighted in gold in each chapter, Pillar 5 provides specific strategies to motivate students to read and to remain engaged in the process of improving one's reading skills and growing one's knowledge throughout the year. Motivation has been shown to be among the most important considerations in students' willingness to persist and put forth the necessary effort to learn to read and then love to read. Research evidence has been mounting over the past decade about the importance of motivation. Teachers need to know about and use various strategies to motivate their students to become and stay engaged in learning to read and reading to learn.

Pillar 6: Technology and New Literacies

Pillar 6, highlighted in orange in each chapter, explains how teachers in today's classrooms are teaching children who are digital natives—more familiar with MP4 players, ereaders, computer tablets, smartphones, and powerful desktop and laptop computers than they may be with traditional printed reading materials. They swipe, text, Google, and navigate social media to stay connected to their peers and the world outside. Access to the Internet and the vast information available to students in contemporary classrooms demands that teachers know about how to connect learning to read to the technologies and new literacies these students use every day in their lives. Students will spend as much or more time reading materials presented or accessed through digital means today than they will read traditionally published print materials. In this important section of each chapter, we provide teachers with a primer on new technologies and a host of updated links to free apps that may be useful in teaching various essential elements of learning to read and reading to learn to today's plugged-in students. For those of you who are as well-versed in technology as your students, our strategies will help you harness your knowledge and experience and bring it to effective teaching and engaged student learning.

Pillar 7: Family and Community Connections

The value of establishing durable relationships with children's caregivers and other community resources is clarified and amplified in red sections of all chapters in this eighth edition. Here, we provide recommendations for creating and nurturing important connections between the school classroom and community resources. The goal in the red sections of the chapters is to help you communicate with parents and other caregivers, including daycare and other educational providers, and involve them in students' continuing literacy success.

Text Organization

In preparing this new edition of *Teaching Children to Read,* we have taken care to preserve the many popular features of the seventh edition while presenting the updated information teachers need to develop into master literacy teachers in the twenty-first century. We believe that a foundation in scientific research evidence, college- and career-ready standards, and a necessary acquaintance with classroom experience are pivotal to informing teacher decision-making and promoting effective reading instruction and assessment. In this eighth edition, we have carefully woven into the content of the chapters recommendations made by the *Institute of Education Sciences (IES)* as contained in its practice guides and added more recent information about Response to Intervention/Multi-tiered Systems of Support. Flowing from these updates, the essential elements of effective, evidence-based early reading instruction are covered in detail. With this in place, we build on the chapter-by-chapter topical focus on assessment with a full chapter (Chapter 10) dedicated to the topic, with a focus on meeting the grade level expectations of the Common Core State Standards.

We then turn our attention to the reality of today's reading classrooms and the programs and standards teachers are asked to examine and follow. Classroom organization and management are important considerations in setting up effective and motivating literacy instructional programs. Therefore, we offer you insight into the observations and recommendations we have made for K–8 teachers so that you prepare and organize your literacy materials to meet students' needs.

Support Materials for Instructors

The following resources are available for instructors to download on www.pearsonhighered.com/educator. Instructors enter the author or title of this book, select this particular edition of the book, and then click on the "Resources" tab to log in and download textbook supplements.

Instructor's Resource Manual and Test Bank (0134742427)

The Instructor's Resource Manual and Test Bank includes questions that tie to the learning outcomes as well as discussion questions and activities, preview questions, and focus questions that promote reflection and higher-order thinking. There is also a wide assortment of in-class activities. A current list of related readings in each chapter provides pre-service teachers a great start to their in-class library.

PowerPoint® Presentation (0134742419)

The PowerPoint® Presentation includes key points pertaining to key concepts, skills, and strategies that will enhance learning. They are designed to help students understand, organize, and remember core concepts.

TestGen (013474246X)

TestGen is a powerful test generator available exclusively from Pearson Education publishers. You install TestGen on your personal computer (Windows or Macintosh) and create your own tests for classroom testing and for other specialized delivery options, such as over a local area network or on the web. A test bank, which is also called a Test Item File (TIF), typically contains a large set of test items, organized by chapter and ready for your use in creating a test, based on the associated textbook material.

The tests can be downloaded in the following formats:

TestGen Testbank file—PC

TestGen Testbank file—MAC

TestGen Testbank—Blackboard 9 TIF

TestGen Testbank—Blackboard CE/Vista (WebCT) TIF

Angel Test Bank (zip)
D2L Test Bank (zip)
Moodle Test Bank
Sakai Test Bank (zip)

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We also express our gratitude to our reviewers for this edition: Angela R. Child, Dixie State University; Arnetta K. Crosby, Alcorn State University; Angela McNulty, University of Texas at Dallas; Martha Young Rhymes, Northwestern State University of Louisiana; Lori Smolleck, Bucknell University.

We deeply appreciate the support of Jeffrey Johnston, former Pearson Vice President, who, back in 1989, believed in and mentored two young teacher educators in creating a best-selling textbook on teaching children to read. For his vision, friendship, and support over the years, we cannot express our gratitude in mere words.

In addition, we thank our Pearson colleagues, Carolyn Schweitzer, Miryam Chandler, Meredith Fossel, Drew Bennett, and Yagnesh Jani for their expert guidance and support in producing this eighth edition of *Teaching Children to Reading: The Teacher Makes the Difference.* We couldn't have done it without their able assistance, prodding, and critiques.

DRR
RBC

Brief Contents

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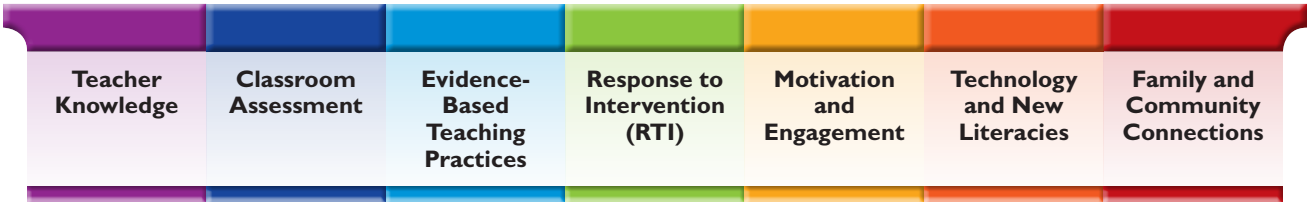
Effective Reading Instruction



Learning Outcomes

After studying this chapter, teacher education candidates will be able to:

1.1 Explain why investing in teacher knowledge and skill development is important to student outcomes in P–12 schools.

1.2 Create a timeline of historical events that have shaped current trends and practices in teaching reading.

1.3 Analyze the rationale behind the major anchor standards for the English Language Arts in the Common Core State Standards (CCSS).

1.4 Discuss how the definition of *traditional print literacy* has been broadened in the past decade.

1.5 Explain why teachers make such a difference in helping a child to read.

1.6 Describe the seven pillars of effective reading instruction used throughout this book.

Becoming a Teacher: A Vignette

Selena is a college junior preparing to become an elementary school teacher. Her upcoming methods class on teaching children to read is not just another college class; it represents for her the real beginning of her teacher preparation and an eventual teaching career. Without doubt, teaching children to read will be the emphasis of her classroom instructional program. Selena recalls fondly her own first-grade teacher, Mrs. Roberts, who introduced her to the world of books and reading. Selena hopes she will be a "Mrs. Roberts" to the many children she will teach over the course of her career.

Of the several professors who teach the required course on teaching children to read, Selena chose Dr. Estrada's class. With many years of successful teaching experience in public schools, Dr. Estrada is known for her rigorous, evidence-based, hands-on instructional methods that get her students ready for their first year of teaching. She begins the course on the first day by asking students to read a scenario printed on the cover of the course syllabus:

> On one occasion, Frank Smith (1985), a well-known literacy expert who had never taught a child to read in a classroom, was confronted with a daunting question by a group of exasperated teachers: "So, what would you do, Dr. Smith, if you had to teach a room full of five-year-olds to read?" Dr. Smith's response was quick and decisive. He first indicated that children learn to read from people—and the most important of these people are teachers. As teachers, you need to comprehend the general processes of how children develop and learn, and the specific processes whereby children learn to read.

After the students finished reading the quote, Dr. Estrada continues with a question clearly intended to provoke discussion: "How did *you* learn to read? What do you remember about learning to read? Who helped you? Turn to your neighbor—we'll call that your 'elbow partner'—introduce yourself, and share your thoughts in response to these questions."

Immediately the room filled with the buzz of students sharing their memories about how they learned to read. Selena shared her memories with her elbow partner, Terrence. She tells him how she was first introduced to books by her mom and *abuela* (grandma). "Did they ever read *Curious George* books to you?" asks Terrence. "These books were my favorite!"

After a few minutes of discussion, Dr. Estrada asks the class to share some of their memories, which she records on a whiteboard at the front of the classroom.

- Little kids learn to read from someone who reads to them.
- I learned to read from my older sister.
- I remember writing letters and asking my mother what they spelled.
- I had a favorite book I memorized because my grandmother read it to me over and over again.
- I remember my teacher reading a great big book to us in kindergarten called *Mrs. Wishy Washy*. I loved that book!
- I watched *Sesame Street, Barney*, and *Reading Rainbow*. I learned the letters and some words from watching TV.

Next, Dr. Estrada asks her students to define what it means to *read*. She tells them to take one minute of think time and then share ideas with their elbow partners. Selena remembers how she struggled with learning phonics. Terrence remarks, "Well, I agree that beginning reading should help children decode words using phonics, but I don't see how you can call it 'reading' if you don't understand what you are reading. I mean, I can call out all of the words in my geology textbook, but *understanding* what they mean is another thing. For me, that takes some work!"

Dr. Estrada invites comments from the class and records statements about the meaning of reading:

- I think reading is when you sound out letters to make words.
- Reading involves understanding what's on the page (Terrence's contribution).
- I learned to read from little books that used the same pattern over and over again, like *The Three Billy Goats Gruff*.
- Learning phonics is the first part of reading and comprehension is the last.

- Reading is about learning information that makes you smarter.
- I played on my mom's little books on the computer until I could read each book.
- Reading is the ability to put together what you already know with what the author wants you to learn.

Dr. Estrada brings the discussion to a conclusion at this point: "Though these are critical issues for all teachers to reflect on, when we look at research evidence there can be no doubt that the teacher's knowledge about teaching and learning and the skill to put this knowledge into practice make the greatest difference in whether a young child learns to read. And because reading is, in a very real way, the gateway to social justice, your role as a reading teacher has the potential of changing lives and, therefore, our society. Perhaps for 100 years."

That, thinks Selena to herself, *is why I have chosen to become a teacher*.

Becoming a Master Teacher of Reading

ILA Standards for Reading Professionals:

Standard 1: Foundational Knowledge: Candidates understand the theoretical and evidence-based foundations of reading and writing processes and instruction. Elements 1.1, 1.2, 1.3

Reading is the process and skill that makes virtually all other learning possible. For instance, for nine centuries Oxford University graduates have been described as "reading" their chosen subject or field of study. Of course, Oxford students, like all other students from preschool through college, engage in all sorts of additional learning activities, but clearly reading is chief among them. Thus, the teaching of reading is something we must get right if our young students are to have the world of learning opened to them.

In our 60-plus combined years of research and teaching as classroom teachers, as well as teachers of teachers, we have come to understand that master teachers of reading have a unique skill set (Phelps, 2009). For one thing, they are readers themselves. They read for pleasure and personal growth and in the process serve as exceptional role models for their young charges. Master teachers know that you can't "sell" what you don't do.

Extraordinary reading teachers, like other accomplished professionals, keep up with cutting-edge developments in their field. They regularly read professional journals such as *The Reading Teacher* and the *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, or go to the website or conferences of the International Literacy Association to learn about the latest research-based classroom practices. We have seen that many master teachers are also just a bit unsatisfied with their own knowledge or skill levels in spite of their tremendous success with student learning. They constantly seek out new ideas from colleagues and professional development opportunities that help them support children in becoming strong readers. We also know that master reading teachers often see reading instruction as equal parts art and science. Although skills must indeed be taught, master reading teachers believe that teaching reading is far more than simply teaching skills.

Consider the piano teacher who must teach her young pupil how to make music. The student must learn to read sheet music and then translate that information into pleasing notes from the instrument. Although teaching the skill of reading music is critical to training new musicians, time must also be spent helping students learn techniques for interpreting the musical notes while appreciating and taking pride in the tunes they can perform. Similarly, the reading teacher's task is to teach students how to translate alphabetic symbols on a page into comprehending the meaning of the text. As with a fine piano, there is richness and opportunity in the instruments of reading: books, graphic novels, online readings, digital tablets, and much more.

In the early grades, we introduce young children to reading with fictional allies such as Bill Martin's *Brown Bear* (1990) and Norman Bridwell's (1985) *Clifford*. We also introduce our young students to the world of information texts with writings such as those of Melvin Berger's (2000) *Why I Sneeze, Shiver, Hiccup & Yawn*. As students grow as readers, we enlist Jack Prelutsky's poetry and even J. K. Rowling's adventures of Harry Potter and friends. Throughout all levels of reading development, master teachers continue to bring in increasing numbers of nonfiction sources so that students hone their reading skills while learning about interesting subjects such as dinosaurs, weather, and the origin of the universe. In this way master reading teachers are able to help their young charges transform squiggles on a page of paper into something rich and exciting.

We begin our learning experience in this first chapter by talking about the current state of reading instruction. Part of becoming a master reading teacher is to understand the historical roots of reading instruction, so we begin there. In the balance of the chapter we describe seven pillars of reading instruction that support teachers in providing effective, evidence-based reading instruction in schools and classrooms.

A Brief History of Current Trends in Reading Instruction

Many would agree that the ability to read is a critical factor in living a healthy, happy, and productive life. In fact, the ability to read has been declared "a civil right" by the National Right to Read Foundation (2001). The ability to read and read well makes possible many opportunities in a democratic society. Conversely, nonreaders and poor readers are often hindered in taking full advantage of opportunities for themselves or their families, or in thoroughly understanding their rights and responsibilities as citizens.

Inability to Read: "A National Health Risk"

In the past decade, the inability to read has been listed as a health risk by the National Institutes of Health (NIH), an agency of the federal government. Failure to learn to read well by third grade has long-term consequences in terms of an individual's earning potential and economic productivity (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2010). In an era of increasing text complexity, the Children's Reading Foundation has indicated that up to one-half of the reading materials in fourth grade are incomprehensible to students who read below grade level. Designating *reading disability* or the *inability to read* as a national health threat was based on the discovery of the many devastating and far-reaching

effects that reading failure has on the quality of people's lives. Fielding, Kerr, and Rosier (1998) in the *The 90% Reading Goal* drive home this very point:

> The most expensive burden we place on society is those students we have failed to teach to read well. The silent army of low readers who move through our schools, siphoning off the lion's share of administrative resources, emerge into society as adults lacking the single prerequisite for managing their lives and acquiring additional training. They are chronically unemployed, underemployed, or unemployable. They form the single largest identifiable group of those whom we incarcerate, and to whom we provide assistance, housing, medical care, and other social services. They perpetuate and enlarge the problem by creating another generation of poor readers. (pp. 6–7)

Today, the ability to read and write well is often referred to using the broader term, *literacy*. Over the past four decades, **illiteracy**, or the inability to read, has been identified as a significant factor related to myriad social problems including poverty, crime, and social dependency. Add to this **aliteracy**, referring to those with the ability to read but a reluctance to do so, and the size and scope of the problems associated with failure to read are magnified in today's society.

Government leaders and worldwide corporations have come to recognize the potential of literacy to transform lives, address social maladies, and bolster sagging economies. Many business leaders and college professors complain that today's students enter careers or college unprepared to engage successfully in the range of increasingly complex and technologically based literacy tasks required of them. This has led the United States in recent years to take political, social, educational, and economic actions, known as the *Common Core State Standards (CCSS)* aimed at preparing students to be more competitive in the world of work and in university studies. The CCSS also provides a common roadmap for learning across school districts and the states, which is an important consideration since our society is much more mobile than in previous generations.

Political Responses to the Literacy Crisis

Why has literacy instruction in our schools become such a hot political issue? Actually, contentious debates about the "best" ways of teaching reading and writing in the United States and Canada have been ongoing for nearly 150 years. From phonics to whole-word approaches to skills-based programmed readers to whole-language advocacy, the pendulum of literacy education approaches has swung back and forth between various viewpoints. In the past, however, debates about literacy policy and practice were largely confined to professionals within the educational community. The incessant waves of reading instructional fads have led to centralized and even federalized efforts to unify the course of reading instruction in the United States.

THE 1980s AND A NATION AT RISK Current reform efforts arguably took root during the Reagan administration in the 1980s, when then Secretary of Education Terrel Bell's blue-ribbon panel issued a report on the state of education. Titled *A Nation at Risk* (U.S. Department of Education, 1983), the report said quality education in U.S. schools was in peril—in some ways equal to a national security threat. With the publication of this report, public suspicions began to run high about the trustworthiness of the education establishment to make necessary improvements to a seemingly broken educational system in the United States. The report also ignited a gradual process of legislated educational changes based on research evidence rather than on the popularity of trendy commercial programs that often resulted in ineffective teaching practices (American Federation of Teachers, 1999; National Research Council, 2001).

THE 1990s AND GOALS 2000 In the mid-1990s, President Clinton led an effort to improve literacy education and student learning through the Goals 2000: Educate America Act (U.S. Department of Education, 1994). President Clinton strongly supported increased professional development in literacy education for teachers and also

urged the implementation of a nationwide testing program in reading and mathematics to assess whether national goals were being reached. Simultaneously, in 1995, the National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) released data showing a measurable *decline* in fourth-grade reading achievement across the nation.

THE NATIONAL READING PANEL By the late 1990s, public opinion and politicians had determined that literacy instruction was in dire need of reform. But this time, decisions on teaching literacy had to be grounded in research evidence. As a result of educational controversies such as the so-called "reading wars" (Taylor, 1998) and precipitous declines in national test scores, the U.S. Congress and the U.S. Department of Education formed several panels to examine the research on best teaching practices and share their findings with the public.

The National Reading Panel (NRP; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000) examined research evidence on the teaching of reading in grades K–12. A few years later the National Literacy Panel for Language Minority Children and Youth (August & Shanahan, 2006) explored literacy development and instruction for English language learners ages birth to 18 years; and then the National Early Literacy Panel (2008) looked at beginning literacy learning for preschoolers and kindergartners. Reports from these panels have been influential in terms of reforming public policy and pedagogical practice. Watch this video about the National Reading Panel in the early 2000s. It describes why the panel was formed and its major findings. How does the NRP's report continue to influence the way we think about literacy education today?

The impact that the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) had on classroom practice and research has been particularly profound (Swanson & Barlage, 2006). Among their many findings, the NRP discovered that providing phonemic awareness training (hearing individual sounds in spoken words) to young children was beneficial, as was the explicit teaching of phonics, oral reading fluency, vocabulary (word meaning), and comprehension strategies. The two later panels on literacy added important insights about effective literacy instruction but generally confirmed the value of explicitly teaching the five NRP-identified components of literacy: phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency. In the field we often refer to these as the Big 5. These research findings not only were quickly adopted by commercial reading programs, but they were also put into law as a part of the federal government's No Child Left Behind Act (e.g., Reading First, Early Reading First), which included far-reaching policy and legislative changes to federally funded Title I and Head Start programs.

Historically speaking, **reading reform** was first to take shape in the Reading Excellence Act (U.S. Department of Education, 1998). Funded and approved under the Clinton administration, it contained federal funding specifically targeted to underachieving and high-poverty school populations where lagging reading achievement needed immediate attention. It was clear that politicians would no longer allow decisions about something as socially, politically, and economically powerful as literacy to be the sole purview of the education profession.

THE 2000s AND NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND With the election of President George W. Bush in 2000, literacy reform policy continued to gather momentum. Reform efforts were furthered by Senator Edward Kennedy and President Bush's joint efforts to reauthorize the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1964, which resulted in a sweeping education reform bill known as *No Child Left Behind* (2001). Within this legislation, scientific or evidence-based reading research became the gold standard for

making instructional decisions. Furthermore, the belief that early reading instruction should include early, systematic, explicit phonics instruction was transformed into law.

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation passed Congress with one of the largest bipartisan affirmative vote margins on record since 1964. This federal intervention into state and local education provided federal funds to states in the form of Reading First grants along with a long menu of unfunded mandates to cement the reforms begun in the mid-1990s. Some saw the new NCLB legislation as federal intrusion into states' rights, believing functions of government not expressly mentioned in the U.S. Constitution should belong to the states, including education policy.

In 2008, a new report was issued that was intended to update the findings of the National Reading Panel (2000) titled *Developing Early Literacy: Report of the National Early Literacy Panel—A Scientific Synthesis of Early Literacy Development and Implications for Intervention* (Shanahan et al., 2008). This report extended the findings of scientifically supported reading instruction components from what had become known as the Big 5: *phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency*, *vocabulary*, and *comprehension*, to include *oral language development, concepts about print*, and *alphabetic knowledge*.

THE CURRENT STATE OF LITERACY POLICY The historic presidential election of 2008 swept Barack Obama's change agenda into the White House and the halls of political power. Literacy continued to be seen as a means to solve many personal, social, and economic problems, as illustrated by the words of President Obama (2005) on the importance of literacy and reading instruction.

> I believe that if we want to give our children the best possible chance in life, if we want to open doors of opportunity while they're young and teach them the skills they'll need to succeed later on, then one of our greatest responsibilities as citizens, as educators, and as parents is to ensure that every American child can read and read well.

Reading is the gateway skill that makes all other learning possible, from solving complex mathematical word problems and the meaning of our history to scientific discovery and technological proficiency. In a knowledge economy where this kind of learning is necessary for survival, how can we send our children out into the world with an expectation they will compete successfully if they're only reading at a minimal level?

The U.S. Congress in December, 2015 reauthorized the 1964 Elementary Secondary Education Act (ESEA) to replace the 2001 No Child Left Behind Act. The new act is called the *Every Student Succeeds Act* (ESSA). This legislation returns control of educational decision making and standards setting to the states. This means that every state will have the ability to determine state level standards, assessments, and set state level proficiency cut scores on state level assessments. For literacy, this means that every state will have a different set of literacy standards and can select its own assessments for measuring those literacy standards.

The Common Core State Standards

The Common Core State Standards have become a significant force in shaping current educational thinking and practice. In 1989, the National Governors Association (NGA) officially adopted a policy that encouraged each state to establish learning standards focused on the skills and knowledge students should acquire by the end of each grade level. In 2010, the NGA and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) published the Common Core State Standards. As of this writing, 42 states,

the District of Columbia, and three U.S. territories have adopted or adapted the CCSS in the English Language Arts and in selected subject areas such as science and mathematics. This state-by-state adoption of learning standards represents the first time in U.S. history that there has been a border-to-border coordination of learning goals across the states—a common learning roadmap. The vast majority of teachers and students nationally are currently implementing these CCSS for English Language Arts, or will be in the near future.

Not only do the Common Core State Standards represent the most extensive basis for national agreement concerning what students should know and be able to do, these new standards are also markedly more rigorous than past standards in terms of what teachers are expected to accomplish with their students (American College Testing (ACT), 2010; Carmichael, Wilson, Porter-Magee, & Martino, 2010). When the Obama administration jumped onto the CCSS state-by-state adoption bandwagon, politicians and citizens became alarmed that the CCSS represented an unwanted federal intrusion into educational policy making even though the federal government was not involved.

Interestingly, the Common Core State Standards have caused both political conservatives and liberals considerable angst but for very different reasons. As David Brooks (2014) indicated in his *New York Times* editorial titled *When The Circus Descends*, conservatives dislike the CCSS because they are *common* and the liberals because they are *core*. Those with the conservative right tend to resist anything "common," which they believe will lead to nationalization of education rather than supporting local control. Those who favor local control often cite the U.S. Constitution as the source of their claim. However, the U.S. Constitution delegates education to the states, not to local control. Those on the liberal left tend to resist anything "core," meaning adoption of the standards may narrow the scope of the curriculum, neglecting their deeply held political and philosophical beliefs.

In the past, standards have usually been written using a developmental model from youngest to oldest learners. With the CCSS, the designers seem to have followed the recommendations of the late Steven Covey (2004) in his book titled *Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*; they began with the end in mind. In other words, the designers reverse-engineered the standards by starting with what is expected of college- and career-ready high school seniors, and then built the CCSS down from there. As Shanahan (2013) wrote,

> Past standards have represented what educators thought they could accomplish, while the CCSS are a description of what students would need to learn if they are to leave school able to participate in U.S. society and to compete globally by working or continuing their education. (p. 208)

The CCSS are without a doubt more demanding of both teachers and students (Shanahan, 2013). They represent a forward-looking, twenty-first century representation of what high school graduates need to be career and college ready. In the initial stages of implementation and assessment, it is highly likely that school administrators and teachers will see fewer students meeting these higher standards.

Because the Standards are more demanding, many teachers and parents are resistant to the elevated demands placed on their students and children. Some parents and teachers believe that adoption of the CCSS will result in too much high-stakes testing of students. Still others are "opting" out of the CCSS testing and encouraging others to do similarly in an effort to derail the testing and the CCSS. In short, although the CCSS have been adopted in 42 states nationwide in one form or another, there is still considerable controversy swirling around the Standards and testing under Common Core. With the election of a new administration in November 2016, it remains to be seen what the fate of the Common Core Standards will be going forward.

What is Reading?

Becoming familiar with the language of professional education—what certain terms mean and how to use them when communicating with colleagues in the field—is essential for becoming a professional teacher. The term *reading* has been used for many years in a fairly narrow sense to refer to a set of print-based decoding and rudimentary thinking skills necessary to remember a text (Harris & Hodges, 1981). On the other hand, Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998) provide a more expanded definition:

> Reading is a complex developmental challenge that we know to be intertwined with many other developmental accomplishments: attention, memory, language, and motivation, for example. Reading is not only a cognitive psycholinguistic activity but also a social activity. (p. 15)

Reading Instruction in the Twenty-First Century

Nowadays our understanding of the act of reading has been broadened to include the visual, analytical, and technological skills necessary to acquire information from digital video, handheld data assistants, computers, e-readers, cell phones, tablets, and other technological learning devices (Hobbs, 2005; Malloy, Castek, & Leu, 2010; Lue, Forzani, Timbrell, & Maykel, 2015; Forzani, Timbrell, & Maykel, 2015; Messaris, 2005). In other words, the skills needed for acquiring information today are expanding. Students are challenged to use new reading skills and strategies shaped by the increasingly diverse social or cultural settings found in schools, homes, communities, and businesses, as well as in social media settings such as wikis, Twitter, Nings, social networks, and blogs (August & Shanahan, 2006; Morgan & Smith, 2008; Tracey & Morrow, 2006). As a result, the term *reading* is currently interpreted far more broadly and encompasses the learning of a complex set of strategies, skills, concepts, and knowledge, enabling individuals to understand visual and print-based information presented in a variety of media or technological formats.

The goal of reading instruction, then, is to empower readers to learn, grow, and participate in a vibrant and rapidly changing information-based world. Learning to read is not a simple task; it is a struggle for many children, not to mention adults who must relearn the skill. In her book titled *My Stroke of Insight*, Dr. Jill Bolten Taylor (2006), a highly recognized neurologist, documented her difficulty in recovering the ability to read after suffering a stroke in her mid-30s. For her, reading was the most difficult skill she had to relearn.

The Skills, Concepts, and Strategies of Successful Reading

As children begin the difficult, multifaceted process of learning to read, they need to acquire a set of skills, concepts, and strategies with the help and guidance of an effective teacher. In order to eventually read efficiently and purposefully, children must skillfully comprehend text, integrate information constructed from text into one's world knowledge, and strategically solve real-world problems with print, whether presented in traditional forms or technology-based formats. On the way to reaching the ultimate goal of reading comprehension (Kintsch, 2013; Paris & Hamilton, 2009)—that is, understanding the author's message and using what is learned for discovery in novel situations—students must have a set of reading skills or tools to get off to a good start. As a teacher of reading, do not underestimate the importance of initial or early reading skills, concepts, and strategies such as the following (Reutzel, 2015):

- Hearing and being able to manipulate individual sounds in spoken words
- Recognizing and identifying a variety of upper- and lowercase printed alphabet letters

- Grasping concepts about how printed language looks and works
- Increasing oral language (speaking) vocabularies
- Understanding that sounds in spoken language "map" onto letters in written language
- Decoding words with accuracy, speed, and expression

Shanahan (2006) and others (e.g., Durkin, 1966) indicate that the earliest desire to learn to read often grows out of a child's initial curiosity about writing letters and words at home. Consequently, very often, writing represents not only the starting line in many a young child's journey to learn to read but the finish line as well (Clay, 1975; Reutzel, 2015). As young children become increasingly aware of letters and words in the world around them, they may eventually ask how to write their names or spell other personally significant words or concepts (e.g., a pet's name or the name of a relative). When children are able to write letters and words, the cognitive footprint left in the brain, also called the *memory trace*, is deep and long lasting—much longer lasting than those engendered by mere letter or word recognition alone. Similarly, when children can string words together to construct meaning, as found in a written story, they have comprehended text at a deeper and longer-lasting level. In a very real sense, children's understanding of what they read is deepened and cemented when they write about it. As children learn to write, they must also learn a set of early skills, concepts, and strategies similar to those in reading to help them on their way to achieving the ultimate goal of writing instruction—composition. To acquire initial proficiency in writing, young children need to acquire skills, concepts, and strategies such as the following (Reutzel, 2015):

- Handwriting (forming legible upper- and lowercase letters)
- Understanding and using mechanical conventions such as punctuation, headings, paragraph indents, and the like
- Learning to "encode" words and thoughts into print (i.e., spelling words, labeling pictures, writing sentences)

As you can readily see, it would be most difficult and terribly ineffective to separate reading from writing or writing from reading in a successful reading instruction program (Shanahan, 2006).

Teachers Make the Difference!

Here's a question for you to consider: *What is the primary ingredient in the recipe for every child's reading success?* Answer: An effective classroom teacher who has the ability to teach reading to a diverse group of students who have a variety of abilities and needs (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005; Strickland, Snow, Griffin, Burns, & McNamara, 2002). This fact was initially documented in 1985 in the National Academy and Institute of Education's landmark report titled *Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading*. In this now classic report, commission members concluded that teacher knowledge, skill, and competence are absolutely essential in helping all learners become strong readers.

> An *indisputable* [italics added] conclusion of research is that the quality of teaching makes a considerable difference in children's learning. Studies indicate that about 15 percent of the variation among children in reading achievement at the end of the school year is attributable to factors that related to the skill and

> effectiveness of the teacher. In contrast, the largest study ever done comparing approaches to beginning reading found that about 3 percent of the variation in reading achievement at the end of the first grade was attributable to the overall approach of the program. Thus, the prudent assumption for educational policy is that, while there may be some "materials-proof" teachers, there are no "teacher-proof" materials. (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985, p. 85)

From our collective experience as teachers, researchers, and authors, we know, and parental attitudes confirm, that "it all comes down to the teacher," because parents are notorious for competing to get their children into classes taught by the known faculty stars in a school. And why shouldn't they? There is nothing in this world that can replace the power of a great classroom teacher (Strickland, Snow, Griffin, Burns, & McNamara 2002, p. 4).

The Need for Quality Classroom Teachers

In a national survey by Haselkorn and Harris (2001), 89 percent of Americans responded that it is very important to have a well-qualified teacher in every classroom. The poorest children and the most powerless families often receive the least our educational system has to offer (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future [NCTAF], 2006)—what Jonathan Kozol (1991) once labeled "savage inequalities." Secretary of Education Arne Duncan declared more recently that every student has a right to a highly qualified and effective classroom teacher (U.S. Department of Education, 2009).

In a national study of 1,000 school districts, Ferguson (1991) found that every additional dollar spent on more highly qualified teachers netted greater improvement in student achievement than did any other use of school resources. In fact, research also suggests that teachers influence student academic growth more than any other single factor, including families, neighborhoods, and the schools students attend (Rowan, Correnti, & Miller, 2002; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Successful schools that produce high student reading and writing achievement test scores, regardless of socioeconomic status or the commercial program used to provide reading and writing instruction, have teachers who are knowledgeable and articulate about their work (Hanushek, 2010; McCardle & Chhabra, 2004; Mosenthal, Lipson, Torncello, Russ, & Mekkelsen, 2004).

Support from Literacy Coaches

During the first decade of the twenty-first century, **literacy coaches** were added to the reading instruction landscape. Literacy coaches work primarily with teachers to improve the quality of their reading instruction. Jane Moore (2004), a highly regarded literacy coach in Dallas, once remarked that "even Cinderella had a coach." Much like coaches for athletes, school-based reading/literacy coaches help classroom teachers learn new evidence-based practices and improve their instructional skills so as to enhance student reading achievement and engagement (Burkins, 2009; Elish-Piper & L'Allier, 2011; Toll, 2007; Walpole & McKenna, 2010). Research has demonstrated that teachers who are supported in their professional learning, which includes formal instruction coupled with classroom support from a literacy coach, achieve measurably greater reading improvement in classrooms (Elish-Piper & L'Allier, 2011; Neuman & Cunningham, 2009; Walpole & McKenna, 2010; Bean et al., 2015). Watch this video that summarizes the contributions of literacy coaches to student reading achievement and

describes what's needed to build positive, productive relationships between classroom teachers and literacy coaches. How do you see a literacy coach helping you as you work to improve your reading instruction?

What Reading Teachers Need to Know and Do: The Seven Pillars of Effective Reading Instruction

ILA Standards for Reading Professionals:

Standard 1: Foundational Knowledge: Candidates understand the theoretical and evidence-based foundations of reading and writing processes and instruction. Elements 1.1, 1.2, 1.3

Standard 2: Curriculum and Instruction: Candidates use instructional approaches, materials, and an integrated, comprehensive, balanced curriculum to support student learning in reading and writing. Elements 2.1, 2.2, 2.3

The remainder of this professional text is dedicated to those who want to learn what they need to know and be able to do to become effective teachers of reading. Drawn from decades of research describing the practices of exemplary reading teachers in elementary schools (e.g., Pressley, Allington, Wharton-McDonald, Collins-Block, & Morrow, 2001; Risko et al., 2008), we have learned what teachers know and do in their classrooms to become highly effective instructors of reading.

Because the research on effective reading instruction is so extensive, we have attempted, as good teachers do, to make the complex simple. We know that in doing so we may tend to oversimplify the complex, but by the same token we can increase the comprehensibility of our message. However, given the task of assisting novice and practicing teachers alike to hone their knowledge and skills of effective, evidence-based reading instruction, we have opted to reduce the complexity of teaching reading to a simple organizational structure that represents the key research findings in seven distinct yet interrelated groupings. These are referred to in this text as the *seven pillars of effective reading instruction*. Like the pillars that support great buildings, the pillars shown in Figure 1.1 provide a framework for highly effective reading instruction.

As part of our structured approach, we have organized many of the succeeding chapters of this text around these same seven pillars of effective reading instruction. Each pillar is given a particular color reflected in the table of contents, the chapter opener, and the headings within the text. This seven-pillar framework is based on our finding that readers learn best from a text that has a consistent and easily discernible organization and structure. We also hope that you, our readers, will construct your own knowledge of effective reading instruction using these seven pillars. To begin, we briefly describe the basis for each of the seven pillars of effective reading instruction.

Figure 1.1 The Seven Pillars of Effective Reading Instruction

Pillar One: Teacher Knowledge

As already noted, decades of educational research confirm the linkage of **teacher knowledge** to the effectiveness of literacy instruction offered to children. For example, evidence-based research has verified the most essential elements of reading and the sequence in which these should be taught. Putting these into practice assures that each student has the best opportunity to learn to read well.

More broadly, research reveals the beneficial impact of teacher knowledge on the quality of their instruction and depth of student learning. Dating back to the seminal work of Coleman (1966) in *Equality of Educational Opportunity* and continuing to more current documents such as the Education Trust's (2008) *Achievement in America*, researchers and policymakers alike have argued that increasing teacher knowledge and skill is this country's best hope in closing the achievement gap.

In fact, we now understand that what teachers know and do in classrooms matters even more than past research on teacher quality might have predicted (Adoniou, 2015; Duffy, 2009; Kelcey, 2011; McCutchen , Green, Abbott, & Sanders, 2009; Spear-Swerling & Zibulsky, 2014). Research conducted over the last several decades has suggested that differences in teacher classroom performance explain 15 to 20 percent of variation in student achievement (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Carlisle, Correnti, Phelps, & Zeng, 2009; Ferguson, 1991; Hanushek, 2010; Sanders, 1998; Scheerens & Bosker, 1997). Indeed, once children enter school, teachers influence student academic growth more than any other single factor, including families, neighborhoods, and the schools that students attend (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Rowan, Correnti, & Miller, 2002; Sanders & Horn, 1994). In order to determine what and how to teach reading and writing effectively, teachers need assessment data about their students' reading and writing processes and growth.

Pillar Two: Classroom Assessment

The ultimate goal of any classroom assessment strategy is to inform instruction. Assessments provide real-time student data so that teachers can make informed decisions about "next steps" for selecting effective teaching strategies. **Classroom assessment** refers to the observations, record keeping, and ongoing performance

measures that a teacher uses to gather information about each student's reading progress (Afflerbach, 2012; Flippo, 2003; McKenna & Stahl, 2009; Stahl & McKenna, 2013).

Teachers must identify which of several reading abilities each child has already developed in order to plan instruction targeting those the child lacks. Effective reading teachers are able to efficiently assess each student's reading strengths, weaknesses, and gaps; create instructional roadmaps of what children know; and then teach students what they need to learn next (Afflerbach, Byeong-Young, Jong-Yun, Crassas, & Doyle, 2013). Effective reading assessment happens in classrooms *before, during*, and *after* instruction has taken place. Reading assessment is essential for making sure every student receives appropriate reading instruction and then verifying that necessary learning has taken place.

Classroom assessments should help teachers examine students' literacy *processes* as well as the *products* created by the use of these processes (L'Allier, 2013; Morris et al., 2010). Selecting reliable, valid, and efficient reading assessment tools and careful analyses of data (McKenna & Stahl, 2009; Reutzel & Cooter, 2015) are necessary to support effective reading instruction. Teachers also need to know how to judge the quality of assessment tools as well as how to administer and interpret scores and data obtained from a variety of reading assessments.

In collaboration with peers, teachers often design their own informal assessments to measure student progress toward achieving established goals and standards. When designing a reading assessment plan, teachers need to consider the purposes for each assessment, testing conditions, and how much time is available to collect and, most especially, analyze assessment data obtained in order to inform, shape, and adapt later teaching.

In an era of accountability, effective reading teachers also think about how to seamlessly collect assessment data during classroom reading instruction to minimize the amount of time taken away from instruction for assessment purposes. More recently, many teachers have employed computer software, digital apps, and technology such as computer tablets and cell phones to collect and analyze assessment data "on the run" during instruction (McKenna, Labbo, Kieffer, & Reinking, 2006; Roblyer & Doering, 2013; Smaldino, Lowther, & Russell, 2012).

Pillar Three: Evidence-Based Teaching Practices

After teachers have identified where each student is in his or her literacy development and what each child is ready to learn next, teachers must then link each student's learning needs to evidence-based teaching strategies. There is now substantial research evidence on preferred ways for teaching students each of the essential reading skills, concepts, and strategies necessary for success in learning to read and write (August & Shanahan, 2006; National Early Learning Panel [NELP], 2008; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000). Excellent teachers have an abundance of tools and resources in their instructional toolbox to ensure that every child is helped to reach his or her full potential when learning to read. These include such things as effective classroom management, instruction focused on the reading essentials, and designing print-rich classroom environments.

The National Academy of Sciences and the National Research Council sponsored one of the earliest reports describing the need for **evidence-based instruction** in reading. Here, a panel of prominent reading and education experts convened to review existing research studies in order to determine which skills, concepts, and strategies need to be taught to prevent students from falling into early reading difficulties or eventual reading failure. Their report, *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children*

(Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998), was followed by a companion document, *Starting Out Right: A Guide to Promoting Children's Reading Success* (Burns, Griffin, & Snow, 1999), to make their findings more easily accessible to parents and teachers. In these twin reports, the National Research Council spelled out essential reading instruction components that must be taught to prevent early reading failure.

At around the same time, in direct response to a congressional mandate to examine the status of "scientific" research on teaching reading, the *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching Children to Read* (NICHD, 2000), was jointly published by the NICHD, the National Institutes of Health, and the U.S. Department of Education. Similar to the *Preventing Reading Difficulties* report, a companion document titled *Put Reading First: The Research Building Blocks for Teaching Children to Read* (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001) was distributed in order to widely disseminate the findings of the NICHD (2000) report to parents and educators. (*Note*: You can receive a free PDF copy of these reports from the National Reading Panel's website.)

More recently, the National Early Literacy Panel (2008) issued *Developing Early Literacy: Report of the National Early Literacy Panel*. This report examined the research evidence supporting the acquisition of early literacy skills, concepts, and strategies for students' later reading achievement in elementary and secondary schools. A summary document based on the NELP report, titled *Early Beginnings: Early Literacy Knowledge and Instruction*, is a guide for early childhood teachers and administrators and professional developers. Konza (2014) has recently reinforced the importance of oral language development as an essential of reading instruction, as initially reported in the NELP report.

Professional journals, such as *The Reading Teacher*, can also help teachers remain current on the elements of evidence-based reading instruction. For example, Cervetti and Hiebert (2015) have recently proposed that developing students' knowledge or knowledge acquisition should become the sixth pillar of reading instruction in addition to the five pillars mentioned in the NRP Report (NICHD, 2000).

In addition to these reports, the Institute of Education Sciences (IES) of the U.S. Department of Education has established several websites for educators to use in keeping current on evidence-based programs and practices. The *What Works Clearinghouse* was established to give practicing educators instant access to the most updated information about reading instructional program evaluation reports. In addition, the IES has instituted a website to provide educators with access to updated reports on evidence-based practices in documents called *IES Practice Guides*.

Educators now know that highly effective reading instruction programs focus on (1) classroom management, (2) teaching reading essentials, (3) designing print-rich and highly interactive classroom environments, and (4) supporting reading with evidence-based techniques.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT One of the most fundamental characteristics of effective instruction is the teacher's ability to manage the classroom (Briesch, Breisch, & Chafouleas, 2015; Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Morrow, Reutzel, & Casey, 2006). The term **classroom management** refers to the ability of a teacher to organize, direct, and supervise the classroom environment so that effective student learning is made possible (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005). Excellent classroom management (Reutzel, Morrow, & Casey, 2009) requires teachers to know and be able to use a complex set of strategies to accomplish tasks such as the following:

- Allocate classroom space for multiple uses.
- Supply and arrange classroom materials.
- Clearly communicate expectations and rules within a positive classroom climate.
- Employ evidence-based assessment and instructional practices.
- Train students effectively in classroom routines and procedures
- Establish a predictable and familiar daily schedule.

A supportive and well–thought-out classroom management plan is integral to achieving the goals of an effective reading instruction program.

TEACHING READING ESSENTIALS The following reading essentials have been documented in the aforementioned federal research reports (August & Shanahan, 2006; Cervetti & Hiebert, 2015; NELP, 2008; NICHD, 2000):

- Oral language development
- Concepts of printed language
- Letter-name knowledge and production
- Phonemic awareness
- Sight-word recognition
- Phonics
- Fluency
- Vocabulary
- Comprehension
- Writing/spelling
- Knowledge development from text

For students to acquire proficiency in each of these reading essentials, teachers need to know the difference between skills and strategies. *Strategies* are well–thought-out plans, scripts, steps, and procedures that can be taught by teachers to readers. They require conscious application and demand attention on the part of the reader to perform a reading task or process. When readers can perform reading tasks or processes automatically, with little conscious attention, then the reader has acquired the skill. Reading *skills* are the outcomes of applying reading strategies and therefore cannot be taught; they can only be assessed. Thus, reading strategies must be taught in order for students to acquire reading skills (Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008; Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998; Fox & Alexander, 2009).

DESIGNING PRINT-RICH CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENTS When planning print-rich, highly interactive classroom environments, teachers assess, arrange, and demonstrate the use of literacy tools and materials available in the classroom. Providing children access to various kinds and difficulty levels of print materials is a large part of provisioning and arranging literacy tools and materials (e.g., story and information books, poetry, graphic novels, maps, posters, etc.) in print-rich classroom environments (Neuman, 1999; Neuman & Celano, 2001, 2006; Roskos & Neuman, 2011).

Effective reading teachers treat classroom walls as creative palettes for designing both aesthetically pleasing and instructionally useful displays of student work, instructional charts, and other information. The design and maintenance of a classroom library, the grouping and accessibility of reading and writing tools in the classroom, written invitations and encouragements displayed on walls, and directions on how to participate in upcoming literacy events are just a few of the many considerations for teachers to become accomplished environmental designers and managers (Hoffman, Sailors, Duffy, & Beretvas, 2004; Reutzel & Clark, 2011; Roskos & Neuman, 2011; Wolfersberger, Reutzel, Sudweeks, & Fawson, 2004).

SUPPORTING READING WITH EVIDENCE-BASED TECHNIQUES The final essential component of an evidence-based reading instructional program is, not surprisingly, evidence-based reading support. Evidence-based support for high-quality reading instruction includes such practices as the following:

- Engaging in volume reading and writing in and out of school on a regular basis
- Problem solving and holding classroom conversations related to what is read

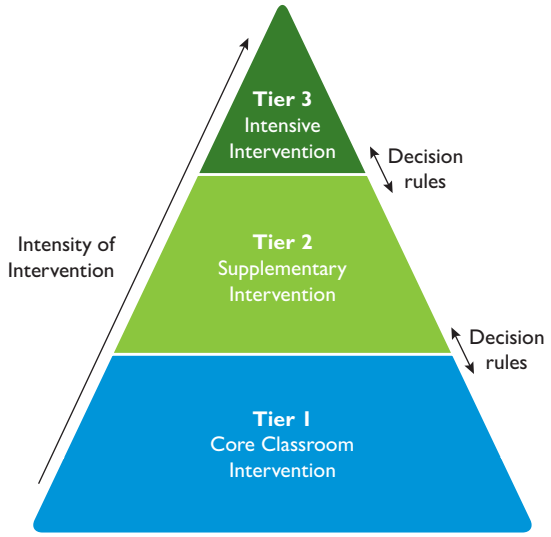
- Using various media and technologies to increase world knowledge
- Modeling reading and writing strategies for children and encouraging them to use these strategies to generate, process, and interact with text
- Connecting literature study to content learning in other curriculum areas (e.g., science, math, and history)
- Providing systematic, explicit, and sustained concept, skill, and strategy instruction in each of the essential elements of reading instruction
- Targeting appropriate instruction to English learners
- Using motivational techniques to encourage reluctant readers to engage

Pillar Four: Response to Intervention (RTI)

Response to intervention (RTI) models of instructional delivery (Stahl & McKenna, 2013; Fuchs, Fuchs, & Vaughn, 2008; Lipson & Wixson, 2009) are evidence-based practices aimed at meeting the diverse needs of students. Typically, RTI models envision the prevention of student reading failure through the systematic implementation of a series of three "tiered" or cascading instructional safety nets (Tier 1, Tier 2, and Tier 3). It is within these tiers that identified students receive timely, targeted, high-quality, and intensive core and supplemental instruction in reading and literacy (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2010; Denton, 2012; Spear-Swerling & Cheesman, 2011; Stahl & McKenna, 2013). A commonly used three-tiered RTI model is shown in Figure 1.2.

Typically, when using RTI models all students are initially screened to determine their progress in achieving established literacy benchmark skills, objectives, and Common Core State Standards (Benedict, Park, Brownell, Lauterbach, & Kiely, 2013; Stahl & McKenna, 2013; Reutzel & Cooter, 2015). Students who are shown in initial screening assessment to be on track in their literacy development continue to receive core reading instruction, called *Tier 1 developmental reading instruction*. For students having difficulty, *Tier 2 reading interventions* are intended to fill in learning gaps as quickly as possible and return students to Tier 1 (i.e., developmental reading instruction). If *Tier 2 instructional interventions* fail to accelerate or positively affect a student's literacy learning, then *Tier 3 interventions* are used with greater frequency, intensity, and duration until the student responds positively to the interventions. As we discuss RTI in this text, we will also direct attention toward meeting the needs of diverse learners through differentiated instruction, especially those increasing numbers of students in the nation's classrooms who are English learners (ELs).

Figure 1.2 Response to Intervention (RTI) Model



The IRIS Center at Vanderbilt University develops training enhancement materials for pre-service and practicing teachers. Explore their online tutorial to learn about the basics of RTI.

DIFFERENTIATING INSTRUCTION Great teachers are able to differentiate instruction in order to meet every child's diverse learning needs. **Differentiation**, according to Tomlinson and Imbeau (2013), is a way of thinking about teaching and learning designed to assist teachers in recognizing, understanding, and addressing student differences that are inevitable in all classrooms. Differentiation will typically address five key classroom elements already discussed: (1) supportive learning environments, (2) coherent and cohesive curriculum, (3) evidence-based instruction, (4) valid and reliable assessment, and (5) classroom management (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2013). For example, in some school districts English is not the first language for many learners. Students may speak Spanish, Chinese, Korean, Arabic, Hmong, or other languages in their homes. In these instances, teachers need to discover a variety of ways to help students learn to read and write in English as a second language (August & Shanahan, 2006). Watch this video of Dr. Calderón describing strategies that can help ELL students access reading. Name at least two specific strategies that can be used to help ELL students get into reading successfully.

It has been estimated that up to 20 percent of students come to school with various learning differences such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), dyslexia, cognitive challenges (i.e., "slow learners"), oral language deficiencies, and behavioral disorders (BD). The goal for teachers is to help *all* students succeed in learning to read. Differentiating reading instruction is essential if educators are to help every child achieve success.

Excellent reading teachers provide instruction that is responsive to the *specific* needs of every child based on ongoing assessment findings. How one goes about adapting reading instruction to address students' evolving needs is of critical importance for all teachers (Reutzel & Cooter, 2015). Today's teachers need abilities such as the following to provide effective instruction for diverse learners:

- Facility with a variety of assessment tools for multiple purposes and techniques for translating student data into effective teaching plans
- Knowledge of teaching interventions that make use of multiple instructional strategies (one size does *not* fit all)
- Understanding of multiple organizational and classroom management techniques

A workable model for many teachers is to begin with a simple, limited, and manageable small-group instructional system, placing children with similar abilities and needs for instruction in groups of four to eight students. Over time and with experience, these same teachers can gradually expand their practice using a range of instructional strategies to include the following:

- Daily intensive, small-group, teacher-guided reading instruction in appropriately challenging text levels

- The use of student-selected books and other readings at appropriate reading levels
- Sensibly selected classroom spaces, often called *learning centers*, for independent practice of previously taught concepts, strategies, and skills accompanied by clear rules, directions, schedules, and familiar routines

CULTURALLY SENSITIVE READING INSTRUCTION Another important aspect of providing effective reading instruction is recognition of cultural diversity. Students bring to school differing cultural experiences that, when recognized by the teacher, can be used as strengths to leverage learning of the school curriculum (Au, 2010). Although the empirical or data-based evidence for culturally sensitive instruction is only now emerging, doing so is understandable (August & Shanahan, 2006; Goldenberg, Hicks, & Lit, 2013). Au (2010) recommends that classroom reading instruction balance competition and cooperation in classroom activities. She also advocates analyzing reading lessons to determine possibilities for classroom dialogue in small groups or pairs. Brief clarifications or explanations in the first or home language, or pointing out a cognate (e.g., "Do you know what *information* is? It sounds like *información*, right?"), makes texts in English accessible to ELLs and helps them make links across languages (Goldenberg, Hicks, & Lit, 2013). Watch this video of an elementary school teacher's multicultural classroom. How does she help her ELL students gain access to spoken and printed English? Can you list at least two strategies this teacher modeled that you might use in your classroom?

Finally, teachers should teach students how to discuss topics with one another appropriately in the classroom through modeling and dialogic routines (e.g., "This is how I say it. Now you say it"). Use of RTI models and culturally sensitive instruction, when implemented well, help teachers consider ways to make their instruction responsive to the needs of ELLs, struggling readers, and students from a wide range of differing cultural perspectives (Optiz, 1998).

Pillar Five: Motivation and Engagement

Gambrell and Marinak (2009) have referred to **motivation** as a key pillar of effective reading instruction not addressed in the National Reading Panel report (NICHD, 2000). Wigfield (1997) describes motivation as a complex of interrelated social and emotional dimensions that influence children's choices to engage in reading:

- *Efficacy*. The sense that "I can do this"
- *Challenge*. Easy and more difficult tasks

- *Curiosity*. The desire to know or find out
- *Involvement*. Active, intentional control of one's thinking
- *Importance*. Personal value or worth
- *Recognition*. Praise, certificates, awards, and so on
- *Grades*. A specific form of recognition in schools
- *Interaction*. Working cooperatively with others
- *Competition*. Working to win or be the best
- *Compliance*. Working to avoid punishment or negative recognition
- *Enjoyment*. Seeking the pleasurable and avoiding the difficult

Gambrell (2011a) gives seven rules of motivation and engagement in reading instruction. Students are more motivated to read when:

1. The reading tasks and activities are relevant to their lives.
2. They have access to a wide range of reading materials.
3. They have ample opportunities to engage in sustained reading.
4. They have opportunities to make choices about what they read and how they engage in completing literacy tasks.
5. They have opportunities to socially interact with others about the text they are reading.
6. They have opportunities to be successful with challenging texts.
7. Classroom incentives reflect the value and importance of reading.

In short, Gambrell (2011b) remarks, "If we want our students to value reading and academics, we have to be clever enough to create classrooms where the message is clear that reading and learning are the best reward" (p. 11).

As a fundamental part of providing effective reading instruction, research clearly demonstrates the power of motivation on student reading achievement (Marinak, Gambrell, & Mazzoni, 2013; Malloy, Marinak, Gambrell, & Mazzoni, 2013). In a 2004 study reported by Guthrie and Humenick, motivation accounted for 17 to 40-plus percentile points on standardized achievement tests of students' reading abilities. Such increases from the mean demonstrate that student motivation is among the most powerful determiners of future reading achievement.

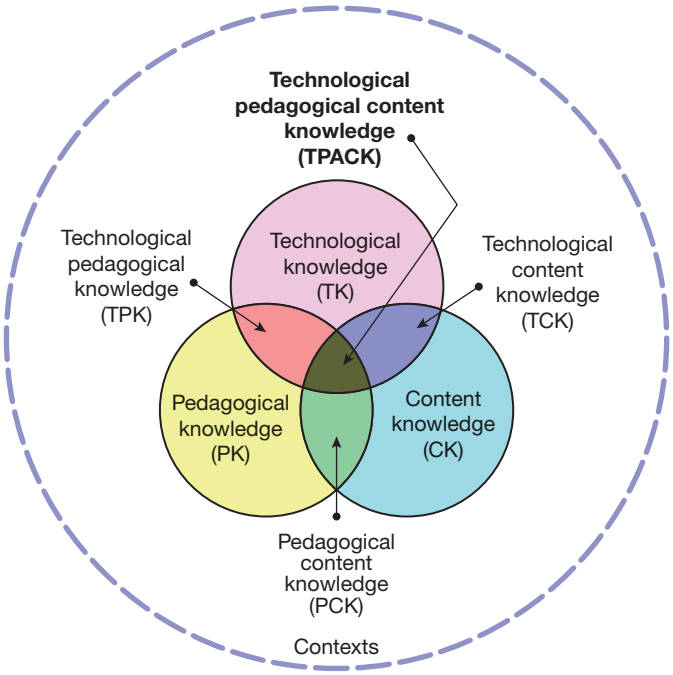
Pillar Six: Technology and New Literacies

New literacy studies (NLS), commonly called *new literacies*, have been defined as "the skills, strategies, and insights necessary to successfully exploit the rapidly changing information and communication technologies that continuously emerge in our world" (Leu, 2002, p. 310). In the time since definitions of NLS first emerged, the definition of "new" literacies has evolved and shifted . . . and will most likely shift again (Bomer, Zok, David, & Ok, 2010; Roblyer & Doering, 2013). Thus, NLS has to do with how literacy practices are linked to people's lives, identities, and social affiliations (Compton-Lilly, 2009; Forzani & Leu, 2012). Research has shown that lower-income students often receive less online instructional access at school than children attending other schools (Henry, 2007). A great deal of NLS research focuses on children's interactions with technological texts and views these interactions as meaningful and purposeful (Labbo & Nogueron-Liu, 2013). Most notable is the ongoing work of the New Literacies Research Team (NLRT) at the University of Connecticut.

Findings about **computer-assisted instruction (CAI)** drawn from a meta-analysis of 42 studies have found that primary-grade children's overall learning

Figure 1.3 TPACK Framework

From Brueck, J. S., & Lehnart, L. A. (2015). E-books and TPACK: What teachers need to know. *The Reading Teacher, 68 (5):* 373-376.



experience is enhanced when using CAI over conventional teaching approaches for a variety of beginning reading skills. Unfortunately, research and practice on new literacies has seldom focused on younger children (Forzani & Leu, 2012). Marsh (2011) notes that digital tools and the Internet offer digitized speech, ebooks, various apps, video websites, interactive animations, online games, and social networks. All of these respond to young children's natural tendencies to explore and interact with their environments as well as support them when acquiring new concepts, skills, and strategies. Researchers also suggest that reading information books or disciplinary literacy may become easier for young students because online or digital environments often provide increased interactive and social technological supports in an online reading environment (Coiro & Dobler, 2007; Roblyer & Doering, 2013; Zawilinski, 2009). McKenna, Labbo, Kieffer, and Reinking (2006) recommend the use of new technology for a variety of purposes, from crafting multimedia reports to presenting sight-word lessons to first-grade students. New literacies (NLs) present many opportunities for engaging, interactive demonstrations of literacy skills, concepts, and strategies (Fozani & Leu, 2012). Likewise, new literacies offer varied socially mediated opportunities for students to work together through email, blogs, or instant messaging to conduct research and create project reports from the large amount of free materials readily available over the Internet. New literacies also extend the teacher by offering students technologically driven practice in reading skills, concepts, and strategies via CDs, DVDs, and online media and "virtual" teachers. Brueck and Lenhart (2015) provide a conceptual grounding called TPACK for how teachers can integrate their knowledge of content and pedagogy with technology to create highly motivating, seamlessly integrated instruction making optimal use of new literacies (see Figure 1.3).

Later on in this book, we describe a technology integration planning cycle that helps teachers integrate new literacies and digital technologies into classroom literacy instruction to meet the expectations of the English Language Arts CCSS.

Pillar Seven: Family and Community Connections

It has been said that 80 percent of student learning occurs outside of school. For example, children who have been read to a great deal before entering kindergarten have a much stronger language base and are far more likely to succeed in reading (Snow et al., 1998). Parents and many others in the child's extended family and community are often interested in helping children develop as readers—*if* they know what to do. Thus, teachers can add great power to a child's literacy learning program by educating the adults in their lives in proven reading-development strategies that make sense in our busy world.

THE HOME–SCHOOL CONNECTION Reading teachers today no longer have the luxury of viewing home involvement as merely a good or even an important idea. There is now substantial agreement among literacy researchers and master teachers that parents can make powerful contributions to their children's success in early literacy learning (Barone, 2011; Dickinson & Tabors, 2001; Doyle & Zhang, 2011; Paratore, 2007). Therefore, teachers who can reach out to parents and homes are vital to young children's progress in learning to read successfully. For example, in a large-scale federally funded study of 14 schools in Virginia, Minnesota, Colorado, and California, teachers, administrators, and parents were interviewed, surveyed, and observed to determine the characteristics of effective schools and classroom teachers. As described in *Beating the Odds in Teaching All Children to Read* (Taylor, Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 1999), a key school-level factor clearly associated with the most effective schools in teaching children at risk to read was outreach to homes and parents. According to the researchers,

> "the four effective schools made a more concerted effort to reach out to parents than the other schools. Efforts included conducting focus groups, written or phone surveys, and having an active site council on which parents served" (p. 2).

These findings were echoed in research from a major urban school district in a high-poverty environment. In *Perspectives on Rescuing Urban Literacy Education*, Cooter (2004) described results of a privately funded "failure analysis" to learn what teachers must know to be able to reverse the 76 percent reading failure rate for the district's third-graders. Five "pillars," or instructional supports, the report concluded, were necessary to ensure reading success—one of which was family and community involvement. "Most parents help their children at home [with reading] if they know what to do; thus, teachers must be supported in their efforts to educate families in ways they can help their children succeed in the home" (p. 22).

In a more recent study, Steiner (2014) taught parents practices for building strong literacy-related home–school partnerships. Parents who participated used significantly more effective storybook reading strategies from pre- to posttesting of the parent training. Children of these parents performed significantly better on a concepts-of-print test.

FAMILY LITERACY PROGRAMS There are many examples of excellent family literacy programs that may serve as models for teachers as they make plans to reach out to families. For example, Project FLAME (Family Literacy Aprendiendo, Mejorando, Educando), a program designed for parents and children learning English, is one example of a nationally recognized family literacy program (Rodriquez-Brown, Fen Li, & Albom, 1999; Rodriquez-Brown & Meehan, 1998; Shanahan, Mulhern, & Rodriquez-Brown, 1995). Other examples include the Intergenerational Literacy Project (ILP) (Paratore, 2003) and Project EASE (Jordan, Snow, & Porche, 2000), in which parents significantly influenced their children's early literacy development prior to school. When these children entered school, they substantially benefited from their early reading progress.

Effective teachers of reading focus on building strong, sturdy, and easily traversed bridges between the classroom and the homes of the children they serve in order to help every child have a successful experience in learning to read and write (Barone, 2011).

Summary

- Master teachers are made, not born! To become a master teacher is the work of a lifetime of learning, practicing, and sustained effort. Through a combination of personal effort and professional support, teachers can improve their knowledge, skill, and understanding of how to successfully teach every child to read.
- Historical, social, and political influences have shaped current practices of elementary classroom reading instruction. From the blue-ribbon report of *A Nation at Risk* in the 1980s to today's efforts to implement a set of Common Core State Standards, political, corporate, economic, and social forces have combined to shape and reshape the way in which we teach and think about reading instruction in schools.
- Common Core State Standards are the most recent response to economic and social pressures demanding that schools work to increase students' competitiveness in reading and literacy on an international scale.
- The definition of reading has evolved to include a broader category of literacies that embrace oral language, traditional print, and digital, visual, social, and cultural aspects of human communication.
- Teachers are important to student outcomes in reading instruction. When children enter school, teachers exert the greatest single influence on whether a child will achieve grade-level reading performance. Investing in teachers' knowledge and skill is one of the best investments society can make in its own economic and social future.
- The seven pillars of effective reading instruction include (1) teacher knowledge, (2) classroom assessment, (3) evidence-based teaching practices, (4) response to intervention, (5) motivation and engagement, (6) technology and new literacies, and (7) family and community connections.

Field and Classroom Applications

- Read *Using Research and Reason in Education: How Teachers Can Use Scientifically Based Research to Make Curricular and Instructional Decisions* (Stanovich & Stanovich, 2003). Working with other members of a small group, list 10 reasons why teachers should rely on the results of research evidence to inform their

instructional and curricular choices. Share your group's list with the rest of the class. Collapse all the small-group charts into a single class chart.

- Read the *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching Children to Read* (NICHD, 2000). Make a list of the five essentials of effective reading instruction. Next, read more closely to determine three instructional practices, skills, strategies, or concepts associated with each of the five essentials of reading for providing evidence-based reading instruction.
- Read the Executive Summary of the *Developing Early Literacy* report from the National Early Literacy Panel (2008). In small groups, prepare a brochure or pamphlet that explains to parents, teachers, and school administrators the best early predictors for success in learning to read. Share your pamphlet with your class or with parents at your first open house.
- Read the Executive Summary of the Annie E. Casey Foundation report *Early Warning!* (2010), which is available at The Children's Reading Foundation under the Research banner link. Make a list with a partner of at least two reasons why learning to read successfully when children are young is so critical.

Recommended Resources

Armbruster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2006). *Developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on language-minority children and youth*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Brooks, D. (2014). When the circus descends (April 17). New York, NY: *New York Times*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2014/04/18/opinion/brooks-when-the-circus-descends.html

Cervetti, G. N., & Hiebert, E. H. (2015). The sixth pillar of reading instruction: Knowledge development. *The Reading Teacher, 68(7)*: 548–551.

Konza, D. (2014). Teaching reading: Why the "Fab Five" should be the "Big Six." *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 39(12)*: 153–169.

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National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2000). *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching children to read*. Washington, DC: Author.

Roskos, K., & Neuman, S. B. (2011). The classroom environment. *The Reading Teacher, 64*(2), 110–114.

Shanahan, T. (2003). Research-based reading instruction: Myths about the National Reading Panel Report. *The Reading Teacher, 56*(7), 646–654.

Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

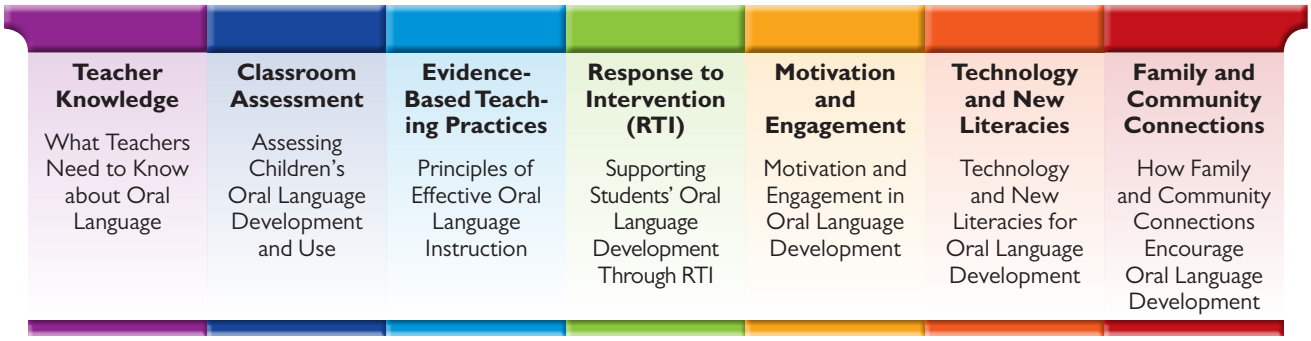
Snow, C. E., Griffin, P., & Burns, M. S. (2005). *Knowledge to support the teaching of reading: Preparing teachers for a changing world*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Stanovich, P. J., & Stanovich, K. E. (2003). *Using research and reason in education: How teachers can use scientifically based research to make curricular and instructional decisions*. Washington, DC: National Institute for Literacy.

U.S. Department of Education. (2003). *Identifying and implementing educational practices supported by rigorous evidence: A user-friendly guide*. Washington, DC: Coalition for Evidence-Based Policy.

Chapter 2

Developing Children's Oral Language to Support Literacy Instruction



Learning Outcomes

After studying this chapter, teacher education candidates will be able to:

2.1 Examine how language (oral and written) supports the acquisition of literacy skill.

2.2 Assess children's oral language development using a variety of assessment tools.

2.3 Implement evidence-based oral language instructional strategies to promote literacy acquisition.

2.4 Apply strategies to support children as oral language learners within a response to intervention (RTI) model.

2.5 Employ the joint productive activity strategy to motivate and engage children as oral language learners.

2.6 Integrate current technologies and new literacies into instruction to support oral language learners in the classroom.

2.7 Plan several strategies to involve families and community members in children's oral language development.

A Trip to the Zoo . . . and a *Hairy* Question: A Vignette

It is a beautiful spring morning in Mr. Cantwell's kindergarten class at Lone Peak Elementary School. Earlier in the week, Mr. Cantwell, a second-year teacher, had taken the children on a field trip to a local petting zoo to learn about baby animals. Continuing the unit on life cycles of young animals, including birds, insects, fish, and mammals, this morning Mr. Cantwell is reading books aloud and talking with the children about mammals. After reading and discussing several baby mammal books, the class makes a language experience chart based on what they learned at the zoo. As the children dictate their ideas aloud, Mr. Cantwell writes the comments on the chart using a different colored marker to identify each child's contribution.

When ready to contribute, children make the gesture Mr. Cantwell established on the first day of school signaling a request to speak—a hand placed over the mouth, meaning, in his words, "O Great One, I have something to say." (None of this waving hands in the air stuff!) Mr. Cantwell calls on a bright-eyed little boy named Jamal, who blurts out, "Mammals are born alive."

"That's very good," says Mr. Cantwell, as he writes the words *born alive* on the chart.

"Austin, what do you know about mammals?"

Austin thoughtfully replies, "Mammals don't hatch from eggs like birds and bugs."

"Way to go. Excellent thinking!" Mr. Cantwell adds *not hatched from eggs* to the chart.

Amalia is nearly ready to explode when called on. "Mammal moms feed their babies milk."

"Wow! You children are so smart! Amalia, you are absolutely right. Good job!" Mr. Cantwell adds *milk* to the language experience chart.

Rosa chimes in next: "Mammals have hair!" Mr. Cantwell writes *hair* on the chart.

Braxton, when recognized, removes his hand from his mouth and asks, "Mr. Cantwell, are boys mammals, too?"

Pointing to key words on the chart as he speaks, Mr. Cantwell responds, "Why, yes, they are, Braxton. Think about it. Boys are born alive; they don't hatch from eggs like birds and bugs, their mothers feed them milk when they are little, and they have hair. Why do you ask if boys are mammals, Braxton?"

"Well," replies Braxton, "I was just wondering because my grandpa doesn't have any hair. He's bald!"

Mr. Cantwell smiles and patiently explains that Braxton's grandpa is a mammal because when he was younger he used to have hair and that when boys become men they sometimes lose the hair on their heads. Mr. Cantwell notices a few of the children leaning forward to check their teacher for early signs of this mysterious hair loss some men experience.

Teacher Knowledge

What Teachers Need to Know About Oral Language

ILA Standards for Reading Professionals:

Standard 1: Foundational Knowledge: Candidates understand the theoretical and evidence-based foundations of reading and writing processes and instruction. Elements 1.1, 1.2, 1.3

Standard 6: Professional Learning and Leadership: Candidates recognize the importance of, demonstrate, and facilitate professional learning and leadership as a career-long effort and responsibility. Element 6.2