TENTH EDITION

Creating Literacy Instruction for All Students

Thomas G. Gunning

Tenth Edition

Creating Literacy Instruction

For All Students

Thomas G. Gunning
Southern Connecticut State University, Emeritus

Pearson

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To my wife, Joan, the love of my life

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About the Author

Thomas G. Gunning

Has taught courses in methods of teaching reading and writing for more than 20 years and was director of the Reading Clinic at Southern Connecticut State University. Before that, as a secondary English teacher, a reading specialist, and an elementary school reading consultant, he worked extensively with achieving and struggling readers and writers. Dr. Gunning is currently working on programs to help struggling readers learn foundational skills and build their overall reading ability.

Over the years, Dr. Gunning's research has explored reading interests, informal reading inventories, decoding strategies, readability, higher-level literacy skills, and response to intervention. As a result of this research, he has created a number of informal assessments and programs for developing decoding and comprehension skills, including an intervention program for students experiencing difficulty learning decoding skills, *Word Building: A Response to Intervention Program* (Galvin Publishing); a program designed to develop students' comprehension, *Reading Comprehension Boosters: 100 Lessons for Building Higher-Level Literacy* (Grades 3–5) (Jossey-Bass); and a program designed to foster the use of formative assessment, *Reading Success for All Students: Using Formative Assessment to Guide Instruction and Intervention* (Grades K–8) (Jossey-Bass).

Dr. Gunning's books with Pearson Education include:

- *Assessing and Correcting Reading and Writing Difficulties*, *Sixth Edition*, ©2018, ISBN: 978013451662-2
- *Creating Literacy Instruction for All Students in Grades 4–8*, *Third Edition*, ©2012, ISBN: 9780132317443
- *Creating Literacy Instruction for All Children in Grades Pre-K to 4*, *Second Edition*, ©2012
- *Building Literacy in Secondary Content Area Classrooms*, ©2012, ISBN: 9780205580811
- *Developing Higher-Level Literacy in All Students: Building Reading, Reasoning, and Responding*, ©2008, ISBN: 9780205522200
- *Closing the Literacy Gap*, ©2006, ISBN: 9780205456260

For more information about any of these books, please visit www.pearsonhighered.com.

Preface

Creating Literacy Instruction for All Students will not tell you how to teach reading and writing. Providing literacy instruction is in large measure a matter of making choices: Should you use basal reader anthologies or children's books or both? Should you teach children to read words by patterns or to sound out words letter by letter, or both? Should you have three reading groups or four in your class, or no groups? There are no right answers to these questions. The answers depend on your personal philosophy, your interpretation of the research, the level at which you are teaching, the diversity of the students you are teaching, community preferences, and the nature of your school's or school district's reading program.

What this book will do is help you discover approaches and techniques that fit your teaching style and your teaching situation. Its aim is to present as fairly, completely, and clearly as possible the major approaches and techniques shown by research and practice to be successful. This book also presents the theories and research behind the methods, so you will be free to choose, adapt, and/or construct approaches and techniques that best fit your style and teaching situation. You will be creating literacy instruction.

Although the text emphasizes approaches and techniques, methods are only part of the equation. Reading is not just a process; it is also very much a content area. What students read does matter, and, therefore, I have provided recommendations for specific children's books and other reading materials. The basic premise of this book is that the best reading programs result through a combination of effective techniques and plenty of worthwhile reading material.

Because children differ greatly in their backgrounds, needs, and interests, the book offers a variety of suggestions about techniques and types of reading materials. The intent is to provide you with sufficient background knowledge of teaching methods, children's books, and other reading materials to enable you to create effective instruction for all children.

This book also recognizes that reading is part of a larger language process; therefore, considerable attention is paid to writing and the other language arts, especially as these relate to reading instruction. Whether reading or writing is being addressed, the emphasis is on making the students the center of instruction. For instance, I recommend activities that allow students to choose writing topics and reading materials. Approaches that foster a personal response to reading along with a careful analysis of text are also advocated. Just as you are encouraged by this text to create your own reading instruction, students must be encouraged to create their own literacy.

Changes to the Tenth Edition

During the time that has elapsed since the publication of the ninth edition of this book, it has become clear that advances in technology have accelerated and that technology is playing an increased role in students' lives. It is also clear that technology has much to offer in both literacy assessment and instruction. Throughout this revised text, possible uses of technology have been highlighted, with an emphasis on resources that are of high quality but of low or no cost. Also emphasized in this revision is a do-whatever-it-takes attitude. Several research studies, which are explored in this revision, offer convincing proof that almost all students can be brought up to grade level or close to it if they are provided with the instruction and practice that is required.

One key is deliberate practice in the form of lots of reading on the students' levels but moving up as the students gain in skills.

As with previous revisions, the tenth edition also contains updated information and research as well as the additions and revisions listed below.

Chapter 1: The Nature of Literacy

- Expanded information on literacy theories.
- Discussion of critical literacy
- Update of performance of students on national and international tests
- Clarification of the meaning of NAEP designations
- Discussion of Every Student Succeeds Act
- Discussion of differentiating instruction
- Added information on developing self-efficacy and a growth mindset
- Discussion of collective teacher efficacy, a top factor in effective programs
- Discussion of success criteria

Chapter 2: Teaching All Students

- Expanded discussion of reading disabilities
- Discussion of dyslexia
- Additional information for working with students who have ADHD
- Additional information for working with students on the autism spectrum
- Explanation of need to build academic identity
- Comparison of RTI and MTSS
- Example of the importance of having teachers see the impact of their teaching

Chapter 3: Assessing for Learning

Discussion of the impact of the Every Student Succeeds Act, including assessment requirements

- Expanded explanation of use of technology in assessment
- Discussion of formats for traditional and new assessment items
- Fuller discussion of reliability
- Fuller discussion of measuring growth
- Fuller discussion of computer adaptive tests
- Discussion of success criteria
- Fuller discussion of student self-assessment
- Explanation of steps for implementing assessing for learning

Chapter 4: Fostering Emergent/Early Literacy

- Expanded discussion of concept of word and voice-to-print match
- Expanded discussion of parents' role in literacy development
- Discussion of the power of invented spelling
- Expanded discussion on teaching letter names
- Expanded coverage on phonological awareness

- Fuller discussion of literacy instruction in pre-K and K
- Discussion of why today's first graders are better prepared for literacy instruction

Chapter 5: Teaching Phonics and Syllabic Analysis

- Added practice activities
- Added suggestions for using technology
- Discussion of sound and visual blending
- Discussion of single-sound and successive blending
- Explanation of split digraphs as an alternative way of presenting final-*e* patterns
- Expansion of major word patterns
- Expanded information on assessing phonics knowledge

Chapter 6: High-Frequency Words, Fluency, and Extended Reading

- Suggestions for assessing the ability to read high-frequency words
- Expanded discussion of oral vs. silent reading

Chapter 7: Building Vocabulary

- Added information on word tiers
- Expanded suggestions for teaching new words
- Discussion of storytelling as an approach to developing vocabulary
- Explanation of an extended introduction for presenting new vocabulary words
- Added information on teaching morphemic analysis
- Expanded discussion of electronic dictionaries
- Description of a variety of vocabulary programs
- Expanded information on assessing vocabulary
- Suggestions for aiding students whose vocabularies are underdeveloped

Chapter 8: Comprehension: Theory and Strategies

- Expanded explanation of mental model theory of comprehension
- Explanation of techniques for integrating and synthesizing text
- Expanded discussion of role of interest in comprehension
- Added information on modeling strategies
- Suggestions for more thoroughly teaching students how to support responses
- Expanded discussion on visualizing
- Expanded discussion of embodied comprehension, which involves carrying out actions specified by the text in order to understand the text

Chapter 9: Comprehension: Text Structures and Teaching Procedures

- Added discussions of using text structure to aid comprehension
- Added suggestions for using questions to foster deeper understanding
- Expanded discussion of the steps in a guided reading lesson

- Discussion of the importance of a text walk for struggling readers
- Discussion of the importance of providing adequate pre-reading preparation
- Explanation of guided close reading of informational text
- Expanded coverage of critical (evaluative) reading
- Discussion of reflective reading

Chapter 10: Reading and Writing in the Content Areas and Study Skills

- Contrasting content-area with disciplinary literacy
- Discussion of shallow reading and ways to overcome it
- Expanded explanation of using writing to support comprehension
- Explanation of concept sorts
- Discussion of infographics
- Increased coverage of digital texts
- Discussion of the use of scaffolding to help student reads difficult texts
- Suggestions for using Simple English Wikipedia, digital aids, and differentiated texts
- Discussion of open educational resources
- Listing of high-quality informational websites
- Added information about using primary sources
- Expanded discussion of using content to teach English learners
- Added information about the importance of retrieval as a study skill
- Explanation of steps for preparing students for required assessments who are reading significantly below level

Chapter 11: Reading Literature

- Expanded coverage of close reading
- Discussion of text-based interpretations of literature
- Expanded discussion of a close reading lesson
- Suggestions for using annotations
- Expanded discussion of reader's theater

Chapter 12: Approaches to Teaching Reading

- Discussion of digital programs, blended learning, and adaptive programs
- Expanded discussion of thematic teaching
- Discussion of use of reader's notebook
- Extended discussion of use of leveled readers
- Increased coverage of guided reading
- Expanded coverage of project learning
- Suggestions for creating a literacy program

Chapter 13: Writing and Reading

- Emphasizing the importance of building foundational writing skills
- Discussion of a lesson for developing a strategy for adding details

- Expanded discussion of techniques and procedures for teaching revision skills
- Listing of sources that publish children's writing
- Expanded discussion for holding effective writing conferences
- Suggestions for assembling mentor texts
- Expanded discussion of the role of author's chair
- Expanded discussion of teaching English learners to write
- Discussion of Self-regulated Strategy Development, a technique that is especially effective with struggling writers
- Teaching students how to write annotations
- Explanation of a guide for writing an argument piece
- Expanded discussion on the assessment of writing

Chapter 14: Creating and Managing a Literacy Program

- Expanded discussion of Universal Design For Learning (UDL) guidelines
- Discussion of teacher-created curriculum and resources
- Discussion of online curriculum resources
- Expanded discussion of working with parents
- Expanded discussion of using Internet resources both for instruction and professional development
- Expanded discussion of Professional Learning Communities

Organization of the Text

The text's organization has been designed to reflect the order of the growth of literacy. Chapter 1 stresses the construction of a philosophy of teaching reading and writing, including the concepts of close reading and reader response. Chapter 2 stresses the need to prepare every child to be college and career ready and discusses the diversity of students in today's schools and some special challenges in bringing all students to full literacy. Chapter 3 presents techniques for evaluating individuals and programs so that assessment becomes an integral part of instruction. Chapters 4 and 5 discuss emergent literacy and basic decoding strategies, including phonics and syllabic analysis. Chapter 6 explores high-frequency words, fluency, and the role of extended reading in developing automatic word recognition and fluency. Chapter 7 presents advanced word-recognition skills and strategies: morphemic analysis, dictionary skills, and techniques for building vocabulary. Chapters 8 through 10 are devoted to comprehension: Chapter 8 emphasizes comprehension strategies that students might use, including those needed to read complex text; Chapter 9 focuses on text structures and teaching procedures; Chapter 10 covers the application of comprehension skills in the content areas and through studying. Chapter 11 takes a step beyond comprehension by focusing on responding to literature.

Chapters 4 through 11, which emphasize essential reading strategies, constitute the core of the book. Chapters 12 through 14 provide information on creating a well-rounded literacy program. Chapter 12 describes approaches to teaching reading. Chapter 13 explains the process approach to writing narrative, informational, and persuasive text and discusses how reading and writing are related. Chapter 14 pulls all the topics together in a discussion of principles for organizing and implementing a literacy program. Also included in this final chapter are a section on intervention

programs, a section on technology and its place in a program of literacy instruction, and a section on professional development.

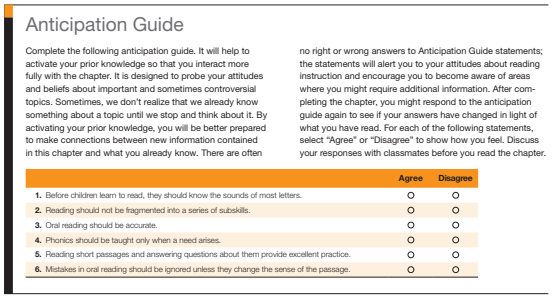
This text, designed to be practical, offers detailed explanations and numerous examples of applications for every major technique or strategy. Many suggestions for practice activities and reading materials are also included. I hope that this book will furnish an in-depth knowledge of literacy methods and materials so that the teachers and future teachers who use it will be able to construct lively, effective reading and writing instruction for all the students they teach.

* Please note that these enhancements are available only through the Pearson MyLab w/eText platform. Other third-party eTexts (i.e., Vitalsource, Kindle) might not contain these enhancements.

Features of this Text

Throughout the tenth edition of *Creating Literacy Instruction for All Students,* special pedagogical features draw the reader's attention to issues of recurring importance in literacy instruction and foster retention and deeper understanding of key concepts.

Opening Learning Aids include **Anticipation Guides**, which are statements designed to probe students' attitudes and beliefs about key concepts and practices that will be explored in the upcoming chapter. **Using What You Know** is an overview of the chapter and is designed to activate students' background knowledge about the chapter content.

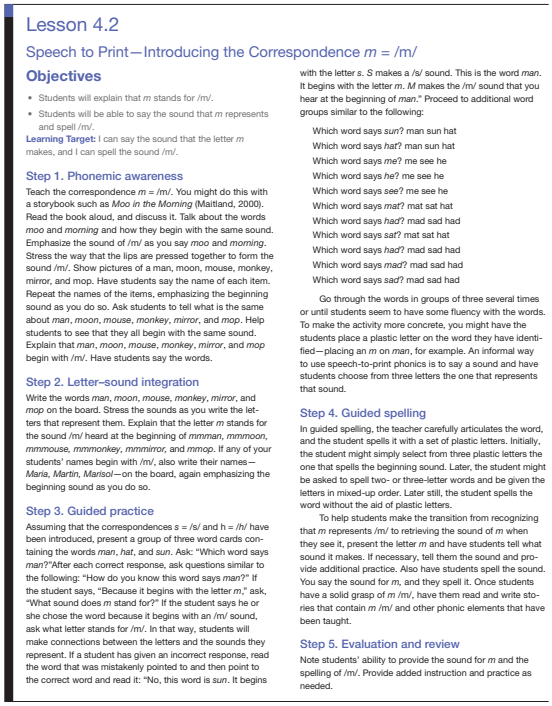


Anticipation Guide

Complete the following anticipation guide. It will help to activate your prior knowledge so that you interact more fully with the chapter. It is designed to probe your attitudes and beliefs about important and sometimes controversial topics. Sometimes, we don't realize that we already know something about a topic until we stop and think about it. By activating your prior knowledge, you will be better prepared to make connections between new information contained in this chapter and what you already know. There are often no right or wrong answers to Anticipation Guide statements; the statements will alert you to your attitudes about reading instruction and encourage you to become aware of areas where you might require additional information. After completing the chapter, you might respond to the anticipation guide again to see if your answers have changed in light of what you have read. For each of the following statements, select "Agree" or "Disagree" to show how you feel. Discuss your responses with classmates before you read the chapter.

	Agree	Disagree
1. Before children learn to read, they should know the sounds of most letters.	O	O
2. Reading should not be fragmented into a series of subskills.	O	O
3. Oral reading should be accurate.	O	O
4. Phonics should be taught only when a need arises.	O	O
5. Reading short passages and answering questions about them provide excellent practice.	O	O
6. Mistakes in oral reading should be ignored unless they change the sense of the passage.	O	O

USING WHAT YOU KNOW This chapter provides a general introduction to literacy instruction in preschool and grades K–8. Before reading the chapter, examine your personal knowledge of the topic so that you will be better prepared to interact with the information. What do you think reading is? What do you do when you read? What do you think the reader's role is? Is it simply to receive the author's message, or should it include some personal input? How about writing? What processes do you use when you write? How would you go about teaching reading and writing to today's students? What do you think the basic principles of a literacy program should be? What elements have worked especially well in programs with which you are familiar?



Lesson 4.2

Speech to Print—Introducing the Correspondence *m* = /m/

Objectives

- Students will explain that *m* stands for /m/.
- Students will be able to say the sound that *m* represents and spell /m/.

Learning Target: I can say the sound that the letter *m* makes, and I can spell the sound /m/.

Step 1. Phonemic awareness

Teach the correspondence *m* = /m/. You might do this with a storybook such as *Moo in the Morning* (Maitland, 2000). Read the book aloud, and discuss it. Talk about the words *moo* and *morning* and how they begin with the same sound. Emphasize the sound of /m/ as you say *moo* and *morning*. Stress the way that the lips are pressed together to form the sound /m/. Show pictures of a man, moon, mouse, monkey, mirror, and mop. Have students say the name of each item. Repeat the names of the items, emphasizing the beginning sound as you do so. Ask students to tell what is the same about *man*, *moon*, *mouse*, *monkey*, *mirror*, and *mop*. Help students to see that they all begin with the same sound. Explain that *man*, *moon*, *mouse*, *monkey*, *mirror*, and *mop* begin with /m/. Have students say the words.

Step 2. Letter–sound integration

Write the words *man*, *moon*, *mouse*, *monkey*, *mirror*, and *mop* on the board. Stress the sounds as you write the letters that represent them. Explain that the letter *m* stands for the sound /m/ heard at the beginning of *mmman*, *mmmoon*, *mmmouse*, *mmmonkey*, *mmmirror*, and *mmop*. If any of your students' names begin with /m/, also write their names—*Maria, Martin, Marisol*—on the board, again emphasizing the beginning sound as you do so.

Step 3. Guided practice

Assuming that the correspondences *s* = /s/ and h = /h/ have been introduced, present a group of three word cards containing the words *man*, *hat*, and *sun*. Ask: "Which word says *man*?"After each correct response, ask questions similar to the following: "How do you know this word says *man*?" If the student says, "Because it begins with the letter *m*," ask, "What sound does *m* stand for?" If the student says he or she chose the word because it begins with an /m/ sound, ask what letter stands for /m/. In that way, students will make connections between the letters and the sounds they represent. If a student has given an incorrect response, read the word that was mistakenly pointed to and then point to the correct word and read it: "No, this word is *sun*. It begins with the letter *s*. *S* makes a /s/ sound. This is the word *man*. It begins with the letter *m*. *M* makes the /m/ sound that you hear at the beginning of *man*." Proceed to additional word groups similar to the following:

Which word says *sun*? man sun hat
Which word says *hat*? man sun hat
Which word says *me*? me see he
Which word says *he*? me see he
Which word says *see*? me see he
Which word says *mat*? mat sat hat
Which word says *had*? mad sad had
Which word says *sat*? mat sat hat
Which word says *had*? mad sad had
Which word says *mad*? mad sad had
Which word says *sad*? mad sad had

Go through the words in groups of three several times or until students seem to have some fluency with the words. To make the activity more concrete, you might have the students place a plastic letter on the word they have identified—placing an *m* on *man*, for example. An informal way to use speech-to-print phonics is to say a sound and have students choose from three letters the one that represents that sound.

Step 4. Guided spelling

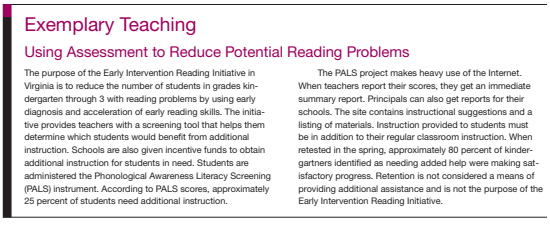
In guided spelling, the teacher carefully articulates the word, and the student spells it with a set of plastic letters. Initially, the student might simply select from three plastic letters the one that spells the beginning sound. Later, the student might be asked to spell two- or three-letter words and be given the letters in mixed-up order. Later still, the student spells the word without the aid of plastic letters.

To help students make the transition from recognizing that *m* represents /m/ to retrieving the sound of *m* when they see it, present the letter *m* and have students tell what sound it makes. If necessary, tell them the sound and provide additional practice. Also have students spell the sound. You say the sound for *m*, and they spell it. Once students have a solid grasp of *m* /m/, have them read and write stories that contain *m* /m/ and other phonic elements that have been taught.

Step 5. Evaluation and review

Note students' ability to provide the sound for *m* and the spelling of /m/. Provide added instruction and practice as needed.

Model Lessons cover nearly every area of literacy instruction.



Exemplary Teaching

Using Assessment to Reduce Potential Reading Problems

The purpose of the Early Intervention Reading Initiative in Virginia is to reduce the number of students in grades kindergarten through 3 with reading problems by using early diagnosis and acceleration of early reading skills. The initiative provides teachers with a screening tool that helps them determine which students would benefit from additional instruction. Schools are also given incentive funds to obtain additional instruction for students in need. Students are administered the Phonological Awareness Literacy Screening (PALS) instrument. According to PALS scores, approximately 25 percent of students need additional instruction.

The PALS project makes heavy use of the Internet. When teachers report their scores, they get an immediate summary report. Principals can also get reports for their schools. The site contains instructional suggestions and a listing of materials. Instruction provided to students must be in addition to their regular classroom instruction. When retested in the spring, approximately 80 percent of kindergartners identified as needing added help were making satisfactory progress. Retention is not considered a means of providing additional assistance and is not the purpose of the Early Intervention Reading Initiative.

Marginal annotations provide the reader with interesting, practical, and handy guidance for planning and adapting instruction. These notes are titled Adapting Instruction for Struggling Readers and Writers, Adapting Instruction for English Language Learners, Using Technology, Assessing for Learning, CCSS (marking places in the text where a Common Core State Standard is being addressed), and FYI (providing information on a variety of topics).

Exemplary Teaching features help make the descriptions of teaching techniques come alive by offering examples of good teaching practices. All are true-life accounts; many were drawn from the memoirs of gifted teachers, and others were garnered from newspaper reports or my own observations.

Using Technology

- The website of the New Literacies Research Team offers videos and articles exploring the new literacies.
- The Joan Ganz Cooney Center website provides information on using media to advance learning.

Adapting Instruction for Struggling Readers and Writers

Teachers are taking increased responsibility for helping struggling readers and writers. Suggestions for working with struggling readers and writers are made throughout this text.

Adapting Instruction for English Language Learners

Academic language should be emphasized from the beginning of ELs' schooling. Academic English varies by subject matter and increases as grade levels increase (Franz, Starr, & Bailey, 2015).

CCSS

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RF.K.1: Demonstrate understanding of the organization and basic features of print.

Assessing for Learning

Assessments for state standards include summative, benchmark/interim, and formative assessments.

FYI

The term *new literacies* is used by some groups to describe changes in literacy practices as well as the addition of new tools. The focus is on how these new tools have led to more collaboration and participation (Tracey & Morrow, 2017).

Case Study

Good Decoding, Poor Comprehending

Although he has excellent decoding skills and reads orally with fluency and expression, Mark has problems understanding what he reads. He also has difficulty answering questions about selections that have been read to him. On the reading inventory, Mark was able to read the 6th-grade word list with no difficulty. He was also able to read the words on the 6th-grade oral passage with no errors. However, his comprehension was below 50 percent on the 6th-grade passage and also on the 4th- and 5th-grade passages. Puzzled by Mark's performance, the reading consultant analyzed Mark's responses (Dewitz & Dewitz, 2003). The consultant wanted to get some insight into Mark's thinking processes. When erroneous responses were analyzed, patterns appeared. Mark could answer questions that required comprehending only a single sentence. However, he had difficulty with questions that required linking ideas across sentences or passages. Putting ideas together posed problems for him. Mark could pick up information from one segment but couldn't integrate that with information from another segment.

Mark also overrelied on background knowledge. He made up answers. This happened when he was unable to recall a fact or put pieces of information together. Mark also had some minor difficulty with complex syntactical structures and vocabulary. Based on an analysis of Mark's responses, the consultant created a program for Mark and other students who had similar difficulties. After instruction, Mark was able to comprehend 6th-grade material. He was no longer overrelying on background knowledge, and he was connecting and integrating ideas.

Case Studies offer perspectives on teachers at work improving their programs.

Student Strategies

Applying the Variability (Try Another Sound) Strategy to Consonant Correspondences

1. Try the main pronunciation—the one the letter usually stands for.
2. If the main pronunciation gives a word that is not a real one or does not make sense in the sentence, try the other pronunciation that the letter usually stands for.
3. If you still get a word that is not a real word or does not make sense in the sentence, ask for help.

Display a chart showing consonant correspondences as in Figure 5.3. A student feeling puzzled when pronouncing *cider* as "kider" can look at the chart and note that *c* has two pronunciations: /k/ and /s/. Because the /k/ pronunciation did not produce a word that made sense, the child tries the /s/ pronunciation.

Student Strategies outline step-by-step strategies to help students become independent learners.

Reinforcement Activities

Alphabet Knowledge

- Have children create their own alphabet books.
- Help children create name cards. Explain that names begin with uppercase letters but that the other letters in a name are lowercase.
- Make a big book of the alphabet song, and point to the letters and words as children sing along.
- If children are using classroom computers or tablets, teach the letters of the alphabet as you teach them keyboarding skills.
- Encourage students to write as best they can. This will foster learning of the alphabet as they move from using pictures and letterlike forms to actual letters to express themselves.
- As you write messages, announcements, or stories on the board, spell out the words so that students will hear the names of the letters in a very natural way.
- Sing songs, such as "Bingo," that spell out words or use letters as part of their lyrics.
- Read books such as *Chicka Boom* (Martin & Archambault, 1989), in which letters play a prominent role.
- Most important, provide an environment in which children are surrounded by print. Encourage students to engage in reading and writing activities. These might include, using a combination of drawings and letterlike figures to compose a story, creating some sort of list, using invented spelling to write a letter to a friend, exploring a computer keyboard, or completing an app that reinforces letter knowledge. Interaction with print leads to knowledge of print. The ability to form letters improves without direct instruction (Hildreth, 1936). However, systematic instruction should complement the provision of opportunities to learn. Learning the alphabet is too important to be left to chance.

Reinforcement Activities provide practice and application, particularly in the area of reading and writing for real purposes.

Student Reading Lists are provided in all instructional chapters as a resource for titles that reinforce the particular literacy skills being discussed

Student Reading List

Alphabet Books

Aylesworth, J. (1991). *Old black fly.* New York: Holt. Rhyming text follows a mischievous black fly through the alphabet as he has a very busy day.

Ehlert, L. (1989). *Eating the alphabet.* New York: Harcourt. Drawings of foods beginning with the letter being presented are labeled with their names in both upper- and lowercase letters.

Hoban, T. (1982). *A, B, see!* New York: Greenwillow. Uppercase letters are accompanied by objects in silhouette that begin with the letter shown.

Jocelyn, M. (2006). *ABC* × 3. Plattsburgh, NY: Tundra Books. Presents letters and illustrative words in English, Spanish, and French. The letter *p* is accompanied by *pear, pera,* and *poire*. Some words and illustrations will need explaining.

Martin, D. (2010). *David Martin's ABC: Z is for zebra.* North Vancouver, BC, Canada: DJC Kids Media. Clever drawings reinforce the shapes of letters. Each letter is accompanied by a humorous illustration, such as an ant crawling over the letter *A*.

Musgrove, M. (1976). *Ashanti to Zulu.* New York: Dial. This Caldecott winner gives information about African tribes as it presents the alphabet.

Onyefulu, I. (1993). *A is for Africa.* New York: Dutton. Color photos and a brief paragraph using the target letter show everyday life in Africa.

Scarry, R. (1973). *Richard Scarry's find your ABC.* New York: Random House. Each letter is illustrated with numerous objects and creatures whose names contain the letter.

Smith, R. M. (2008). *An A to Z walk in the park.* Alexandria, VA: Clarence Henry Books. Letters are illustrated with more than 200 animals.

Vamos, S. R. (2018). *Alphabet boats.* Ann Arbor, MI: Sleeping Bear Press. Target letters are found in descriptions of the boats and in the illustrations. See also *Alphabet Trains* and *Alphabet Trucks*.

Wood, A. (2003). *Alphabet mystery.* New York: Blue Sky Press. When the letter *x* is missing, the other 25 letters search for him.

Wood, J. (1993). *Animal parade.* New York: Bradbury. A parade starts with an aardvark, an antelope, and other animals whose names begin with *A* and proceeds through the rest of the letters of the alphabet.

Ziefert, H. (2006). *Me! Me! ABC.* Maplewood, NJ: Blue Apple Books. Dolls make a series of requests.

Each chapter ends with a brief summary and activities designed to extend understanding of key concepts: **Extending and Applying** provides suggestions for practical application. **Professional Reflection** asks readers to reflect on their ability to implement key assessment and instructional practices in the chapter.

Summary

- The United States is the most diverse nation in the world. Nearly half of the 50 million students in the public schools are members of ethnic or racial minorities. Adding to this diversity is the inclusion of students with special needs. In the average classroom, as many as one student in three may be in need of some sort of differentiation or extra attention to reach his or her full literacy potential.
- Students with diverse needs, students raised in poverty, and students who have physical, mental, or cognitive disabilities or who struggle with reading benefit from instruction that develops language, background, and literacy skills and that respects their language and culture. Gifted and talented students need to be given challenging materials and programs.
- English learners do best when taught to read in their first language so that they can use that as a foundation for learning to read in English. The greatest need for ELs is to develop English language skills. All teachers need to adapt instruction so as to build the English language skills of ELs.
- RTI, which can be used as part of a process for identifying students with learning disabilities, is a practical approach in which struggling students are offered increasingly intensive instruction but is also designed to benefit all students. MTSS is a broader approach that places greater emphasis on meeting the academic and behavioral needs of all students.
- It is important for teachers to understand, value, and build on every student's culture and language. Understanding students' diverse cultural approaches to learning and responding can help prevent misunderstandings and enhance learning.

Extending and Applying

1. Interview the special education, Title 1, reading specialist, or literacy coach at the school where you teach or at a nearby elementary or middle school. Find out what kinds of programs the school offers for special education, Title 1, and struggling students. Also find out whether RTI/MTSS is being implemented in the school and, if so, how it is structured. What might be your role in this process?
2. Observe a lesson in which English learners are being taught. Note whether the teacher makes adaptations for the students and, if so, how. In particular, what does the teacher do to make input comprehensible? What is done to encourage output? Does the teacher intentionally present vocabulary and language structures?
3. Observe a classroom in which a special education teacher is offering instruction or assistance according to the inclusion model. What arrangements have the specialist and the classroom teacher made for working together? What are the advantages of this type of arrangement? What are some of the disadvantages?
4. Investigate the culture of a minority group that is represented in a class you are now teaching or observing. Find out information about the group's literature, language, and customs. How might you use this information to plan more effective instruction for the class? Plan a lesson using this information. If possible, teach the lesson and evaluate its effectiveness.
5. What rules or regulations, if any, has your state issued for dyslexia?

Support Materials for Instructors

The following resources are available for instructors to download on www.pearsonhighered.com/educators. 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

The Instructor's Resource Manual and Test Bank feature a series of Learning Outcomes, a Chapter Overview, suggestions for Before, After, and During Reading, a list of suggested Teaching Activities, a Resource Master (a graphic organizer designed to help readers organize information from the chapters) and suggestions for Assessment. The test bank offers more than 200 questions, including multiple choice and essay questions. This supplement has been written completely by the author, Tom Gunning.

PowerPoint Slides

Designed for teachers using the text, the PowerPoint™ Presentation consists of a series of slides that can be shown as is or used to make handouts or overhead transparencies. The presentation highlights key concepts and major topics for each chapter.

TestGen

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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T. G.

Brief Contents

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Student Strategies

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Chapter 1

The Nature of Literacy

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Learning Objectives

After reading this chapter, you will learn and be able to:

- **1.1** Contrast the major theories of literacy learning and language development.
- **1.2** Discuss the current status of literacy and major literacy initiatives.
- **1.3** Explain the role of language and of students' cultures on literacy learning.
- **1.4** Explain the basic principles of teaching reading.
- **1.5** Discuss the qualities of highly effective teachers.

Anticipation Guide

Complete the following anticipation guide. It will help to activate your prior knowledge so that you interact more fully with the chapter. It is designed to probe your attitudes and beliefs about important and sometimes controversial topics. Sometimes, we don't realize that we already know something about a topic until we stop and think about it. By activating your prior knowledge, you will be better prepared to make connections between new information contained in this chapter and what you already know. There are often no right or wrong answers to Anticipation Guide statements; the statements will alert you to your attitudes about reading instruction and encourage you to become aware of areas where you might require additional information. After completing the chapter, you might respond to the anticipation guide again to see if your answers have changed in light of what you have read. For each of the following statements, select "Agree" or "Disagree" to show how you feel. Discuss your responses with classmates before you read the chapter.

	Agree	Disagree
1. Before children learn to read, they should know the sounds of most letters.	○	○
2. Reading should not be fragmented into a series of subskills.	○	○
3. Oral reading should be accurate.	○	○
4. Phonics should be taught only when a need arises.	○	○
5. Reading short passages and answering questions about them provide excellent practice.	○	○
6. Mistakes in oral reading should be ignored unless they change the sense of the passage.	○	○

Using what you Know

This chapter provides a general introduction to literacy instruction in preschool and grades K–8. Before reading the chapter, examine your personal knowledge of the topic so that you will be better prepared to interact with the information. What do you think reading is? What do you do when you read? What do you think the reader's role is? Is it simply to receive the author's message, or should it include some personal input? How about writing? What processes do you use when you write? How would you go about teaching reading and writing to today's students? What do you think the basic principles of a literacy program should be? What elements have worked especially well in programs with which you are familiar?

Major Theories of Literacy Learning and Language Development

"Awake! Awake!" These are the first words I remember reading. But the words were as magical as any that I have read since. Even after all these years, I still have vivid memories of that day long ago in first grade when reading came alive for me, and, indeed, awakened a lifetime of reading and a career as a reading teacher.

Reading is, first and foremost, magical, as those who recall learning to read or who have witnessed their students discover the process will attest. It opens the door to a vast world of information, fulfillment, and enjoyment. After having learned to read, a person is never quite the same.

Although magical, reading is complex. Becoming an effective teacher of reading requires grounding in the theories that underlie reading acquisition and instruction. As Pinnell, a noted literacy researcher and practitioner, states:

> Teaching will miss the mark if it is not based on a coherent theory of learning. The word *theory* simply refers to the set of understandings that a teacher holds and believes about how children learn. Everything teachers do in the classroom proceeds from this set of beliefs and understandings, whether they are conscious of it or not. (2006, p. 78)

The first step, then, in understanding reading requires understanding how children learn and how language develops. A number of theories describe how children learn. They fall into two broad areas: behaviorism and cognitivism.

Behaviorism

Behaviorism stresses observable responses to stimuli. In a behavioral approach, learning consists of the acquisition of new behaviors. Responses that are reinforced increase in frequency. Responses that are not reinforced are extinguished (do not occur again). Behaviors are learned or increased when a person receives reinforcers such as praise, privileges, gold stars, or monetary rewards or simply sees that the responses are correct. A basic principle of behaviorism is that we tend to repeat behaviors that are rewarding and avoid those that are not.

Scripted programs, such as Reading Mastery (McGraw-Hill), Open Court (McGraw-Hill), and Fundations (Wilson Language) take a behavioral approach. For instance, in Reading Mastery, students first learn individual letter sounds and then learn to blend the sounds to form words. The teacher points to a letter and says, "Here is a new sound." The teacher touches the letter and says the sound for the letter. Students are told to say the sound when the teacher touches the letter. Signals are used so that students respond in unison. Then individuals are called on to say the sound. One objective of this procedure is to obtain as many correct responses from each child as possible. Incorrect responses are quickly corrected so that they will be extinguished.

Many of today's digital programs are also based on behavioral principles. Key learnings are presented as a series of subskills. Feedback is provided. Correct responses are reinforced. Incorrect ones are corrected. Reinforcement is provided in the form of positive sounds, verbal praise, points, moving up to higher levels, and, in some programs, prizes.

FYI

Teaching foundational skills, such as phonics and high-frequency words, lend themselves to a behavioral approach. Students are given tasks and materials on their level to maximize success and are provided direct instruction in carefully sequenced letter sounds and other key skills.

FYI

Behavioral approaches are seen in establishing routines and effective classroom management techniques as well as in many aspects of instruction and practice.

Cognitivism

Behavioral approaches to learning, with their emphasis on external forces, dominated from about the 1890s until about the 1950s. Rejecting a strictly external view of learning, cognitive psychologists became interested in the inner workings of the mind. **Cognitivism** is based on the proposition that mental processes exist and can be studied. Reinforcement is seen as being important in learning, not just because it strengthens responses, but also because it is a source of information or feedback (Woolfolk, 2001). Piaget's theories are examples of a cognitive approach to learning.

Piaget's Theories

Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist, stressed stages of cognitive development and the unique nature of children's thinking. As an adherent of **constructivism**, he believed that children construct their own understanding of reality and do not simply reproduce what they see and hear. Children's thinking, according to Piaget, is qualitatively different from adults' thinking and evolves through a series of hierarchical stages. He also believed that children's thinking develops through direct experience with their environment. Through adaptation, or interaction with the environment, the child constructs cognitive structures, or **schemes**, which are ways of making sense of the world. Adaptation includes two complementary processes: **assimilation** and **accommodation**. Through assimilation, the child interprets the world in terms of his or her schemes. Seeing a very small dog, the child calls it "doggie" and assimilates this in his or her dog scheme. Seeing a goat for the first time, the child might relate it to his or her dog scheme and call it "doggie." Later, realizing that there is something different about this creature, the child may accommodate the dog scheme and exclude the goat and all creatures with horns. Thus, the child has refined the dog scheme. To Piaget, direct experience rather than language was the key determiner of cognitive development.

Social Cognitive Views of Learning

According to social cognitive theories, people are an important element in the learning equation. We learn from and with others. L. S. Vygotsky (1962), an adherent of **social constructivism**, stressed the importance of social factors in cognitive development. Although both Piaget and Vygotsky believed that children need to interact with the world around them, Vygotsky theorized that learning, which in his view begets development, results from both direct experience and social interaction. If, in examining minerals, a teacher emphasizes the hardness of the minerals, that is what the students will learn. If another teacher emphasizes the value or usefulness of the minerals, that is what the students will learn. Vygotsky is best known for the concept of the **zone of proximal development (ZPD)**. He distinguished between actual and potential development. Actual development is a measure of the level at which a child is functioning. In a sense, it is a measure of the child's development up to that point. Potential development is a measure of what the child might be capable of achieving. The difference between the two levels is the zone of proximal development. The **zone of proximal development** is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 84). The zone of proximal development is the difference between what a child can do on his or her own and what the child can do with help. This is a widely followed principle in literacy instruction. For instance, in virtually all programs, students are given reading materials in which there is some challenge but not too much.

FYI

Vygotsky neglected the importance of other ways of learning. Children can and do learn through nonverbal imitation and self-discovery (Berk, 1997).

Focusing on the importance of interaction with adults or knowledgeable peers, Vygotsky's theory is that children learn through expert guidance. In time, they internalize the concepts and strategies employed by their mentors and so, ultimately, are able to perform on a higher level. The support and guidance provided by an adult or more capable peer is known as **scaffolding** (Bruner, 1975, 1986). When parents converse with a child acquiring language, they respond at a higher level of language use but at one that is in the child's zone of proximal development. In their responses, they provide scaffolding through contextual support by restating, repeating key words, and/or focusing on meaning rather than form. Support at the beginning levels of language learning is extensive but is gradually decreased as the child progresses.

Ideally, instruction should be pitched somewhat above a child's current level of functioning. Instruction and collaboration with an adult or more capable peers will enable a child to reach a higher level and ultimately function on that level. Instruction and interaction are key elements.

Implications for classroom instruction based on an integration of the theories of Piaget and Vygotsky are listed as follows:

- Provide students with hands-on experiences and opportunities to make discoveries.
- Be aware of and plan for individual differences. Because children have different experiences and come from different backgrounds, they develop at different rates.
- Children learn best when activities are developmentally appropriate. Careful observation of the processes a child uses provides insight into the child's level of development. According to Piaget, the child's current level of development determines what she or he will learn. Teaching needs to be adjusted to the child. According to Vygotsky, teaching should be directed to a child's emerging skills. It should be in the zone of proximal development.
- According to Vygotsky, classrooms should be rich in verbal guidance. Interactions with the teacher and peers foster learning. Modeling of strategies for improving comprehension and using context clues are examples of ways teachers foster social cognitive learning.

Cognitive-Behavioral Approach

Behavioral and cognitive principles have been combined in an approach known as **cognitive-behavioral approach**. Our behavior is affected by the set of rewards and punishments we have experienced in the past and by our beliefs, thoughts, and expectations (Westmont Psychology Department, 2008). Suppose that, based on your past experience of receiving low grades on tests, you believe that you are not very smart and therefore it won't make much difference if you study for a test; so you don't study, and you get a poor grade, thus reinforcing your lack of self-efficacy. A cognitive-behavioral approach helps students change their attributions, so they see that effort is required for success. They also learn to see themselves as competent learners. Cognitive-behavioral classroom management provides techniques for students to gain control of their learning. Students are taught to set goals, establish and follow a plan for reaching each goal, monitor their progress toward reaching that goal, and evaluate whether they have reached it. Along with learning strategies for improving reading and writing, students are taught self-regulation strategies. A student might set as a goal improving comprehension of text content. The student might then use a checklist or self-talk to prompt herself or himself to set a purpose for reading, survey the text, think about what she or he knows about the topic, make predictions, ask questions while reading, and summarize at the end of each section. The student monitors the use of the strategies to see if they are helping and evaluates whether she or he is reaching the goal of improved comprehension of the text. As Meichenbaum and Biemiller (1998) explain, practice usually involves "both physically performing the skill or skills involved in the task and verbally guiding oneself (thinking out loud—demonstrating self-regulation overtly) while carrying out the task" (p. 126), thus combining the cognitive and the behavioral.

Top-Down and Bottom-Up Approaches

Another way of looking at theories of literacy learning is to note where those who apply them fall on a continuum. On one end of this continuum are those who espouse a subskills, or bottom-up, approach; on the other end, there are those who advocate a holistic, or top-down, approach. In between are the interactionists.

Bottom-Uppers In the **bottom-up approach**, children literally start at the bottom and work their way up.

1. First, they learn the names and shapes of the letters of the alphabet.
2. Next, they learn the sounds represented by the letters, beginning with single consonants and gradually moving into more complex elements.
3. Third, as they learn basic letter–sound correspondences, they combine letter sounds into words.

Bottom-up procedures are intended to make learning to read easier by breaking complex tasks into their component skills. Instruction proceeds from the simple to the complex. In essence, there are probably no 100-percent bottom-uppers among reading teachers. Even those who strongly favor phonics recognize the importance of higher-level strategies.

Top-Downers A **top-down approach**, as its name indicates, starts at the top and works downward. Learning to read is seen as being similar to learning language; it is holistic and progresses naturally through immersion. Subskills are not taught because it is felt that they fragment the process and make learning to read more abstract and difficult (Goodman, 1986). One of the most influential models of reading is that proposed by Ken Goodman (1994b). According to Goodman, readers use their background knowledge and knowledge of language to predict and infer the content of print. In Goodman's model, students use three cueing systems: semantic, syntactic, and graphophonic.

Semantic cues derive from past experiences, so students construct meaning by bringing their background of knowledge to a story. Syntactic cues derive from knowledge of how the structure of language works. Graphophonic cues refer to the ability to sound out words or recognize them holistically. Based on their use of these cues, students predict the content of the text, confirm or revise their predictions, and reread if necessary. When reading the sentence "The cat meowed," the reader can use his or her knowledge of the sounds cats make, context clues, and perhaps the initial consonant *m* to reconstruct the word *meowed*. According to Goodman's theory, it is not necessary for the reader to process all the letters of *meowed*. However, to make use of background knowledge, context clues, and initial consonant cues, the reader must consider the whole text. If the word *meowed* were read in isolation, the reader would have to depend more heavily on processing all or most of the letters of the word. As far as comprehension is concerned, the top-down view is that students build their understanding through discussions of high-quality literature or informational texts. There is generally no direct, explicit instruction in comprehension strategies.

Interactionists Most practitioners tend to be more pragmatic than either strict top-downers or dyed-in-the-wool bottom-uppers and borrow practices from both ends of the continuum. These **interactionists** teach skills directly and systematically—especially in the beginning—but they avoid overdoing it, as they do not want to fragment the process. They also provide plenty of opportunities for students to experience the holistic nature of reading and writing by having them read whole books and write for real purposes. As cognitive psychologist M. H. Ashcroft (1994) noted, "Any significant mental task will involve both data-driven (bottom-up) and conceptually driven (top-down) processing" (p. 75).

In an interactive compensatory model, students use top-down processes to compensate for weakness in bottom-up processes or vice versa. For instance, students who have weak decoding skills make heavy use of context to make sense of a passage. On the other hand, when content is unfamiliar, readers get all they can out of the data. They read every word carefully, may reread it several times, and may even read it out loud. Think about how you read a set of directions for completing a complex, unfamiliar activity or a list of new tax regulations.

Where do you fit on the bottom-up, top-down continuum? Go back to the anticipation guide at the beginning of the chapter. Take a look at how you answered the six statements. If you agreed with only the odd-numbered ones, you are a bottom-up advocate. If you agreed with only the even-numbered statements, you are a top-downer. If your answers were mixed, you are probably an interactionist.

Literary Theories

Still another way of looking at reading is from a literary theory point of view. Texts can be read from a variety of perspectives. These differing perspectives are accompanied by differing roles for the reader.

Reader Response Theory In the past, the reader's role was defined as being passive, getting the author's meaning. The model of transmission of information in which the reader was merely a recipient was replaced by transactional theory, a two-way process involving a reader and a text. In her study of how students read a poem, Rosenblatt (1978) noted that each reader was active during the **transaction** between reader and text:

> He was not a blank tape registering a ready-made message. He was actively involved in building up a poem for himself out of his responses to text . . . . The reader was not only paying attention to what the words pointed to in the external world, to their referents; he was also paying attention to the images, feelings, attitudes, associations, and ideas that the words and their referents evoked in him. (p. 10)

The type of reading, of course, has an effect on the transaction. The reader can take an efferent or an aesthetic **stance**. When reading a set of directions, a science text, or a math problem, the reader takes an **efferent** stance, the focus being on obtaining information that can be carried away (*efferent* is taken from the Latin verb *efferre*, "to carry away"). In the **aesthetic** stance, the reader pays attention to the associations, feelings, attitudes, and ideas that the words evoke.

FYI

Although Rosenblatt emphasized individual reader response, she also stressed the importance of basing responses on the text, thus combining a reading response and critical reading approach.

New Criticism A theory of reading literature that was popular in the 1920s through the 1960s, **New Criticism** is now having an impact on literacy instruction. New Criticism emphasizes focusing on the text, rather than any connections the reader might make between the text and self (Have you ever had a problem like the one the main character has?) or the text and others (Do you know anyone like the main character?) or the text and the wider world (What might happen if people followed the advice of the main character?). According to New Criticism theory, the meaning and emotional impact of the text is revealed through careful analysis. This theory is being applied in elementary and middle school classrooms through **close reading** in which the reader takes a close look to see what techniques and language the author used and the impact these have on the text. Close reading also emphasizes asking text-dependent questions. **Text-dependent questions** require consulting the text (Achieve the Core, 2013). They can't be answered simply on the basis of background knowledge or personal experience or personal opinion.

Under **reader response**, students are encouraged to make personal connections to the text. This practice has been criticized of late because some of the connections were only very loosely related to the text and did not contribute to an understanding of it (Boyles, 2012/2013). However, readers are most motivated to read a text closely when they can make personal connections to the text. Therefore, this chapter recommends a kind of close reading that combines features of reader response with features of New Criticism. Close reading can be accompanied, when appropriate, by making personal connections, especially those that deepen the readers' understanding of and response to the text.

Critical Literacy Based on the premise that texts are not neutral, **critical literacy** is "the ability to read texts in an active, reflective manner in order to better understand power, inequality, and injustice in human relationships" (Coffey, 2017). Texts are examined in terms of their fairness to all groups and adherence to equity. Readers reflect on what has been left out of the text and who is advantaged or disadvantaged by the text. For instance, critical literacy looks at the media in terms of its ability to persuade and shape opinions and give power to those who control the media or have access to it because of money, position, or special status. Critical literacy also emphasizes taking action to promote justice.

FYI

To clarify your philosophy of teaching, ask: "What are my instructional practices, and why am I doing what I'm doing?" Examining your practices should help you uncover your beliefs.

See Table 1.1 for a summary of theories of learning, reading development, and the role of the reader.

Importance of Literacy Theories

Why is it important to be aware of different theories of teaching literacy? For one thing, it is important that you formulate your own personal beliefs about reading and writing instruction. These beliefs will then be the foundation for your instruction. They will determine the goals you set, the instructional techniques you use, the materials you choose, the organization of your classroom, the reading and writing behaviors you expect students to exhibit, and the criteria you use to evaluate students. For instance, whether you use children's books or a basal anthology or a combination, how you teach phonics and other word recognition skills, and whether you expect flawless oral reading or are satisfied if the student's rendition is faithful to the sense of the selection will depend on your theoretical orientation (Tracey & Morrow, 2017).

Table 1.1 Theories of Learning, Reading Development, and the Teacher's Role

Theory	Features	Implementation
Behaviorism	Observable behavior is stressed. Responses to stimuli are reinforced or extinguished. Drills, guided practice, and acquisition of facts, skills, and concepts are emphasized.	Present and reinforce skills, such as phonics, in systematic fashion. Reinforce appropriate behavior: "I like the way you went back to the chapter to find evidence for your conclusion."
Cognitivism	Mental processes are important. Students are active learners as they use strategies to acquire facts, skills, and concepts.	Teach strategies. Ask questions that help reveal students' thinking: "What makes you think that Rhonda was selfish? How did you come to that conclusion?"
Constructivism	Through active experiences, children construct their understanding of the world.	Arrange for learning experiences and opportunities for problem solving. Gear instruction to students' stage of development. Focus on inquiry and discovery learning: "Spell the word as best you can. Say each of the sounds to yourself. Think what letters make those sounds."
Social Constructivism	Thoughts and ideas of others are an essential element in constructing knowledge. Students learn through expert guidance from more knowledgeable others. Social interaction, the zone of proximal development, and scaffolding are key elements in learning.	Make sure students are in their zone of proximal development. Co-construct knowledge with students. Scaffold students' learning: "Here is what I do when I don't understand a process. I make a diagram like this. Work with a partner and make a diagram that describes the main stages in the making of silk."
Cognitive-Behavioral	Learning is affected by the learning task and situation and the ability, interests, and attitudes of the students. Students use self-regulation to acquire facts, skills, and concepts.	Build self-efficacy. Teach students to set goals and self-regulate. Walk students through the process of setting goals, working to reach goals, and monitoring progress: "You said that you are not satisfied with your writing? What is it that you are not satisfied with? What would you like to do better? How can we put that into goal statements?"
Interactionist	Both top-down and bottom-up processes are used. Students are active learners as they employ strategies to acquire facts, skills, and concepts.	Use bottom-up and top-down processes. For instance, teach students to use both phonics skills and context: "See if there is any part of that word that you can say. Put the parts together. Is it a real word? Does it fit the sense of the sentence?"
Reader Response	Reading is a transaction in which the reader affects the text and is affected by it.	Emphasize personal responses and interpretations. Encourage students to make personal connections to what they have read. "Have you ever been lost? How did you feel? What did you do?"
New Criticism	Stresses a close analysis of the text and how it was composed.	Encourage students to read and re-read the text and note how the author uses language and literary devices to shape meaning: "What image is the poet Tennyson creating? What words does he use to create that image? What effect does the image have on the poem?"
Critical Literacy	Texts are not neutral but reflect the beliefs and purposes of the author.	Analyze texts in terms of their fairness, accuracy, and reliability. "Has the author included everyone's voice? Has the author told what the newcomers' reaction was?"

SOURCE: Based on Portions of the chart are based on Woolfolk (2016), Table 11.3, Four Views of Learning (p. 436).

Approach Taken by This Chapter

This chapter draws heavily on research in cognitive psychology, combines an interactionist point of view with a holistic orientation, and takes an integrated approach. Both the bottom-up and top-down approaches are step by step (Kamhi & Catts, 1999). In the bottom-up model, the reader progresses from letters to sounds to words. Seeing the word *moon*, the novice reader sounds it out as /m/-/oo/-/n/ and then blends the sounds to compose the word *moon*. In the top-down process as Goodman described, the reader uses language cues to predict and to confirm the word. Seeing the sentence "The wolf howled at the moon," the reader uses her knowledge of language and wolves to predict that the word is *moon* because that makes sense in the sentence. She may decode the initial letter but doesn't have to decode all the sounds in the word to predict that the word is *moon*. However, in an integrated approach, the processes occur in parallel fashion. For instance, when students decode words, four processors are at work: phonological, orthographic, meaning, and context (Adams, 1990, 1994). They simultaneously use decoding, awareness of the spellings of words, meanings of words, and the context in which the words appear.

In an integrated model, both top-down and bottom-up processes are used. However, depending on circumstances, either bottom-up or top-down processes are emphasized. If one is reading a handwritten note in which some words are illegible, top-down

processes are stressed as knowledge of language and knowledge of the world are used to fill in what is missing. If one is reading unfamiliar proper names or words in isolation, bottom-up processes are emphasized.

In an integrated approach, reading is considered an active, constructive process, with the focus on the reader, whose experiences, cultural background, and point of view will play a part in her or his comprehension of a written piece. The focus is on cognitive processes or strategies used to decode words and understand and remember text: using phonics and context to decipher unknown words, activating one's knowledge of a topic, predicting meaning, summarizing, and visualizing.

Stress is also placed on teaching strategies in context and holistically applying them to children's books, periodicals, ads and other real-world materials, and content-area textbooks. The integrated approach is a balanced approach in which systematic instruction and immersion in reading and writing play complementary roles.

The Status of Literacy and Major Literacy Initiatives

According to NAEP's (National Assessment of Educational Progress) latest results, fourth-graders' scores are five points higher than the 1972 scores of their counterparts and eighth-grade scores are seven points higher (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2018). Some 68 percent of fourth-graders and 76 percent of eighth-graders can read at least on a basic level. Some 37 percent of fourth-graders and 36 percent of eighth-graders performed at or above the proficient level. Some 9 percent of fourth-graders and 4 percent of eighth-graders performed at the advanced level. What do the levels mean? Table 1.2 provides descriptions of the performance at each level. The basic level is a conservative estimate of grade-level reading. Students at the below-basic level are reading below grade level. The proficient level is above grade level (Loveless, 2016; Pellegrino, Jones, & Mitchell, 1999).

Unfortunately, NAEP scores are open to misinterpretation. After studying NAEP levels, a distinguished group of assessment scholars concluded, " . . . there is no mention

Table 1.2 Description of National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Levels

Grade 4		
Basic	**Proficient**	**Advanced**
Should be able to locate relevant information, make simple inferences, and use their understanding of the text to identify details that support a given interpretation or conclusion. Students should be able to interpret the meaning of a word as it is used in the text.	Should be able to integrate and interpret texts and apply their understanding of the texts to draw conclusions and make evaluations.	Should be able to make complex inferences and construct and support their inferential understanding of the text and apply their understanding of the text to make and support a judgment.
Grade 8		
Basic	**Proficient**	**Advanced**
Should be able to locate information; identify statements of main idea, theme, or author's purpose; and make simple inferences from texts. They should be able to interpret the meaning of a word as it is used in the text. Students performing at this level should also be able to state judgments and give some support about content and presentation of content.	Should be able to provide relevant information and summarize main ideas and themes. They should be able to make and support inferences about a text, connect parts of a text, and analyze text features. Students performing at this level should also be able to fully substantiate judgments about content and presentation of content.	Should be able to make connections within and across texts and to explain causal relations. They should be able to evaluate and justify the strength of supporting evidence and the quality of an author's presentation. Students performing at the Advanced level should also be able to manage the processing demands of analysis and evaluation by stating, explaining, and justifying.

SOURCE: Adapted from U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) (2015). *The NAEP reading achievement levels by grade*. Available at https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/reading/achieve.aspx.

of 'at grade level' performance in the achievement levels and, hence, the Proficient level does not reflect 'at grade' performance nor is it synonymous with 'proficiency' in the subject; the Basic level is less than full mastery but more than minimal competency . . . ." (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2017, p. 246). The impression conveyed in the media and in some educational publications that the Proficient level is grade level and is where students should be is both inaccurate and misleading. The Proficient level is aspirational. It is where we would like students to be. To learn more about basic and proficient levels on NAEP, click on Content Extension 1.1: Basic versus Proficient Levels.

Compared with students in other countries U.S. fourth-graders do quite well. On the latest PIRLS, an international test, the average score for U.S. fourth-graders was 549, well above the average score of 500, which placed the U.S. 15th out of 57 countries. On ePIRLS, which measured students' ability to read informational text online, U.S. fourth grades, scored 557 and ranked 4th out of 14 countries (Warner-Griffin, Liu, Tadler, Herget, & Dalton, 2017).

However, despite the fourth-graders' above-average performance on the PIRLS, large percentages of students (32 percent of fourth-graders and 24 percent of eighth-graders, according to NAEP) are reading below the basic level. In addition, the widespread use of technological tools and the explosion of knowledge have greatly increased the level of literacy that is required of today's society. To meet these challenges several major initiatives are attempting to enhance the teaching of literacy. These include the Elementary and Secondary Act, **Evidence-Based** Literacy Instruction, and Response to Intervention.

The Elementary and Secondary Act

First passed in 1965 the Elementary and Secondary Act (EASA) plays a highly influential role in literacy instruction and assessment. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), which is the latest version of EASA, requires states to do the following:

- Hold all students to high academic standards.
- Prepare all students for success in college and career.
- Assess all students in grades 3–8 and high school in reading or language arts with assessments aligned with high standards.
- Guarantee that steps are taken to help students, and their schools, improve. (U.S. Department of Education, Every Student Succeeds Act, 2017, June 16).

States have the freedom to set "goals, standards, curriculum, evaluation processes, incentives, and punishment" (Dufour, Reeves, & Defour, 2018). However, they are encouraged to use evidence-based approaches and evaluation to improve student outcomes (Results for America, 2018).

Using Technology

"The Great Kids Test Guide for Parents" provides a helpful explanation, including videos of the Smarter Balanced and PARCC tests that are aligned with Common Core and used in approximately 24 states.

Preparing Students to Be College and Career Ready

In order to fulfill the requirement to hold all students to high academic standards, a number of states have adopted or adapted a challenging set of standards known as the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and are using an assessment system that is aligned with the standards so that every student will be college and career ready. In literacy, Common Core State Standards emphasize reading and writing

complex text and providing support for interpretations and responses. Students are also expected to read an increased amount of informational text. For the most part, states not adopting Common Core have established similar challenging standards (Opfer, Kaufman, & Thompson, 2016, 2017). States are required to assess their students' literacy achievement in grades 3–8 and once in high school, but are free to select or create the assessment they will use. A focus of this text will be developing the kinds of skills listed in Common Core and other state standards. Common Core State Standards are listed on the inside front and back covers and in margin notes labeled CCSS.

In a sense, the primary skill required for success in college or career is the ability to read complex texts (ACT, 2006). Because workplace text is equal in complexity to college-level text, the implication is that in order to prepare all students to be college and career ready, it is essential to prepare students to read complex texts. Learning to read complex text is a long-term objective that starts at the earliest levels and develops through elementary, middle, and high school, as each level builds on skills and understandings established at earlier levels. Comprehending complex text requires vocabulary and background development, instruction in skills, and the development of higher-level discussion and writing skills.

Evidence-Based Literacy Instruction

Because large numbers of students are reading below a basic level and because the gap between the reading achievement of poor and middle-class students is substantial, there has been a call in federal regulations for programs that are evidence-based. The most extensive study of evidence-based programs, techniques, and approaches was conducted by John Hattie (2009, 2018), a New Zealand educator, who analyzed nearly 1,200 meta-analyses. A **meta-analysis** is a study of studies that uses statistical techniques to determine effectiveness. Based on his analyses, Hattie concluded that visible learning is the most effective method of teaching. **Visible learning** means that the goal is clear to students and is challenging but not overwhelming. It also means that students engage in deliberate practice, feedback is provided, and progress is tracked. In visible learning, teachers see learning through the eyes of their students. As Hattie (2017) points out, teachers need to obtain evidence to see what impact their teaching is having so that they can build on what they are doing or make needed changes.

FYI

Suggestions for implementing visible teaching can be found in Fisher, Frey, and Hattie (2016, 2017).

Using Technology

A ranking of techniques and other factors that impact achievement can be found on the Visible Learning website.

Key Effective Factors for Visible Teaching and Learning

The theme of this text will be to make teaching and learning visible. To accomplish that purpose, the text will emphasize effective practices. This chapter will conclude with a feature titled "Extending and Applying," in which you will be asked to extend your knowledge of key effective practices and apply them, and also "Professional Reflection," in which you will be asked to reflect on your ability to implement key assessment and instructional practices. The Professional Reflection checklists are modeled on research-based teacher evaluation systems and descriptions of effective practices and standards such as those constructed by Robert Marzano (Carbaugh, Marzano, & Toth, 2017), the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2016), charter schools such as Achievement First (n.d.), and also the International Literacy Association's (ILA) Standards for the Preparation of Literacy Professionals 2017 (International Literacy Association, 2018a). The Professional Reflections only cover practices related to literacy instruction. Classroom management and routines are not addressed. The overall intent of this chapter is to equip you with the knowledge, understanding, and skills to become a highly effective literacy teacher.

As a teacher, you should become acquainted with the major findings of literacy research so that you can construct an effective program and can assess whether new techniques or materials that you are thinking about trying are supported by research. You should also assess the research base to see if it is applicable to your students and your situation. A technique that works well on a one-to-one basis may not be effective with small groups. Of course, research doesn't answer all the instructional questions that arise. You need to become a teacher–researcher so that you can test methods and materials and have a better basis for selecting those that are most effective in your situation. You also need to assess all aspects of your program with a view to replacing or improving elements that aren't working and to adding elements that are missing.

As far as possible, the suggestions made in this text are evidence-based. However, in some instances they are based on personal experience or the experience of others. Teaching literacy is an art as well as a science.

Using Technology

- The website of the New Literacies Research Team offers videos and articles exploring the new literacies.
- The Joan Ganz Cooney Center website provides information on using media to advance learning.

The New Literacies, Advanced Literacy, and 21st-Century Skills

FYI

The term *new literacies* is used by some groups to describe changes in literacy practices as well as the addition of new tools. The focus is on how these new tools have led to more collaboration and participation (Tracey & Morrow, 2017).

Preparing students for success in college and career also requires developing new literacies, advanced literacy, and 21st-century skills. The **new literacies** can be thought of as the reading, writing, and communication skills required for the successful use of technology. New literacies include the ability to use a variety of digital devices and skills to locate, interpret, evaluate, synthesize, organize, communicate, and create information. New literacies are explored throughout the text in sections where they apply.

In addition to technical know-how, new literacies also include a variety of cognitive and social skills, such as those described as "21st-century" skills. These skills include critical thinking and problem solving and the ability to adapt to new situations, communicate and collaborate with others, and use creativity in seeking solutions and innovations (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2013, 2017).

Advanced Literacy

Given the rate at which knowledge is generated, the speed with which it is disseminated, and the interconnectedness of the global economy, all of today's students need to develop advanced literacy skills, along with new literacies and 21st-century skills (Lesaux, Galloway, & Marietta, 2016). These advanced skills require four composite skills: the ability to understand and use academic language, increased content and conceptual knowledge skills, critical interpretive and analytical skills, and argumentation skills or the ability to use evidence from multiple sources to provide a convincing position on a complex issue. Today's readers must not only be able to summarize an article, but they must also be able to analyze the rhetorical techniques used in the article and evaluate the article's fairness, accuracy, and credibility. It is especially important that special efforts be made to plan effective programs for English learners, students living in poverty, struggling learners, and other students who have lacked the opportunity to acquire advanced literacy skills.

Role of Language and Culture on Literacy Learning

As magical as it may be, reading is only our second major intellectual accomplishment. Our first, and by far most important intellectual accomplishment, is our acquisition of language. Without language, of course, there would be no reading. Reading is very much a language activity, and, ultimately, our ability to read is limited by our language skills. We can't read what we can't understand. Even if we can pronounce words we don't understand because of superior phonics skills, we are not reading. **Reading** is a process in which we construct meaning from print. Without meaning, there is no reading.

Developing Language

Although young children learn many words through imitation, language learning is also a constructive process. According to constructivist theory, if children were mere imitators, they would only be able to repeat what they hear. But they construct sentences such as "Mommy goed work," which is something that adults do not say. Creating a hypothesis about how language works, young children note that *ed* is used to express past action and then overapply this generalization. With feedback and experience, they revise the hypothesis and ultimately learn that some action words have special past-tense forms.

Components of Language

Language has a number of interacting components: **phonology** (speech sounds known as phonemes), **morphology** (word formation), **syntax** (sentence formation), **semantics** (word and sentence meaning), **prosody** (intonation and rhythm of speech), and **pragmatics** (effective use of language: knowing how to take turns in a conversation, using proper tone, using terms of politeness, etc.).

Learning a Second Language

Large numbers of students learn English as a second or even a third language, so it's important to have some understanding of the acquisition of additional languages. Learning a second language is easier than learning a first language. Students who have a firm foundation in their first language have an easier time learning a second language. Concepts about language and its functions have already been formed. If English is similar to the first language, there may be a transfer of word and syntactical knowledge. Students are best able to learn a second language when their native language is accepted and they feel secure and confident. Input that is comprehensible is another key factor (Krashen, 2003). In reading, **English learners (ELs)** will acquire more language and comprehend better if, when reading text in English, they know 98 percent of the words in the text (Nation, 2001). Input can be enhanced through boldfaced words and marginal glosses and illustrations. Speaking slowly, using gestures and visuals, and explaining new words help make oral input comprehensible. Motivation is also a key factor. Initial success in acquiring language is a powerful motivator and leads to increased language acquisition.

Acquiring Vocabulary

By age 3, children have a speaking vocabulary of about 1,000 words. By the time they enter kindergarten, they may know 5,000 words or more. The major influence on the size of children's vocabularies is the quantity and quality of the kind of talk they are exposed to. According to language expert Todd Risley (2003), the most important thing parents and other caregivers can do for their children is to talk to them. The amount of

talk directed toward young children is powerfully related to their verbal abilities and their success in school. Hart and Risley (1995) collected data on the quantity and quality of parent talk. They found that the sheer volume of talk that young children hear varies greatly. Some children hear fewer than 500 words in an hour of family life. Others are exposed to 3,000 words in an hour. Some parents express approval or affirmation 40 times an hour, whereas others, fewer than four times an hour. These differences add up. By age 4, some children have heard more than 50 million words, while others have heard just 10 million words. By age 4, some children have had 800,000 affirmations, while others have heard just 80,000. But there is more than just a quantitative difference between the most talkative and the least talkative families.

The least talkative families use talk primarily to control and guide children. The most talkative families also use talk in this way, but they go beyond giving directions. Much of their extra talk consists of descriptions and explanations. It contains a more complex vocabulary and structure and added positive **reinforcement**. The amount and quality of talk to which children are exposed are correlated with the size of their vocabularies and their later language and cognitive development.

Research with younger children found similar results. Weisleder and Fernald (2013) recorded the speech heard by low SES (socioeconomic status) infants and toddlers. As in the Hart and Risley study, the number of child-directed words was associated with the size of the toddlers' vocabularies at 24 months. Children who heard more words were also more efficient at processing language. A significant finding of the research is that living in economic poverty does not necessarily mean that the language environment is impoverished. As Fernald commented, "A central message of this research is that SES does not determine the quality of children's language experience. Despite the challenges associated with living in poverty, some of these moms were really engaged with their children, and their kids were more advanced in processing efficiency and vocabulary" (Carey, 2013).

Although studies show that the amount of talk is not strictly related to SES, professionals talk the most, and parents on welfare talk the least. However, there is a great variability among the working class. Many of the most talkative parents, along with the quietest, are in the working class. And it is parental talkativeness rather than SES that relates to later verbal ability. In other words, it isn't how much money parents have or how much education they have or whether they are members of a minority group that counts; it is how much and how well they talk to their children.

Paulaphoto/Shutterstock

In a longitudinal study of children in Bristol, England, Wells (1986) found that children's language was best developed in one-to-one situations in which an adult discussed matters that were of interest and concern to the child or the two talked over a shared activity. It is also essential that the adult adjust his or her language to take into consideration and to compensate for the child's limited linguistic ability, something parents seem to do intuitively. Through careful listening and active involvement in the conversation, parents were able to help the children extend their responses so that both knowledge of the world and linguistic abilities were fostered.

As a teacher, you can't change the quality or quantity of language to which children have been exposed, but you can increase the quantity and quality of talk in your classroom

and encourage parents and other caregivers to do the same. This chapter emphasizes high-quality, language-rich social interactions of the type conducted by the parents who best foster their children's language development.

Importance of the Students' Cultures

Living as we do in a multicultural, pluralistic society, it is important for us to explore and understand the literacy histories of our pupils. We have to ask such questions as these: In students' culture(s), how are reading and writing used? What values are placed on them? What are the ways in which the students have observed and participated in reading and writing? Is literacy in their environment primarily a group or an individual activity? Given this information, instruction should build on the students' experiences and develop and reinforce the skills and values important to their culture(s) as well as those important to the school.

In some situations, students may not see the value of reading and writing, especially as they get older. For instance, because of economic and racial and ethnic inequalities, some students may not believe that education will enable them to lead a rewarding life. As Schunk (2016) advises, it is important for the teacher to determine students' academic values and help them develop needed literacy skills. "Teachers have the responsibility of developing achievement goals in all students, which they can do by teaching students how to set goals and assess progress, showing students how their achievement results in positive outcomes, and building learners' self-efficacy" (p. 142).

Students may also be victims of stereotype threat. A stereotype threat is a belief based on stereotypes in the larger society that certain groups of students will not do well academically (Cummins & Early, 2015). Unfortunately, responding to lowered expectations, stereotyped students may adopt a negative academic identity and fail to put forth their best efforts or may not be provided with the best that the school has to offer. The most effective way to build a positive academic identify is to provide these and all students with a rich curriculum that fully develops their literacy and affirms their academic identity.

The International Literacy Association (2017a) uses a combined metaphor of a mirror, a window, and a door to describe a culturally sustaining and academically rigorous classroom. Through the texts they read and the topics they talk and write about, students are provided with a mirror in which they see themselves. Looking through the window of diverse reading, writing, and discussion activities, they see others who have different backgrounds and experiences. This knowledge of others fosters self-knowledge. The school is "hope-filled" and offers a doorway to new possibilities by developing, with sufficient rigor, the knowledge, skills, and motivation necessary to pursue a rich and rewarding future.

Basic Principles of Teaching Reading

What kind of program will help meet the literacy needs of today's students? That is a difficult question to answer. However, the ten principles discussed next, if followed faithfully, should make a difference in determining such a program.

1. *Children learn to read by reading.* Learning to read is a little like learning to drive a car—instruction and guidance are required. In addition to instruction and guidance, novice readers, like novice motorists, require practice. They must read a variety of fiction and nonfiction books, newspapers, and magazines to become truly skilled. In a way, each book or article makes a child a better reader. As Hirsch (1987, 2016) pointed out, children must have a broad background in a variety of areas in

order to be able to understand much of what is being written and said in today's world. For example, a child who has read the fable "The Boy Who Cried Wolf" will have the background necessary to understand a story that includes the sentence, "Frank cried wolf once too often." Reading is not simply a matter of acquiring and perfecting skills; it also requires accumulating vocabulary, concepts, experiences, and background knowledge. As Hirsch (2016) commented, "The achievement gap is chiefly a knowledge gap and a language gap" (p. 2).

To provide the necessary practice and background, children's books and digital texts are an essential component of a reading program. Unfortunately, large numbers of students are aliterate: They *can* read, but they *do* not, at least not on a regular basis. Only 56 percent of students ages 6 to 8 are frequent readers, which means they read at least five days a week. That percentage drops to 38 percent for 9- to 11-year-olds and 30 percent for 12- to 14-year-olds (Harrison Group, 2010). In a longitudinal study involving some 6,000 subjects, students who read for pleasure outperformed infrequent readers in vocabulary by 14.4 percentage points. Reading for pleasure had a greater impact than parental education level. Students who read a lot but whose parents had limited education did better than students who did not read a lot but whose parents were well-educated (Sullivan & Brown, 2013).

In a recent study, students who began the year as struggling readers (below the 25th percentile) but ended the year as achieving readers read approximately 300,000 words or more in their independent reading programs. For most grades, this was more than twice as many words as students who began and ended the year as struggling readers read (Renaissance Learning, 2015, 2018a). To assist you in choosing or recommending reading materials for your students, lists of appropriate books, periodicals, websites, and apps are presented throughout the text.

2. *Reading should be at the appropriate level of challenge.* Research by Gambrell, Wilson, and Gantt (1981), Nation (2001), and Schmitt, Jiang, and Grabe (2011) suggests that students do best with reading materials in which no more than 2 to 5 percent of the words are difficult for them. In tryouts of a revised edition of the Developmental Reading Assessment, researchers concluded that students whose word reading accuracy was below 97 percent experienced difficulty with comprehension (Pearson Education, 2009). Treptow (2006) concluded that both time on task and comprehension were higher when students were on the instructional rather than their frustration level. In a study by Renaissance Learning (2018a), students who read with an average of 75 to 84 percent comprehension made almost twice as much progress as students who had less than 75 percent comprehension. As Harvey and Goudvidis (2017) commented, "Nothing concerns us more than kids sitting in front of a text that is too difficult. How unfair" (p. 34).

   There is a belief that reading on-level text will boost below-level readers up to a higher level. In one study comparing struggling readers given reading-level text with struggling readers given grade-level text, the reading-level students outperformed the grade-level students in comprehension and fluency, even though the grade-level students were given extensive preparation and support for the texts they were assigned (O'Connor, Bell, Harty, Larkin, Sackor, & Zigmond, 2002). In a related study, below-level fifth-graders who were given materials on their level did better than below-level fifth-graders given grade-level material (Tracey & Young, 2005).

   Reading should not be too easy for students at any level. If they are not presented with any challenging reading materials, students might be bored or fail to fully develop their ability. Sometimes there is a tendency to provide struggling readers with a steady diet of simplified text. Building the decoding and fluency skills of below-level readers is absolutely essential and is best done with materials on their level. However, as they begin to master basic skills, struggling students should be given opportunities to read complex text on their level so that eventually they will be college and career ready. Of course, they should be taught the skills and

provided with the scaffolds needed to read more challenging text. In one study, preteaching difficult words so that students were brought up to their instructional level proved effective in boosting students' ability to read texts that otherwise would have been on their frustration level (Burns, Dean, & Foley, 2004). Shared reading in which teacher and students read texts together before students read them on their own can also enable students to tackle challenging texts (Stahl, 2012).

3. *Instruction should be differentiated.* Providing students with text on the appropriate level is a good first step. However, below-level readers need additional intensive instruction that will boost their reading ability so that eventually they are reading on or close to grade level (Tomlinson, 2017). Likewise, it isn't sufficient to make texts accessible by reading them to those students who can't read them on their own, while the proficient readers read the texts independently. Struggling readers should be provided the kind of systematic instruction needed to build the skills required to read the texts (Tomlinson, 2017) or given texts on their instructional level. On the other hand, differentiation should be more qualitative rather than quantitative. Rather than assigning two book reports to advanced readers while assigning just one book report to average readers, it would be better to guide the advanced readers to tackle more complex texts and to analyze the texts more deeply.
4. *Instruction should be functional and contextual as well as systematic.* In addition to systematically teaching skills, teach or review a word-attack skill because students must have it to decipher words. For example, teach or review the prefix *pre-* just before the class reads a selection about prehistoric dinosaurs. Students learn better when what they are being taught has immediate value.
5. *Teachers should make connections.* Build a bridge between children's experiences and what they are about to read. Help them see how what they know is related to the story or article. Students in Montana reading about an ice hockey game may have no experience either playing hockey or watching the sport. However, you could help create a bridge of understanding by discussing how hockey is similar to soccer, a sport with which they probably are familiar. You should also help students connect new concepts to old concepts. Relate reading, writing, listening, and speaking—they all build on each other. Reading and talking about humorous stories can expand students' concept of humor and remind them of funny things that have happened to them. They might then write about these events. Also build on what students know. This will make your teaching easier because you will be starting at the students' level. It will also help students make a connection between what they know and what they are learning.
6. *Teachers should promote independence.* Whenever you teach a skill or strategy, ask yourself: How can I teach this so that students will eventually use it on their own? How will students be called on to use this skill or strategy in school and in the outside world? When you teach students how to summarize, make predictions, or use context, phonics, or another skill or strategy, teach so that there is a gradual release of responsibility (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983). Gradually fade your instruction and guidance so that students are applying the skill or strategy on their own. Do the same with the selection of reading materials. Although you may discuss ways of choosing books with the class, you ultimately want students to reach a point where they select their own books.
7. *Teachers should believe that all children can learn to read and write and act on that belief.* Given the right kind of instruction, virtually all children can learn to read. There is increasing evidence that the vast majority of children can learn to read at least on a basic level. In her analysis of data that tracked students from K through eighth grade, Northrup (2016, 2017) found that students who were behind in kindergarten followed one of three trajectories. Some 52 percent, the compensatory group, caught up and were reading on grade level or beyond by the time they reached eighth grade. A second group, the cumulative deficit group, fell farther behind each year.

Adapting Instruction for Struggling Readers and Writers

Teachers are taking increased responsibility for helping struggling readers and writers. Suggestions for working with struggling readers and writers are made throughout this text.

A third group, the progress in place group, did not fall farther behind, but did not make up for the initial deficit. The results suggest that if they are provided help as soon as a need is detected and given help over the long term, most students should be able to overcome initial deficits and finish eighth grade on or close to grade level. A study in the United Kingdom found similar results (Johnston & Watson, 2005).

8. *Teachers should build students' self-efficacy.* **Self-efficacy** is the belief that one can carry out the actions necessary to achieve a goal: I can write an opinion piece that explains my belief and gives reasons for it. I can read this chapter book on my own (Bandura, 1977; Schunk, 2016). Students perform at their best when they feel competent, view a task as being challenging but doable, understand why they are undertaking a task, are given choices, feel part of the process, and have interesting materials and activities. Students also respond to knowledge of progress. Students work harder when they see that they are improving, and they are also energized by praise from teachers, parents, and peers, especially when that praise is honest and specific (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997; Sweet, 1997; Wigfield, 1997).

   Praise can be categorized as being process or personal. Process praise is directed to effort and actions: "You worked hard on that project." Personal praise is directed to personal traits: "You are so smart." Children who hear a greater proportion of process praise credit effort for their success. Children who hear a greater proportion of personal praise come to believe that their ability is the source of their success. Provided with a high proportion of process praise at an early age, children developed a belief that traits are malleable, preferred challenging tasks, attributed success and failure to effort, and generated strategies for improvement (Gunderson, Gripshover, Romero, Dweck, Goldin-Meadow, & Levine, 2013).

   Process praise helps develop a sense of self-efficacy. Students who attribute their success to effort have a **growth mindset** (Dweck, 2006). They see basic abilities and traits as something they can develop. They believe that "everyone can change and grow through application and experience" (Dweck, 2006, p. 7). This is in contrast to a **fixed mindset**, which is a belief that your abilities are "carved in stone" (Dweck, 2006, p. 6). Convinced that they have a fixed amount of ability, students with a fixed mindset focus on proving themselves and "looking smart." According to Duckworth's research, students with a growth mindset tend to be grittier (Perkins-Gough, 2013). Their attitude is "I can get better if I try harder" (p. 19). Students who have **grit** work harder to overcome obstacles and to achieve their goals. Grit is more important than talent or IQ in achieving academic goals (Gunning, 2018).

9. *Teachers should build students' language proficiency.* Reading and writing are language-based. Students' reading levels are ultimately limited by their language development. Students can't understand what they are reading if they don't know what the words mean or if they get tangled up in the syntax of the piece. One of the best ways to build reading and writing potential is to foster language development. In study after study, knowledge of vocabulary has been found to be the key element in comprehension. Students' listening level has also been found to be closely related to their reading level. The level of material that a student can understand orally is a good gauge of the level at which the student can read with understanding. While fostering language development is important for all students, it is absolutely essential for students who are learning English as a second language.

10. *Teachers need to know how students are progressing so that they can give them extra help or change the program, if necessary.* Students also need to know how they are doing and what they need to do to improve (Hattie, 2012). Assessment need not be formal. Observation can be a powerful assessment tool. However, assessment should be tied to the program's standards and should result in improvement in students' learning.

Qualities of Highly Effective Teachers

A number of top researchers have visited the classes of teachers judged to be highly effective (Pressley, Allington, Wharton-McDonald, Block, & Morrow, 2001). Their students read more books and wrote more stories. Virtually all read on or above grade level. Their writing skills were surprisingly advanced. They also enjoyed school. On many occasions, observers watched in surprise as students skipped recess so that they could continue working on an activity.

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Caring and High Expectations

Perhaps the most outstanding characteristic of highly effective teachers is that they care for their students and believe in them (Pressley et al., 2001). In one study, teachers who were genuinely convinced that their students could and would learn were compared with teachers who were less optimistic about their students' learning (Wharton-McDonald, 2001). For instance, typical first-grade teachers believed that writing was difficult for young students and expected their students would only be able to produce pieces of writing composed of a sentence or two by year's end. Their expectations were discouragingly accurate. By year's end, most students in their classes were producing narratives that consisted of one to three loosely connected sentences with little attention to punctuation or capitalization. Highly effective teachers had higher expectations. They believed that first-graders were capable of sustained writing. By year's end, they expected a coherent paragraph that consisted of five or even more sentences, each of which started with a capital letter and ended with a period. And that's the kind of writing their students produced. Students have a way of living up to or down to teachers' expectations.

Extensive Instruction

Effective teachers used every opportunity to reinforce skills. Wherever possible, connections were made between reading and writing and between reading and writing and content-area concepts. Often, students would develop or apply science and social studies concepts in their writing.

Scaffolding

Exemplary teachers scaffolded students' responses. Instead of simply telling students answers, these teachers used prompts and other devices to help students reason their way to the correct response.

Classroom Management

Highly effective teachers were well organized. Routines were well established. The core of their classroom management was building in students a sense of responsibility. Students also learned how to work together. The classroom atmosphere was one of cooperation rather than competition. Effort was emphasized. Praise and reinforcement

were used as appropriate. Students were also taught to be competent, independent learners. They were taught strategies for selecting appropriate-level books, for decoding unfamiliar words, and for understanding difficult text.

High-Quality Materials

Classrooms were well stocked with materials, and time was set aside for various kinds of reading: shared, partner, and individual.

Matching of Materials and Tasks to Student Competence

Highly effective teachers gave students materials and tasks that were somewhat challenging but not overwhelming. Teachers carefully monitored students and made assignments on the basis of students' performance. If the book students were reading seemed to have too many difficult words and concepts, students were given an easier book. If they mastered writing a brief paragraph, they were encouraged to write a more fully developed piece. However, they were provided with the assistance and instruction needed to cope with more challenging tasks.

Collective Teacher Efficacy

When Hattie (2011, 2017, 2018) examined the research behind 252 factors involved in academic achievement, collective teacher efficacy ranked number one. It beat SES, student motivation, formative assessment, or just about any other factor that you can think of (Donohoo, Hattie, & Eells, 2018). **Collective teacher efficacy** simply means that teachers working together had the firm belief that they could have an impact on students' learning and put that belief into action.

In a sense, group efficacy begins with individual efficacy. Both can be built in similar ways. Setting challenging but reasonable goals, using effective techniques, providing appropriate materials, monitoring progress, and making adjustments when necessary build teacher self-efficacy because these approaches are effective. When students fail to learn, efficacious teachers attribute this to lack of teacher effort or failure to use effective techniques. They don't blame factors such as students' low SES or large classes. As a result, the teachers work harder and try other approaches. Self-efficacious teachers tend to build their students' self efficacy, which also results in increased learning (Donohoo, et al., 2018). A first step in becoming a more effective teacher is to believe in yourself and then take action to put that belief into practice by, among other things, implementing recommendations made in this and succeeding chapters.

Essentials for an Effective Lesson

To translate the key concepts discussed so far into a practical instructional context, the basic components of an effective lesson are listed in this section. These components are based on research and incorporate the essential elements contained in widely used teacher evaluation systems, which means that when your lessons are being evaluated, these are the elements that will most likely be considered. A variety of sample lessons are provided in this text. The lessons will incorporate these essential elements.

Objectives Objectives, which are also known as "learning intentions," incorporate key skills or understandings that are based on national (Common Core or similar standards), state, or district standards and students' needs. Objectives state what you want students to know, understand, or be able to do. As explained by Fisher and Frey, lessons should be guided by clear learning intentions (objectives) and success criteria. Students

should be able to answer three questions: "What am I learning today?" "Why am I learning it?" and "How will I know that I have learned it?" (Rebora, 2017). **Success criteria** answer the question, "How will I know that I have learned it?" As explained in Chapter 3, success criteria can be as simple as a descriptive statement or a few bullet points or as elaborate as a rubric.

Content/Texts/Activities Content and activities are challenging but engaging. Texts/materials are of high quality and on students' instructional levels. Where appropriate, students are given a choice of activities or texts. Texts might be traditional print, digital, or a combination.

Instruction Instruction includes an explanation of what is being taught and why. Skills, strategies, and understandings are presented explicitly through modeling, demonstration, simulation, and/or explanation. Students are provided with guided practice interspersed with additional instruction as needed. The teacher continuously checks for understanding and modifies instruction as necessary. Focus is on deep understanding. Students reflect on what they have learned and revise their thinking when appropriate. Ultimately, students apply what they have learned. Emphasis is on lots of reading and writing.

FYI

Teachers typically direct most of their questions and reinforcement to the top third of the class. When teachers direct instruction to all students, including the bottom third of the class, overall achievement improves.

Evaluation Using observation, quizzes, work samples, checks for understanding, and other means, teachers assess students' grasp of the skills, strategies, and understandings presented. Instruction is modified as needed. Teachers document student progress and reflect on the effectiveness of the lesson. What went well? What might need improvement? Using the success criteria that have been provided and their goals, students are encouraged to self-evaluate.

The following key elements are not specifically described in the sample lessons but are implied:

Differentiation Students are grouped, as appropriate, and are also provided with additional instruction and practice, as required. Adjustments are made in instruction, activities, and materials to meet the needs of all students. As part of instruction and differentiation, analyze the language demands being made by the skill, strategy, or understanding that you are developing. What vocabulary, figurative language, syntactical, or rhetorical elements will students need to comprehend to be successful? (Watts-Taffe, Laster, Broach, Marinak, Connor, & Walker-Dalhouse, 2012). Also consider students' IEP and 504 plans as explained on p. 32.

Classroom Atmosphere The classroom is set up for maximum efficiency. Management routines are established. Instructional time is maximized. A caring, supportive atmosphere is established, and there is a spirit of mutual cooperation and respect and a we-are-readers-and-writers attitude.

Summary

- Approaches to teaching reading can be viewed as being bottom-up, top-down, or interactive. Behavioral theories of learning favor bottom-up approaches, focus on observable phenomena, and emphasize subskills. Cognitive theories tend to be top-down or interactive in their approach, emphasize the active role of the reader as a constructor of meaning, and stress mental activities. Social cognitive theories stress the social aspects of learning, scaffolding of instruction, and the zone of proximal development. Literary theory explores the role of the reader. In Reader Response, reading is viewed as a transaction between the reader and the text. The subjective response of the reader is an integral part of the process. According to New Criticism theory, the meaning and emotional impact of the text is revealed through a careful analysis of the text. Combining Reader Response's emphasis on personal individual response and making connections to self, others, and the world with New Criticism's focus on careful analysis is an approach recommended by a number of literacy experts. Critical literacy requires examining texts for fairness.
- Although today's students are reading better than ever, large percentages of students are reading below a basic level, and many of today's students are not being adequately prepared for college or career. Several major initiatives are attempting to reform the teaching of literacy: the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), College and Career Ready Standards, and Evidence-Based Literacy Instruction. Students in grades 3 through 8 and one grade in high school are required to take state assessments aligned with the state's high standards. Preparing students for success in college and career also requires developing new literacies, advanced literacy, and 21st-century skills.
- Although imitation plays a role in language learning, learning language is also a constructive process. Learning a second language is easier than learning an original language, and an accepting environment, self-confidence, and motivation foster second-language development. Because of differences in parenting styles, children come to school with widely varying vocabulary development. However, the school's role is to foster vocabulary development in all children and also to value and build on the diversity of cultures present in today's schools.
- Widespread reading on the appropriate level and functional instruction commensurate with children's abilities are essentials of an effective reading program. Also necessary is differentiated instruction that helps students make connections and fosters self-independence. Believing that virtually every child can learn to read and building students' motivation and self-efficacy are important factors in an effective literacy program, as are setting goals, systematic and direct instruction, managing classroom behavior, building language proficiency, building higher-level literacy, and ongoing assessment.
- Caring and with high expectations, highly effective teachers make learning visible and conduct instruction that is scaffolded and extensive and uses high-quality materials matched to students' needs and abilities. Complementing effective programs are carefully planned lessons. Highly effective teachers also have a collective sense of self-efficacy, a belief that by working together they can make a difference.

Extending and Applying

1. Many school systems require teacher applicants to submit a portfolio. Some require new teachers to complete portfolios as part of the evaluation process. Even if a portfolio is not required in your situation, creating and maintaining one provides you with the opportunity to reflect on your ideas about teaching and your teaching practices. It will help you get to know yourself better as a teacher and so provide a basis for improvement. The portfolio should highlight your professional preparation, relevant experience, and mastery of key teaching skills. Also, draw up a statement of your philosophy of teaching reading and writing.
2. Examine the English language arts standards for the school district in which you teach or plan to teach and for the grade you are teaching or plan to teach. Which of these standards do you feel prepared to teach? For which of the standards might you need additional information and preparation?
3. To find out more about 21st-century skills, visit the website, Partnership for 21st Century Skills. What are the key skills being advocated? How might you integrate 21st-century skills into your curriculum?
4. Take another look at the characteristics of highly effective teachers. What are your strengths and weaknesses in this area? What might you do to build on your strengths and work on your weaknesses?
5. Analyze one or more of your lessons in terms of the Essentials of an Effective Lesson discussed in the chapter. What changes might you need to make to your lessons?

Professional Reflection

Do I . . .

_____ Have an understanding of the nature of literacy?

_____ Have an understanding of the key components of an effective literacy program and a plan for implementing them in my teaching situation?

_____ Have a general understanding of the state standards and the standards in the school district where I teach or plan to teach?

_____ Have a personal philosophy for teaching literacy?

Glossary

Accommodation is the process by which concepts or schemes are modified or new ones created to accommodate new knowledge.

Aesthetic refers to a type of reading in which "the reader focuses on experiencing the piece: the rhythm of the words, the past experiences the words call up" (Rosenblatt, 1978, p. 10).

Assimilation is the process of incorporating new ideas into existing ones.

Behaviorism is a philosophy of learning that describes the activities of an organism in terms of observable actions or behaviors.

Bottom-up approach refers to a kind of processing in which meaning is derived from the accurate, sequential processing of words. The emphasis is on the text rather than the reader's background knowledge or language ability.

Close reading means that the reader closely analyzes the text and how the author uses language and literary devices to convey information or a message. A close reading emphasizes the importance of the text rather than biographical information about the author or the circumstances under which the text was written. Readers respond to questions about the text by citing evidence from the text rather than using personal experiences or connections.

Cognitive-behavioral approach is an approach to learning in which self-talk and rewards are used to replace faulty learning habits and beliefs with effective habits and strategies and realistic beliefs.

Cognitivism is a philosophy of learning that describes the activities of an organism in terms of both observable actions or behaviors and internal or mental states.

Collective teacher efficacy is the belief held by a group of teachers in a school that they can effect positive changes in the educational achievement of students.

Constructivism is a cognitive philosophy of learning that describes learning as an active process in which the learner constructs mental models of reality.

Critical literacy is the analysis of texts in terms of their fairness to all groups and adherence to equity.

Efferent refers to a kind of reading in which the focus is on obtaining or carrying away information from the reading.

English learners (ELs) are students whose native language is not English and who cannot participate effectively in the regular curriculum because they have difficulty speaking, understanding, reading, and writing in English-speaking classrooms.

Evidence-based is an activity, strategy, or intervention that has been shown to be statistically superior or promising in a well-implemented study or demonstrates that it is likely to have positive outcomes.

Fixed mindset is the belief that abilities and personal qualities are fixed and cannot be changed.

Grit is a personal quality that includes resiliency in the face of failure and making a commitment to goals and sticking to that commitment. Grit is a better predictor of success than talent.

Growth mindset is the belief that abilities and personal qualities can be changed through work and effort.

Interactionists hold the theoretical position that reading involves processing text and using one's background knowledge and language ability.

Meta-analysis is the analysis of a group of studies on the same topic. The results of the studies are pooled to increase their validity.

Morphology is the component of language that has to do with meaningful word parts, such as roots and affixes.

New Criticism is a literary theory in which reading is viewed as a careful analysis of the text. Close reading is a key tool used in this approach.

New literacies includes using digital technologies but also includes the social practices, such as social networking and texting, associated with advances in technologies.

Phonology is the language component that consists of producing and understanding speech sounds.

Pragmatics is the component of language that has to do with engaging in effective communication, such as knowing how to take turns in a conversation, using proper tone, and using terms of politeness.

Prosody is the component of language that has to do with the intonation and rhythm of speech: pitch, stress, and juncture.

Reader response is a literary theory in which reading is viewed as a transaction between the reader and the text. The subjective response of the reader is an integral part of the process.

Reading is a process in which we construct meaning from print.

Reinforcement is a condition or consequence that increases the likelihood that a certain behavior will occur in response to a stimulus.

Scaffolding refers to the support and guidance provided by an adult or more capable peer that helps a student function on a higher level.

Schemes are cognitive structures or thought patterns in which children organize experiences and knowledge in order to understand their environment.

Scripted program is one in which the directions for using the program are so detailed that teachers are provided with the exact words to be used for instruction.

Self-efficacy is the belief that one can carry out the actions necessary to achieve a goal.

Semantics is the component of language that has to do with meaning.

Social constructivism is a cognitive philosophy of learning that describes learning as an active process in which the learner constructs mental models of reality individually and in interaction with others.

Stance refers to the position or attitude that the reader takes. The two stances are aesthetic and efferent.

Success criteria are the standards or characteristics by which a learning task is judged and include performance statements or descriptions, checklists, and rubrics.

Syntax is the language component that has to do with the way in which words are arranged in a sentence.

Text-dependent questions are those in which the answer can be found directly stated in the text, can be inferred from information in the text, or can be inferred from information in the text combined with the reader's knowledge. The question cannot be answered solely from the reader's knowledge.

Top-down approach refers to deriving meaning by using one's background knowledge, language ability, and expectations. The emphasis is on the reader rather than the text.

Transaction refers to the relationship between the reader and the text in which meaning is created as the text is conditioned by the reader and the reader is conditioned by the text.

Visible learning is an approach to instruction in which goals, criteria for success, progress, next steps, and other key aspects of the learning process are understood by both the teacher and the students.

Zone of proximal development (ZPD) is the difference between independent performance and potential performance as determined through problem solving under the guidance of an adult or more capable peer.

Chapter 2

Teaching All Students

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Learning Objectives

After reading this chapter, you will learn and be able to:

- **2.1** Understand how student composition in today's classrooms has changed and how these diverse populations impact how teachers teach and reach all students.
- **2.2** Develop a literacy program based on the needs and characteristics of diverse student populations.
- **2.3** Adapt instruction to foster the literacy needs of English learners.
- **2.4** Understand the effectiveness of the Response to Intervention and MTSS approaches in ensuring progress for all students.
- **2.5** Accommodate diverse languages, dialects, cultures, and literary heritages.

Anticipation Guide

For each of the following statements related to the chapter you are about to read, select "Agree" or "Disagree" to show how you feel. Discuss your responses with classmates before you read the chapter.

	Agree	Disagree
1. By and large, techniques used to teach average students also work with those who have diverse needs.	○	○
2. Except for a small percentage of students who have severe disabilities, it is possible to bring virtually all students up to a basic level of proficiency.	○	○
3. Economically disadvantaged children may have difficulty learning to read because of challenging life circumstances.	○	○
4. Of all the students with diverse needs, gifted children require the least help.	○	○
5. It is best to teach English learners to read in their native language before teaching them to read in English.	○	○
6. All dialects are of equal value.	○	○

Using What You Know

The United States is the most culturally and linguistically diverse nation in the world. Dozens of languages are spoken in U.S. schools, and dozens of cultures are represented. Adding to that diversity is the trend toward inclusion. Increasingly, students who have learning or reading disabilities, visual or hearing impairments, emotional or health problems, or other challenges are being taught in regular classrooms. Because these students have special needs, their programs may have to be adjusted so that they can reach their full potential. Adjustments also need to be made for students who are economically disadvantaged or who are still learning English. The gifted and talented also have special needs and require assistance to reach their full potential. What has been your experience teaching students from other cultures or students who are just learning to speak English? What has been your experience with students who have special needs? Think of some special needs students you have known. What provisions did the school make for these students? Could the school have done more? If so, what? What are some adjustments that you make now or might make in the future for such students?

Diversity in Today's Schools

FYI

There is a large, long-standing gap between white and black students and white and Hispanic students. However, in the past 40 years, the gap has been cut in half but is still substantial (Reardon, Kalogrides, & Shores, 2017).

Classrooms are becoming increasingly diverse. Forty-eight percent of public school students are considered to be part of a racial or ethnic minority group, an increase from 22 percent in 1972 (Aud, Wilkinson-Flicker, Kristapovich, Rathbun, Wang, & Zhang, 2013). The increase is mainly due to the growth in the number of Hispanic students. Hispanic students currently represent 23 percent of public school enrollment, up from 6 percent in 1972. Some 18 percent of school-age children are living in poverty (Semega, Kayla, Fontenot, & Kollar, 2017).

Adding to this linguistic, ethnic, racial, and economic diversity in today's classrooms is the inclusion of students with special needs: students who have learning or reading disabilities or physical or emotional difficulties, or who need to be challenged because of special gifts or talents they possess. About 6.7 million students, or 13 percent of the school population, is served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA; McFarland et al., 2018). In the typical classroom, as many as one student in three may be in need of some sort of differentiation or extra attention to reach his or her full literacy potential.