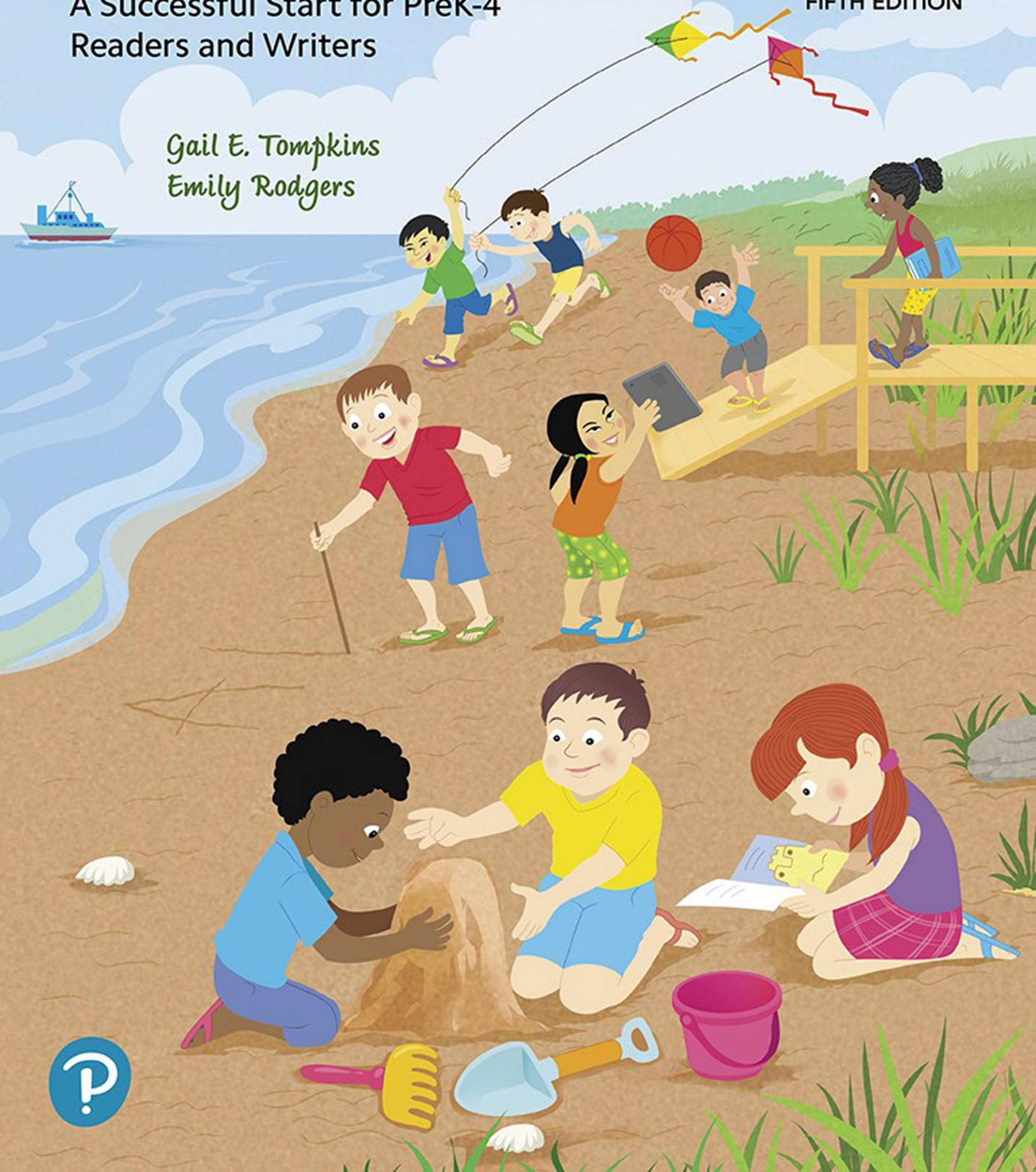# Literacy in the Early Grades

A Successful Start for PreK-4 Readers and Writers

FIFTH EDITION

Gail E. Tompkins

Emily Rodgers

Literacy in the Early Grades

A Successful Start for PreK–4 Readers and Writers

Fifth Edition

Gail E. Tompkins
Late of California State University, Fresno

Emily Rodgers
The Ohio State University

P Pearson

P Pearson

Pearson Education dedicates this book
to Gail E. Tompkins, one of our most gifted writers.
Her talent was valued not only by Pearson but also by
many literacy and language arts professors who recognized her ability
to make research practical and teaching accessible for their students.
Gail understood the literacy needs of children
and also the essential role teachers play in meeting those needs.
She masterfully wrote and deeply cared about both.

For my nephew Travis and his wife Andrea;
and for all the other early career teachers who, like them,
are making a difference in the
lives of their students.

Emily Rodgers

Dear Reader,

I was delighted to be invited to co-author this new edition of *Literacy in the Early Grades: A Successful Start for PreK-4 Readers and Writers* with Gail Tompkins. Gail's textbooks for preservice teachers are so well-respected for their depth and detail; as a college professor myself, I leapt at the chance to work alongside her. Sadly, I didn't get a chance to meet Gail; she passed away just as our work together on this text was getting underway. However, after a year immersed in co-authoring this text I feel I know Gail very well. We couldn't collaborate in person or on the phone or via Skype as I was imagining we would, but every time I opened a chapter file to work on, I felt I was in close dialogue with her. Gail's voice is that personal, that caring, about preparing expert literacy teachers of young children.

Like Gail, I was a teacher for several years before undertaking a doctoral degree and eventually going on to earn a position as a professor in a college of education. I started out teaching in a third-grade classroom; it was a beautiful group of young students who taught me so much about the range and variation of strengths, needs, and interests that exist in one class. I can still name all 28 students! (You never forget your first class!)

Though I loved teaching third grade, I became increasingly interested in what the reading specialist was doing with my students when they left my classroom for additional instruction. I realized I really wanted to be the specialist who worked with students who needed something more than classroom instruction. That interest led me to pursue a special education degree in reading, and then I spent several years working with 6th–8th graders who were struggling with classroom instruction.

In my new position as a remedial reading teacher, I learned a lot about assessment, diagnosis, and planning instruction. I also learned something else that led me to a third career change: while studying the records of my 6th–8th grade struggling readers, I realized that nearly every single one of the cumulative records contained teacher comments going as far back as kindergarten identifying reading and writing difficulties. I realized that it was possible to see the trajectory of reading progress going off course at a very early age, and I also realized the importance of early literacy instruction. I also learned that if young students are on a successful track early on, they almost certainly will stay on that track throughout the grades. However, young students who are struggling early on will almost certainly continue to struggle unless they have expert instruction from their teachers to help them catch up.

These realizations about the importance of becoming literate and of closing gaps as soon as they appear spurred me on to study early literacy at a doctoral level. I was fortunate to study at The Ohio State University and to become involved in Reading Recovery at OSU as a trainer of teacher leaders for 15 years. In my role as a faculty member at Ohio State, I have continued to work closely with teachers and young children; I wouldn't have it any other way.

As a teacher of young children, you have in your hands a remarkable opportunity to help beginning readers and writers become literate early on. Know that as a classroom teacher you are your students' first tier of instruction and you are responsible for each and every student in your classroom. Know too that you can make an incredible difference in the lives of young individuals who will soon (perhaps sooner than you can imagine) be college and career ready high school students, due in no small part to your early efforts to set them on a strong path to becoming literate.

This textbook, rich in theory and instruction, will help prepare you for that awesome job. I invite you to dialogue with Gail and me, as you read these chapters. Every word is written with you in mind.

Emily Rodgers
Columbus, Ohio

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Brief Contents

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Contents

Special Features

Teacher Accountability

Instructional Support

Go Digital!

Diverse Learners

Teaching English Learners

If Students Struggle …

Developmentally Responsive Practice

PreK Practices

Developmental Continuum

Assessment Resources

Assessment Tools

Assessment Snapshot

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Preface

Our goal is for all young students to make a successful start in reading and writing. We believe the key to making that happen is for teachers to use a balanced approach that combines explicit instruction, guided practice, and authentic application. Effective teachers know their students and their individual learning needs, and they use this knowledge—and their understanding of how students develop from emergent to beginning to fluent readers and writers—to guide their teaching. This 5th edition of *Literacy in the Early Grades: A Successful Start for PreK–4 Readers and Writers*, provides the background knowledge, modeling, and application tools that will ensure you are well prepared to meet grade-level standards and lead young students to become fluent readers and writers.

New To This Edition

The value of a new edition of the text are the changes that are made to both improve upon the delivery of content and address any concerns text reviewers and users have had. As a result of that review and a careful look at the previous edition, the following is new to this edition:

A NEW AUTHOR! New to this edition is author Dr. Emily Rodgers. Dr. Rodgers is a professor at The Ohio State University and a well-respected educator in the Reading and Literacy in Early and Middle Childhood Area of Study where she mentors graduate students and teaches courses related to early literacy. Her research examines the nature of effective scaffolding in early literacy instruction; effective coaching of teachers; and challenges of reforming, implementing, scaling, and sustaining effective literacy intervention practices. Her research has been published in a number of prestigious peer-reviewed journals including The Reading Teacher, Reading Research Quarterly, Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, and The Journal of Reading Recovery. She has also contributed to the writing of numerous books on literacy. You will benefit from the ideas and updated research she shares in the pages of this text. Welcome, Dr. Rodgers!

ADVANCED ROLE OF LEARNING OUTCOMES.   Chapter topics are organized around the major concepts shared in the learning outcomes. New to this edition, however, is the greater import of ensuring that the outcomes are realized by you. A Study Plan has been carefully developed for you based on these outcomes. As you complete reading major chapter sections, check your own understanding of the content through Practice questions and Quiz Me sections as part of the Self-Check quizzes in your MyLab. In addition, the Application Exercises provide you with teaching artifacts and/or videos that engage you in observing authentic practice, reviewing examples of the literacy development of young students, and using teaching artifacts that model those actual classroom teachers use. You will be asked to engage in what teachers do to monitor or measure student literacy development and to make instructional decisions. Our goal is to support your college methods course experience and help prepare you as well as we can for actual classroom teaching.

REORGANIZED CHAPTER 1.   Chapter 1, *Becoming an Effective Teacher of Reading*, contains the latest standards for literacy, reading, and language arts as recently updated by the national Board for Professional Teaching Standards. The chapter also covers the principles that undergird literacy teaching, but these principles are now organized under four umbrella themes—*Learning and Learning to Read*, *Effective Reading Instruction, Differentiating Instruction to Meet Students' Needs*, and *Linking Assessment to Instruction* which are mapped on to the very latest set of standards from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. These new themes required revising the Learning Outcomes and make this chapter more manageable for teacher educators and as accessible as it is critical for your growth as a teacher candidate.

CLARITY OF CONCEPTS ABOUT ASSESSMENT.   Chapter 3, *Assessing Students' Literacy Development*, covers assessment of student literacy development and now identifies the differences between assessment and evaluation while better explaining the use and value of running records. Rather than support the misperception that error analysis is the same as running records, new discussions and featured examples identify how to capture the errors young students may make in their reading and measure them to determine students' reading levels. Application exercises, both in this chapter and throughout the text, provide opportunities to monitor and assess student work including practice in completing running records. You will find that assessment that informs instruction is an idea threaded throughout this text.

CONCEPTS ABOUT PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS.   Chapter 4 in this text, *Cracking the Alphabetic Code,* has been carefully revised to introduce oral language concepts and phonological awareness before developing an understanding of phonemic awareness and the strategies you need to know to engage students in manipulating sounds. Building a strong foundation for recognizing young students' emergent language skills and phonological awareness will better prepare you for developing phonemic awareness and teaching phonics.

UPDATED RESEARCH.   Wise with each edition is the updating of research where research is new. Those of you who have used this title before will recognize the new citations within chapters and in the chapter end references.

A Focus On Classroom Practice

We have written this text for you. It shares our vision for reading and writing instruction because we know you want to become a successful teacher of reading and writing, capable of using instructional approaches and procedures that unlock the door to reading and writing for young students. Grounding the text in both scientific research and authentic classroom practice, we cover the fundamental components of literacy instruction, illustrate how to teach developmental strategies and skills, and identify how to differentiate instruction to meet the needs of every student in your classroom—students who come to school well prepared for literacy learning and those who struggle with learning to read and write, including students whose first language isn't English. Throughout this text is critical classroom pedagogy organized under five purposeful themes—*teacher accountability, instructional support, developmentally responsive practice, diverse learners,* and *assessment resources.* Text features shared through these themes illustrate the significant roles and responsibilities you'll be expected to undertake in teaching reading and writing to students from PreK through grade 4.

Teacher Accountability

As a teacher, you'll be asked to account for student achievement in reading and writing; your accountability will depend on how you address the Common Core State Standards in your literacy lessons and your successful use of instructional methods. Your knowledge can be significantly advanced through the use of this text and the following distinctive features:

NEW! **MY TEACHING TO-DO CHECKLISTS.** Teaching reading and writing requires understanding a number of important components—the processes of reading and writing, literacy assessment, and the strategies and skills for teaching phonemic awareness and phonics, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, and writing. Along with the instructional knowledge shared in each chapter, we provide *Teaching To-Do Checklists* that will serve as guidelines in your classroom to verify that you've covered key elements for each reading and writing component. You can download these checklists from the eText. Be sure to take them into your classrooms!

COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS. Look for Common Core State Standards boxes that highlight specific English Language Arts Standards you'll be responsible for teaching. These boxes point out how to use grade-level standards to plan concrete and purposeful literacy lessons that align with national and state literacy standards.

MY TEACHING TO-DO CHECKLIST: Comprehension: Reader Factors

- ☐ I teach students to attend to both reader and text factors as they read.
- ☐ I teach comprehension strategies using a combination of explanations, demonstrations, think-alouds, and practice activities.
- ☐ I expect students to apply the strategies they've learned when they're reading independently.
- ☐ I have students apply comprehension strategies in literacy activities as well as in thematic units.
- ☐ I display student-made charts about the strategies in the classroom.
- ☐ I have students read and analyze increasingly complex texts.
- ☐ I have students read grade-appropriate fiction and nonfiction texts.

Common Core State Standards

Comprehension: Reader Factors

The Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts emphasize that students are expected to read a broad range of high-quality and increasingly challenging texts. Students must understand precisely what authors say and make interpretations based on textual evidence. The Standards specify these comprehension requirements:

- Students determine the central ideas of a text and analyze their development.
- Students make connections with background knowledge and other texts.
- Students draw inferences from the textual evidence.
- Students cite textual evidence that supports an analysis of what the text states explicitly.
- Students comprehend grade-level stories, informational books, and other texts independently and proficiently.

The Standards emphasize that students use reader factors to comprehend increasingly complex fiction and nonfiction texts. To learn more about the Standards, go to http://www.corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy, or check your state's educational standards website.

Teach Kids to Be Strategic!

Comprehension Strategies

Teach students to apply these strategies (presented here in alphabetical order):

- Activate background knowledge
- Connect
- Determine importance
- Draw inferences
- Evaluate
- Monitor
- Predict
- Question
- Repair
- Set a purpose
- Summarize
- Visualize

Students learn to use each strategy and make posters to highlight their new knowledge. They apply strategies as they read and use self-stick notes to record their strategy use. Monitor students' growing use of strategies during independent reading activities, and if they struggle, reteach the strategies, making sure to name them and model their use.

TEACH KIDS TO BE STRATEGIC! This feature will be invaluable to use in the classroom. Specific guidelines list the strategies you need to teach and then explain what to check for to ensure that students are applying them. Utilizing these features will help you and your students meet grade-level standards. Be sure to use them in your classroom!

NEW! ACCOUNTABILITY CHECK Located at the end of each chapter are MyLab: Application Exercises. These self-assessment questions and application activities allow you to test your knowledge of the chapter content. Interactive activities, *Monitoring Literacy Development* and *Assessing Literacy Development,* appear in every chapter, asking you to apply your understanding of students' literacy development and classroom practice and make instructional decisions based on that understanding.

Instructional Support

Balance is critical to teaching reading and writing: balancing the teaching of reading and writing, balancing explicit instruction with practice, and balancing the use of assessment to inform instruction. Knowing how to balance the teaching of reading and writing strategies—when, why, and how—is a significant part of teacher preparation. The following features illustrate explicit instructional procedures, identifying when, why, and how to use them. Many are supported by specific and authentic teaching examples.

First Grade Phonics Instruction

It's 8:10 on Thursday morning, and the 19 first graders in Mrs. Firpo's classroom gathered on the carpet for their 15-minute phonemic awareness lesson. This w topic is the short *i* sound and the consonant *x* which sounds like /ks/ like fox; Mrs. Firpo will focus on short *i*. One by one, she holds up cards with pictures repr ing the short *i* sound. "Remember," Mrs. Firpo adds, "say the word slowly, just

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CHAPTER-OPENING VIGNETTES. As a signature feature of this text, chapter-opening stories describe how effective teachers integrate the teaching of reading and writing to maximize your understanding of classroom practice.

MINILESSONS. Each of these popular step-by-step features models a clear and concise instructional strategy or skill and is meant to serve as a ready tool for your classroom teaching.

Minilesson

TOPIC: Spelling *-at* Family Words
GRADE: First Grade
TIME: One 10-minute period

Mr. Cheng teaches phonics during guided reading lessons. He introduces, practices, and reviews phonics concepts using words from selections his first graders are reading. The students decode and spell words using letter and word cards, magnetic letters, and small whiteboards and pens.

1. Introduce the Topic

Mr. Cheng holds up a copy of *At Home*, the small paperback Level E book the students read yesterday, and asks them to reread the title. Then he asks the students to identify the first word, *at*. After they read the word, he hands a card with the word *at* written on it to each of the six students in the guided reading group. "Who can read this word?" he asks. Several students recognize it immediately, and others carefully sound out the two-letter word.

BOOKLISTS. Quality books support students' development of literacy and advance their fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Booklists appear throughout the chapters to identify grade-appropriate literature for your classroom or point you to literature your students can read independently.

Booklist Wordplay Books

Type	Books
Invented Words	Degan, B. (1985). *Jamberry*. Hutchins, P. (2002). *Don't forget the bacon!* Martin, B., Jr., & Archambault, J. (2009). *Chicka chicka boom boom*. Most, B. (1996). *Cock-a-doodle-moo!* Slate, J. (1996). *Miss Bindergarten gets ready for kindergarten*. Slepian, J., & Seidler, A. (2001). *The hungry thing*.
Repetitive Lines	Deming, A. G. (1994). *Who is tapping at my window?*. Downey, L. (2000). *The flea's sneeze*. Fleming, D. (2007). *In the small, small pond*. Hoberman, M. A. (2003). *The lady with the alligator purse*. Taback, S. (1997). *There was an old lady who swallowed a fly*. Taback, S. (2004). *This is the house that Jack built*. Westcott, N. B. (2003). *I know an old lady who swallowed a fly*. Wilson, K. (2003). *A frog in a bag*.
Rhyming Words	Ehlert, L. (1993). *Eating the alphabet: Fruits and vegetables from A to Z*. McPhail, D. (1996). *Pigs aplenty, pigs galore*. Root, P. (2003). *One duck stuck*. Seuss, Dr. (1963). *Hop on pop*. Shaw, N. (2006). *Sheep in a jeep*.

STUDENT ARTIFACTS. Nothing illustrates connected teaching and learning better than authentic artifacts of students' work. This text is peppered with examples of students' developmental writing performance to help you learn to recognize grade-appropriate writing development.

SCAFFOLDING STUDENTS' READING DEVELOPMENT. Five instructional approaches—*guided reading lessons*, *basal reading programs*, *literature focus units*, *literature circles*, and *reading and writing workshop*—provide concrete means for teaching reading and writing. Chapter 10 reviews these approaches, illustrating organization of your reading and writing instruction including how to plan for and manage each one. You can examine which makes the most sense for your classroom planning in alignment with the requirements of the school district for which you work.

GO DIGITAL! In many schools across the country, teachers engage students in digital learning. Our Go Digital! features provide practical ideas and guidance for using specific programs and products that will benefit you or your students in the use of technology and the development of media skills.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES AS POP-UP FEATURES. Throughout this text, **boldface, green** terms identify printable pop-up features that show how to engage in a variety of step-by-step instructional procedures. A fully developed bank of these evidence-based teaching procedures is located in the Compendium at the back of the text. The pop-ups display the step-by-step procedures in brief; the Compendium offers more complete descriptions, including research that supports the use of each procedure.

Diverse Learners

No two students in any classroom are alike. Students come to school with different language experiences and literacy opportunities. They also differ in the way they learn and in the languages they speak. This text describes the vast diversity of students and explain what it means to differentiate instruction to meet individual student's literacy needs.

Connecting.   Students make personal connections as they think about errands they've run with their fathers, remember their favorite stuffed animals, and recall when younger brothers and sisters were learning to talk.

Drawing Inferences.   Students make these three inferences: First, they infer that Trixie and her daddy Thomas have to take their dirty clothes to the laundromat. In the middle of the story, students infer that Trixie's temper tantrum occurred when she realized that they forgot Knuffle Bunny. And finally, they infer that Trixie's parents are running to the laundromat to find Knuffle Bunny quickly.

Figure 8-2 Comprehension Strategies

Activating Background Knowledge	Readers make connections between what they already know and the information in the text.	Readers use their background knowledge to fill i enhance their comprehension.

TEACHING ENGLISH LEARNERS. Each expanded chapter section focuses on ways to scaffold students who are learning to read and write at the same time they're learning to speak English. These sections provide in-depth guidance for planning instruction that addresses the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students.

IF STUDENTS STRUGGLE . . . These text sections describe ways to intervene after an assessment indicates students aren't making adequate progress or meeting a grade-level standard. These suggestions for classroom intervention detail ways to assist struggling readers and writers.

Developmentally Responsive Practice

Effective teaching requires fine-tuning the ability to determine where each child is in his or her literacy development. Features in this text support the development of teaching skills that lead to decision making based on knowledge of students' current level of literacy progress. Many new application exercises, including those at the ends of every chapter, will help you practice developmental decision making.

PREK PRACTICES. PreK Practices draw your attention to the most appropriate instruction for the youngest of literacy learners and especially for four-year-olds.

Developmental Continuum Phonemic Awareness					
PreK	**K**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Four-year-olds become aware of words as units of sound as they play with sounds and create rhymes.	Students pronounce sounds and isolate, match, and manipulate them as they learn to blend and segment.	Students use the blending strategy to decode words and the segmenting strategy to spell words.	Second graders continue to use blending and segmenting to decode and spell more challenging words.	Students apply phonemic awareness strategies to decode and spell two- and three-syllable words.	Fourth graders blend and segment sounds as they read and spell multisyllabic words with roots and affixes.

DEVELOPMENTAL CONTINUUM. The Developmental Continuum features typical expectations for students' literacy accomplishments at each grade—prekindergarten through fourth grade—and will help you understand how students grow as readers and writers. Developmental Continuums appear for *reading and writing development*, *phonemic awareness*, *phonics*, *spelling*, *reading and writing fluency*, *vocabulary*, and *comprehension* for both reader and text factors.

Assessment Resources

Assessment requires teachers to plan for, monitor, and evaluate students' literacy progress. Although summative assessment is often a part of a formal all-grade-level or whole-school program, formative assessment measures are typically chosen by and used at the discretion of classroom teachers. Within each chapter, we provide a variety of authentic assessment examples so you can learn how to plan for assessment that measures what's intended, glean ongoing information on student progress, and tailor instruction to meet student needs. Recording assessment data on a frequent basis assists in documenting student progress and achievement.

ASSESSING STUDENTS' LITERACY DEVELOPMENT. Chapter 3 is placed early in the text to lay the groundwork for assessing in line with backward design, ensuring that you know how you're going to measure literacy progress as you set literacy goals. Information in this chapter addresses how to use student performance to inform instructional planning.

INSTRUCTION–ASSESSMENT CYCLE. Effective teachers engage in a four-step cycle that links instructional planning with assessment. The Instruction-Assessment Cycle identifies how teachers plan for, monitor, evaluate, and reflect on instruction that is informed by assessment.

ASSESSMENT TOOLS. Descriptions throughout the text identify well-respected and widely used assessment tools that measure literacy development. Teachers are responsible for knowing about these assessment choices, when it's appropriate to use them, and the kinds of screening or diagnostic information they impart.

Assessment Tools

Comprehension

Teachers use a combination of informal assessment procedures, including story retellings and think-alouds, and commercially available tests to measure students' comprehension. These tests are often used in PreK through fourth grade classrooms:

- **Comprehension Thinking Strategies Assessment**
  The Comprehension Thinking Strategies Assessment (Keene, 2006) examines first through eighth graders' ability to use these strategies to think about fiction and nonfiction texts: activating background knowledge, determining importance, drawing inferences, noticing text structure, questioning, setting a purpose, and visualizing. As students read a passage, they pause and reflect on their strategy use. Teachers score students' responses using a rubric. This 30-minute test can be administered to individuals or to the class, depending on whether students' responses are oral or written. This flexible assessment tool can be used to evaluate students' learning after teaching a strategy, to survey progres[...] end of the yea[...]

ASSESSMENT SNAPSHOTS. Chapters include a variety of authentic examples of assessment that portray the literacy performance of various students. Teacher notes are overlaid on each assessment example and illustrate the information teachers gather from assessment and what that information may mean to guide further instruction. You'll have the opportunity to examine assessment samples and draw your own conclusions in many of the *MyLab Application Exercises*.

Assessment Snapshot

Spelling Analysis

I worked hard as a reasearcher. I took my time on pickers and handwriting. I read books too. After that I wrote the facks down on indecks cards. I laid them owt and then numberd them. My favorit part was when I figred owt I was stdying my first choyce.

TEACHER'S NOTE
Tatum spelled 88% of the words correctly, and most errors were representative of the Within-Word Pattern stage. These errors indicate that she's investigating ways to spell complex consonant and vowel sounds. She also wrote 10 two- and three-syllable words and spelled three correctly. Tatum's moving into the Syllables and Affixes stage; her spelling development meets grade-level standards.

Classification of Errors

Letter Name-Alphabetic	Within-Word Pattern	Syllables and Affixes	Derivational Relations
	pickers	reasearcher	
	facks	numberd	
	indecks	favorit	
	owt	figred	
	owt		
	stdying		
	choyce		

Acknowledgements

Introducing
Ms. Janusz and Her Second Graders

Classrooms are different today; they've become communities of learners. There's a hum as students read together, share their writing, and work in small groups. Students are more culturally and linguistically diverse, and many are English learners. Teachers guide and nurture learning through their instructional programs. Here's what teachers do:

- Balance explicit instruction with authentic application
- Integrate reading and writing
- Teach with trade books as well as textbooks
- Differentiate instruction so every student can succeed
- Link assessments and instruction

To show what literacy looks like in a real classroom, Ms. Janusz and five of her second graders are featured in Literacy Portraits throughout this text. You can track these students' literacy development by reviewing their monthly video clips in the Video Resources located on the navigation bar of the *Pearson eText* and within chapters. Four of these students—Rakie, Rhiannon, Michael, and Curt'Lynn—began second grade not meeting grade-level expectations. Jimmy, however, exemplifies second-grade standards and provides a grade-level comparison. All of the students have shown tremendous growth during the school year, becoming more capable readers and writers.

Rakie

Rakie's favorite color is pink, and she loves her cat, JoJo. She came to America from Africa when she was very young, and she's currently enrolled in the school's pull-out ESL program. Rakie enjoys reading books with friends in the library area. Her favorite book is Doreen Cronin's *Click Clack Moo: Cows That Type* because she appreciates that troublesome duck. Rakie's a fluent reader, but she has difficulty understanding what she reads, mainly because of unfamiliar vocabulary, a common problem for English learners. Rakie's bright, and Ms. Janusz is pleased she is making great strides!

A minte leter I opened the door and Jojo was foze in a ice cobe.

Rhiannon

Rhiannon, the youngest in Ms. Janusz's class, is a charmer. Her gusto for life is contagious! In September, she held books upside down, but she's made tremendous progress since then. Mo Willems is her favorite author; she loves his stories, including *Don't Let the Pigeon Drive the Bus!* She struggles to decode unfamiliar words, usually depending on the "sound it out" strategy. Rhiannon is passionate about writing. She creates inventive stories about her dogs, Taco and Tequila, and gets very animated when sharing them with classmates, but abbreviated spellings make her writing difficult to read.

> I soD it to my DaD. B u D up! So I pot Logr cLos onanD pas anD soD It to my DaD. B u D u p!

Michael

Michael is gregarious and loves fun in any size or shape. He takes karate lessons and his Xbox video gaming system is a prized possession. In September, Michael, who is bilingual, was reading below grade level and couldn't stay on task, but after Ms. Janusz encouraged him to choose books that he wanted to read and to identify topics for writing, his motivation began to grow. Now, he is making rapid progress! He's not crazy about reading except for *The Magic Tree House* series of chapter books, but he really enjoys writing. He says that his stories are good because he uses wordplay effectively.

> Beep beep beep beep it was 9:00 am. I new I had to wacke up. I toock my first Step, Slip the floTs were frozen Solid.

Jimmy

Jimmy's a big sports fan—he likes the Cleveland Indians and the Ohio State Buckeyes, in particular—but his real passion is World War II. He likes to play Army with his best friend, Sam. Jimmy often chooses nonfiction books on varied topics to read; recently, he read a biography about rock-and-roll idol Elvis Presley. Jimmy's a bright student who achieves at or about grade level in all subjects. He's eager to please and worries about making a mistake when he's sharing his writing or reading aloud. In September, Jimmy had trouble with comprehension, but now he's a confident, strategic reader.

It was a haunted house! The door creKed opin. "BOO!" said a ghost. And Lady was gone! "AAAA!" said Jim.

Curt'Lynn

Curt'Lynn enjoys playing with her buddies Leah and Audri at recess and spending time with her Granny. Her reading was at early-first grade level at the beginning of second grade. Before second grade, she often "read" books to herself, telling the story through the illustrations. Now Curt'Lynn loves to read Dr. Seuss books because they're funny. Her focus is on decoding words, but she's beginning to think about whether the words she's reading make sense. Curt'Lynn recognizes that her reading has been improving this year because, as she explains, it's becoming easier to get words right.

When I was just 4 years old, I was a cherLeedre Because I rill wueted to be a cherLeedre.

Chapter 1
Becoming an Effective Teacher of Reading

⌄ Learning Outcomes

After studying this chapter, you'll be prepared to:

1.1 Identify key characteristics of four different perspectives about learning.

1.2 Explain what is meant by "a balanced approach" to instruction.

1.3 Explain how and why teachers differentiate instruction.

1.4 Describe how teachers link instruction and assessment.

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Effective teachers are the key to ensuring that students learn to read and write successfully. Most researchers agree that teacher quality is the most important factor in determining how well students learn (Vandevoort, Amrein-Beardsley, & Berliner, 2004). Teachers need to be knowledgeable about how students learn to read and write, how to teach literacy, and how to respond to the needs of those learning English as a new language.

Today, teachers are held accountable for their effectiveness. In 2002, the federal No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act ushered in a new era by holding schools responsible for educating all students to meet mandated standards. Teachers have always been responsible for advancing their students' achievement, but NCLB led to annual standardized tests, beginning in second grade, to measure students' achievement; then the scores were used to determine whether teachers and schools were effective.

President Obama called for "a new culture of accountability"—one that builds on NCLB (Dinan, 2009). He described these components of accountability: better tracking of teachers' performance, higher standards for teachers, and assistance for teachers who aren't effective. He also recommended that exemplary teachers be recognized for their effectiveness and that they be asked to serve as mentors or lead teachers in their schools. Obama's notion of teacher accountability still translates to how well students perform on standardized tests, but new ways of determining teacher effectiveness are on the horizon; one of the most promising involves evaluating teachers against the characteristics of effective teachers.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2012) developed a system of standards that represents a national consensus about what makes teachers effective. These 13 standards describe what teachers need to know and do to support students' learning:

Knowledge of Learners.   Accomplished teachers draw on their relationships with students as well as their knowledge of literacy and child development to acquire knowledge of their students as intellectual, social, emotional, cultural, and language learners.

Equity, Fairness, and Diversity.   Accomplished teachers practice equity and fairness; they value diversity and diverse perspectives. They teach all students to know and respect themselves and others and to use literacy practices to promote social justice.

Learning Environment.   Accomplished teachers establish a caring, supportive, inclusive, challenging, democratic, and safe learning community in which students take intellectual, social, and emotional risks while working both independently and collaboratively.

Instruction.   Accomplished teachers employ rich instructional resources and provide instruction that is tailored to the unique needs of students in order to foster inquiry; facilitate learning; and build strategic, independent thinkers who understand the power of language.

Assessment.   Accomplished teachers use a range of ongoing formal and informal assessment methods and strategies to gather data in order to shape and drive instructional decisions, monitor individual student progress, guide student self-assessment, gather information to communicate to various audiences, and engage in ongoing reflection.

Reading.   Accomplished teachers use their knowledge of the reading processes, their students, and the dynamic connections within the other language arts to create effective instruction so that all readers construct meaning and develop an enduring appreciation of reading.

Writing.   Accomplished teachers use their knowledge of writing processes, language acquisition, writing development, and ongoing assessment to provide authentic and relevant instruction that prepares students to write for a variety of purposes and audiences.

Listening and Speaking.   Accomplished teachers know, value, and teach oral language development, listening, and both verbal and nonverbal communication skills as essential components of literacy,. They also provide opportunities for all students to listen and speak for a variety of purposes and audiences.

Viewing and Visual Literacy.   Accomplished teachers know, value, and teach viewing and visual literacy as essential components of literacy instruction in order to prepare students to interpret and interact with an increasingly visual world.

Literacy Across the Curriculum.   Accomplished teachers understand the reciprocal and interrelated nature of the literacy processes of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and viewing and engage students in language arts processes in all disciplines.

Teacher as Learner and Reflective Practitioner.   Accomplished teachers seek to improve their knowledge and practice through a recursive process of learning and reflecting.

Collaboration with Families and Communities.   Accomplished teachers develop positive and mutually supportive relationships with family and community members to achieve common goals for the literacy education of all students.

Professional Responsibility.   Accomplished teachers actively contribute to the improvement of literacy teaching and learning and to the advancement of literacy knowledge and practice for the profession.

To read more about these characteristics, go the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards website (http://www.nbpts.org).

The goal of literacy instruction is to ensure that all students reach their full literacy potential, and in that light, this chapter introduces eight principles of balanced literacy instruction. These principles are stated in terms of what effective teachers do, and they provide the foundation for the chapters that follow. The eight principles are grouped into four themes: *learning and learning to read*, *effective reading instruction*, *adjusting instruction to meet the needs of individual learners,* and *linking assessment to instructional planning*.

Theme 1: Learning and Learning to Read

Teaching requires that teachers understand how students learn and theories of learning form a foundation for that understanding. Teachers who are knowledgeable about learning are prepared to create a community of learners—a setting conducive to literacy instruction. And literacy instruction is informed by four cueing systems that serve as the underpinning of language. Effective teachers recognize the role that each of these three principles—knowledge about learning, a community of learners, and language cueing systems—play in the teaching of reading and writing.

Principle 1: Effective Teachers Are Knowledgeable About Learning

Until the 1960s, behaviorism—a teacher-centered theory—was the dominant view; since then, student-centered theories that advocate students' active engagement in authentic literacy activities have become more influential. These student-centered views about learning can be grouped into three distinct approaches: constructivism, sociolinguistics, and information processing. Tracey and Morrow (2006) argue that multiple theoretical perspectives improve the quality of literacy instruction, and the stance advocated in this text is that instruction should represent a realistic balance between teacher-and student-centered theories. Figure 1–1 presents an overview of these theories.

BEHAVIORISM.   Behaviorists focus on the observable and measurable aspects of students' behavior. They believe that behavior can be learned or unlearned as the result of stimulus-and-response actions (O'Donohue & Kitchener, 1998). Reading

Figure 1–1 Learning Theories

ORIENTATION	THEORY	CHARACTERISTICS	APPLICATIONS
Teacher-Centered	Behaviorism	• Focuses on observable changes in behavior • Views the teacher's role as providing information and supervising practice • Describes learning as the result of stimulus–response actions • Uses incentives and rewards for motivation	• Basal readers • Minilessons • Worksheets
Student-Centered	Constructivism	• Describes learning as the active construction of knowledge • Recognizes the importance of background knowledge • Views learners as innately curious • Suggests ways to engage students so they can be successful	• Literature focus units • KWL charts • Thematic units • Word sorts
	Sociolinguistics	• Emphasizes the importance of language and social interaction on learning • Views reading and writing as social and cultural activities • Explains that students learn best through authentic activities • Describes the teacher's role as scaffolding students' learning	• Literature circles • Shared reading • Reading and writing workshop • Author's chair
	Information Processing	• Recommends integrating reading and writing • Views reading and writing as meaning-making processes • Explains that readers' interpretations are individualized • Describes students as strategic readers and writers	• Guided reading • Graphic organizers • Grand conversations • Interactive writing

is viewed as a conditioned response. This theory is described as teacher-centered because it focuses on the teacher's role as a dispenser of knowledge. Skinner (1974) explained that students learn to read by mastering a series of discrete skills and subskills.

Teachers use explicit instruction to teach skills in a planned, sequential order. Information is presented in small steps and reinforced through practice activities until students achieve mastery because each step is built on the previous one. Students practice skills by completing fill-in-the-blank worksheets, and they usually work individually, not in small groups or with a classmate. Behavior modification is another key feature: Teachers control and motivate students through a combination of rewards and punishments.

CONSTRUCTIVISM. Constructivist theorists describe students as active and engaged learners who construct their own knowledge; learning occurs when students integrate new information with their existing knowledge. This theory is student-centered because teachers engage students with experiences so that they can construct their own knowledge.

Schema Theory.   Knowledge is organized into cognitive structures called **schemas**, and schema theory describes how students learn. Jean Piaget (1969) explained that learning is the modification of schemas as students actively interact with their environment. Imagine that the brain is a mental filing cabinet, and that new information is organized with existing knowledge in the filing system. When students are already familiar with a topic, the new information is added to a mental file, or schema, in a revision process called **assimilation**, but when students study a new topic, they create a new mental file and place the information in it; this more difficult construction process is **accommodation**. Everyone's cognitive structure is different, reflecting knowledge and past experiences.

Inquiry Learning.   John Dewey (1997) advocated an inquiry approach to develop citizens who could participate fully in democracy (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). He theorized that learners are innately curious and actively create their own knowledge. He also concluded that collaboration, not competition, is more conducive to learning. Students collaborate to conduct investigations in which they ask questions, seek information, and create new knowledge to solve problems.

Engagement Theory.   Theorists have examined students' interest in reading and writing and found that engaged learners are intrinsically motivated; they do more reading and writing, enjoy these activities, and reach higher levels of achievement (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Engaged learners have **self-efficacy**, or confidence that they'll reach their goals (Bandura, 1997). Students with high self-efficacy are resilient and persistent, despite obstacles that get in the way of their success. These theorists believe that students are more engaged when they participate in authentic literacy activities in a nurturing classroom community.

SOCIOLINGUISTICS.   Lev Vygotsky (1978, 1986) theorized that language organizes thought and is a learning tool. He recommended that teachers incorporate opportunities for students to talk with classmates as part of the learning process. Vygotsky realized that students can accomplish more challenging tasks in collaboration with adults than they can on their own but that they learn little by performing easy tasks that they can already do independently; he recommended that teachers focus instruction on students' **zone of proximal development**—the level between their actual development and their potential development. As students learn, teachers gradually withdraw their support so that students eventually perform the task independently. Then the cycle begins again.

Sociocultural Theory.   Reading and writing are viewed as social activities that reflect the culture and community students live in (Moll & Gonzales, 2004). Sociocultural theorists explain that students from varied cultures have different expectations about literacy and preferred ways of learning. Teachers apply this theory as they create culturally responsive classrooms that empower everyone—including those from marginalized groups—to become successful readers and writers (Keehne, Sarsona, Kawakami, & Au, 2018). They're respectful of all students and confident in their ability to learn.

Teachers often use powerful multicultural literature to develop students' cross-cultural awareness, including *Goin' Somewhere Special* (McKissack, 2001), about the mistreatment of black students in the segregated South; *Esperanza Rising* (Ryan, 2002), about a Mexican American girl who creates a new future for herself; and *Happy Birthday Mr. Kang* (Roth, 2001), about a Chinese-American grandfather who learns a lesson about freedom. The Booklist presents these and other multicultural books.

Culturally responsive teaching acknowledges the legitimacy of all students' cultures and social customs and teaches students to appreciate their classmates' diverse heritages. This theory emphasizes that teachers must be responsive to their students' instructional needs. When students aren't successful, teachers examine their instructional practices and make changes so that all students become capable readers and writers.

Situated Learning Theory.   Learning takes place as a function of the activity, context, and culture in which it occurs (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Situated learning theory rejects the notion of separating learning to do something from actually doing it and emphasizes the importance of apprenticeship, where beginners move from the edge of a learning community to its center as they develop expertise (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Just as chefs learn as they work in restaurants, students learn best through authentic and meaningful activities. They join a community of learners and become more expert readers and writers through interaction with classmates. The teacher serves as an expert model, much like a chef does.

Critical Literacy.   Freire (2000) called for sweeping educational change so that students examine fundamental questions about justice and equity. Critical literacy theorists view language as a means for social action and advocate that students become agents of social change (Johnson & Freedman, 2005). This theory has a

Booklist Multicultural Books

Culture	Books
African American	Bridges, R. (1999). *Through my eyes*. McKissack, P. (2001). *Goin' somewhere special*. Rappaport, D. (2007). *Martin's big words: The life of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.* Ringgold, F. (1996). *Tar beach*. Williams, V. B. (1984). *A chair for my mother*. Woodson, J. (2005). *Show way*.
Arab American	Bunting, E. (2006). *One green apple*. Mobin-Uddin, A. (2005). *My name is Bilal*. Nye, N. S. (1997). *Sitti's secrets*. Perkins, M. (2008). *Rickshaw girl*. Wolf, B. (2003). *Coming to America: A Muslim family's story*.
Asian American	Choi, Y. (2003). *The name jar*. Look, L. (2006). *Ruby Lu, brave and true*. Park, L. S. (2008). *Bee-bim bop!* Roth, S. (2001). *Happy birthday Mr. Kang*. Say, A. (2008). *Grandfather's journey*. Yang, B. (2007). *Hannah is my name: A young immigrant's story*.
Hispanic American	Adler, D. A., & Adler, M. S. (2011). *A picture book of Cesar Chavez*. Bunting, E. (1998). *Going home*. Dorros, A. (1997). *Abuela*. Ryan, P. M. (2002). *Esperanza rising*. Soto, G. (1996). *Too many tamales*. Tonatiuh, D. (2010). *Dear Primo: A letter to my cousin*.
Native American	Baylor, B. (1986). *Amigo*. Baylor, B. (1986). *The way to start a day*. Bruchac, J. (1997). *13 moons on a turtle's back*. Martin, B., Jr., & Archambault, J. (1997). *Knots on a counting rope*. McDermott, G. (2001). *Raven: A trickster tale from the Pacific Northwest*.

political agenda, and the increasing social and cultural diversity in American society adds urgency to resolving inequities and injustices. One way that students examine social issues is by reading books such as *Smoky Night* (Bunting, 1999), a Caldecott Medal–winning story about overcoming racism set during the Los

Booklist Books That Foster Critical Literacy

Grades	Books
PreK–K	Boelts, M. (2009). *Those shoes*. DiSalvo-Ryan, D. (1994). *City green*. McBrier, P. (2004). *Beatrice's goat*. Recorvits, H. (2003). *My name is Yoon*. Winter, J. (2008). *Wangari's trees of peace: A true story from Africa*.
1–2	Bunting, E. (1997). *A day's work*. Bunting, E. (2006). *One green apple*. Choi, Y. (2003). *The name jar*. DiSalvo, D. (2001). *A castle on Viola Street*. DiSalvo-Ryan, D. (1997). *Uncle Willie and the soup kitchen*. Golenbock, P. (1992). *Teammates*. Pinkney, A. D. (2003). *Fishing day*. Uchida, Y. (1996). *The bracelet*. Wiles, D. (2005). *Freedom summer*. Woodson, J. (2001). *The other side*.
3–4	Bridges, R. (1999). *Through my eyes*. Bunting, E. (1999). *Smoky night*. Coleman, E. (1999). *White socks only*. Deedy, C. A. (2009). *14 cows for America*. Gunning, M. (2004). *A shelter in our car*. McGovern, A. (1999). *The lady in the box*. Ringgold, F. (2003). *If a bus could talk: The story of Rosa Parks*. Ryan, P. M. (2002). *Esperanza rising*. Tamar, E. (1996). *The garden of happiness*. Weatherford, C. B. (2007). *Freedom on the menu: The Greensboro sit-ins*.

Angeles riots. This story and others presented in this Booklist address injustices that students can discuss and understand (Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2008).

INFORMATION PROCESSING.   Information-processing theory compares the mind to a computer and describes how information moves through a series of processing units—sensory register, short-term memory, and long-term memory—as it's stored (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). There's also a control mechanism that oversees learning. Theorists create models of the reading and writing processes to describe the complicated, interactive workings of the mind (Hayes, 2004; Kintsch, 2013; Rumelhart, 2013). They believe that reading and writing are related, and their models describe a two-way flow of information between what readers and writers know and the words written on the page.

Interactive Models. Reading and writing are interactive meaning-making processes. The interactive model emphasizes that readers focus on comprehension and construct meaning using a combination of reader-based and text-based information. This model also includes an executive monitor that oversees students' attention, determines whether what they're reading makes sense, and takes action when problems arise (Ruddell & Unrau, 2013).

Hayes's (2004) model of writing describes what writers do as they write. It emphasizes that writing is also an interactive, meaning-making process. Students move through a series of stages as they plan, draft, revise, and edit their writing to ensure that readers will understand what they've written. Writers use the same control mechanism that readers do to make plans, select strategies, and solve problems.

Transactional Theory.   Rosenblatt's transactional theory (2013) explains how readers create meaning. She describes comprehension as the result of a two-way transaction between the reader and the text. Instead of trying to figure out the author's meaning, readers negotiate an interpretation based on the text and their knowledge about literature and the world. Interpretations are individualized because each student brings different knowledge and experiences to the reading event. Even though interpretations vary, they must be substantiated by the text.

Strategic Behaviors. Students employ strategic or goal-oriented behaviors to direct their thinking. Cognitive strategies, such as visualizing, organizing, and revising, are used to achieve a goal, and metacognitive strategies, such as monitoring and repairing, determine whether that goal is reached (Dean, 2006; Pressley, 2002). The word **metacognition** is often defined as "thinking about your own thinking," but more accurately, it refers to a sophisticated level of thought that people use to control their thinking (Baker, 2008). Metacognition is a control mechanism; it involves both students' awareness and active control of thinking.

Principle 2: Effective Teachers Create a Community of Learners

Classrooms are social settings. Together, students and their teacher create a classroom community, and the environment strongly influences the learning that takes place (Angelillo, 2008; Bullard, 2010). The classroom community should be inviting, supportive, and safe so learners will actively participate in reading and writing experiences. Perhaps the most striking quality is the partnership between the teacher and students: They become a "family" in which all members respect one another and support each other's learning. Students value culturally and linguistically diverse classmates and recognize that everyone makes important contributions.

Think about the differences between renting and owning a home. In a classroom community, students and the teacher are joint "owners" who assume responsibility for

their behavior and learning, work collaboratively with classmates, complete assign-ments, and care for the classroom. In traditional classrooms, in contrast, the classroom belongs to the teacher and students are "renters" for the school year. Joint ownership doesn't mean that teachers abdicate their responsibility; on the contrary, they're the guides, instructors, coaches, and evaluators.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A CLASSROOM COMMUNITY.   A successful classroom community has specific, identifiable characteristics that are conducive to learning:

Safety.   The classroom is a safe place that promotes in-depth learning and nurtures students' physical and emotional well-being.

Respect.   Students and the teacher are respectful of each other. Harassment, bullying, and verbal abuse aren't tolerated, and cultural, linguistic, and learning differences are respected so that students feel comfortable and valued.

High Expectations.   Teachers set high expectations and emphasize that all students can be successful. Their expectations promote a positive classroom environment where students behave appropriately and develop self-confidence.

Risk-Taking.   Teachers encourage students to explore new topics, try unfamiliar activities, and develop higher level thinking skills.

Collaboration.   Students work with classmates on literacy activities and other proj-ects. Working together provides scaffolding and enhances their achievement.

Choice.   Students make choices about books they read, topics they write about, and projects they pursue within parameters set by the teacher. When students make choices, they're more motivated to succeed, and they value the activity.

Family Involvement.   Teachers involve parents in classroom activities and develop home–school connections through special programs and regular communication because when parents are involved, students' achievement increases (Edwards, 2004).

These characteristics emphasize the teacher's role in creating an inviting, supportive, and safe classroom climate.

HOW TO CREATE THE CLASSROOM CULTURE.   Teachers are more successful when they take the first several weeks of the school year to establish the classroom climate and their expectations; it's unrealistic to assume that students will instinctively be

cooperative, responsible, and respectful. Teachers explicitly explain classroom routines, such as how to get supplies out and put them away and how to work with classmates in a small group, and they set the expectation that everyone will adhere to the routines. They demonstrate literacy procedures, including how to choose a book, how to provide feedback about a classmate's writing, and how to participate in a **grand conversation**. Teachers also model ways of interacting with classmates and assisting them with reading and writing projects.

Teachers are the classroom managers: They set expectations and clearly explain to students what's expected of them and what's valued in the classroom. The classroom rules are specific and consistent, and teachers also set limits: Students can talk quietly with classmates when they're working together, for example, but they're not allowed to shout across the classroom, talk when the teacher's talking, or be disruptive when classmates are presenting to the class. Teachers also model classroom rules themselves as they interact with students. This process of socialization at the beginning of the school year is crucial to the success of the literacy program.

Not everything can be accomplished during the first several weeks, however; teachers continue to reinforce classroom routines and literacy procedures. One way is to have student leaders model the desired routines and behaviors; this way, classmates are likely to follow the lead. Teachers also continue to teach additional literacy procedures as students become involved in new activities. The classroom evolves, but the foundation is laid at the beginning of the school year.

The classroom environment is predictable, with familiar routines and literacy procedures. Students feel comfortable, safe, and more willing to take risks in a predictable environment; this is especially true for students from varied cultures, English learners, and struggling readers and writers (Fay & Whaley, 2004).

Principle 3: Effective Teachers Support Use of the Cueing Systems

Language is a complex system for creating meaning through socially shared conventions (Halliday, 1978). English, like other languages, involves four **cueing systems**:

- The phonological, or sound, system
- The syntactic, or structural, system
- The semantic, or meaning, system
- The pragmatic, or social and cultural use, system

Together, these systems make communication possible; students and adults use all four systems simultaneously as they read, write, listen, and talk. The priority people place on the cueing systems varies; however, the phonological system is especially important for beginning readers and writers as it is foundational to learning to use phonics to decode and spell words. An overview of the four cueing systems is presented in Figure 1–2.

THE PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEM.   The phonological system is the sound system. There are approximately 44 speech sounds in English; students learn to pronounce these sounds as they learn to talk, and they associate the sounds with letters as they learn to read and write. Sounds are called **phonemes**, and they're represented in print with diagonal lines to differentiate them from **graphemes**, which are letters or letter combinations. For example, the first grapheme in *mother* is *m*, and the phoneme is /m/; the phoneme in *soap* that's represented by the grapheme *oa* is called "long *o*" and is written /Ō/.

The phonological system is important for both oral and written language. Regional differences exist in the way people pronounce phonemes; for example, New Yorkers and Texans pronounce sounds differently. English learners learn to pronounce the sounds in

Figure 1–2 The Four Cueing Systems

SYSTEM	TERMS	APPLICATIONS
Phonological System The sound system with approximately 44 sounds and more than 500 ways to spell them	• *Phoneme* (the smallest unit of sound) • *Grapheme* (the written representation of a phoneme using one or more letters) • *Phonological awareness* (knowledge about the sound structure of words) • *Phonemic awareness* (the ability to orally manipulate phonemes in words) • *Phonics* (knowledge about phoneme–grapheme correspondences and rules)	• Decoding words • Using invented spelling • Noticing rhyming words • Dividing words into syllables
Syntactic System The structural system that governs how words are combined into sentences	• *Syntax* (the structure or grammar of a sentence) • *Morpheme* (the smallest meaningful unit of language) • *Free morpheme* (a morpheme that can stand alone as a word) • *Bound morpheme* (a morpheme that must be attached to a free morpheme)	• Forming compound words • Adding prefixes and suffixes to root words • Using capitalization and punctuation • Writing simple, compound, and complex sentences
Semantic System The meaning system that focuses on vocabulary	• *Semantics* (meaning) • *Synonyms* (words that mean the same or nearly the same thing) • *Antonyms* (opposites) • *Homophones* (words that sound alike but are spelled differently)	• Learning that many words have multiple meanings • Studying synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms • Using a dictionary and a thesaurus
Pragmatic System The social and cultural use system that explains how language varies	• *Standard English* (the form of English used in textbooks and by TV newscasters) • *Nonstandard English* (other forms of English)	• Varying language to fit specific purposes • Comparing standard and nonstandard forms of English

English, and, not surprisingly, sounds that differ from those in their native language are harder to learn. For example, because Spanish doesn't have /th/, native Spanish speakers have difficulty pronouncing this sound, often substituting /d/ for /th/ because the sounds are articulated in similar ways. Younger students usually learn to pronounce unfamiliar sounds more easily than older students and adults do.

This system plays a crucial role in early literacy instruction. In a purely phonetic language, a one-to-one correspondence would exist between letters and sounds, and teaching students to decode words would be simple. But English is not a purely phonetic language because there are 26 letters and 44 sounds and many ways to combine the letters to spell some of the sounds, especially vowels. Consider these ways to spell long *e: sea, green, Pete, me*, and *people*. And the patterns used to spell long *e* don't always work—*head* and *great* are examples of exceptions. **Phonics**, which describes the phoneme–grapheme correspondences and related spelling rules, is an important component of reading instruction. Students use phonics to decode words, but it isn't a complete reading program because many common words can't be decoded easily and reading involves more than just decoding.

THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEM.   The syntactic system is the structural organization of English. This system is the grammar that regulates how words are combined into sentences; the word **grammar** means the rules governing how words are combined in sentences, not parts of speech. Students use the syntactic system as they combine words to form sentences. Word order is important in English, and English speakers must arrange words into a sequence that makes sense. Young Spanish speakers who are learning English, for example, learn to say "This is my red sweater," not "This is my sweater red," which is the literal translation from Spanish.

Students use their knowledge of the syntactic system as they read. They expect that the words they're reading have been strung together into sentences. When they come to an unfamiliar word, they recognize its role in the sentence even if they don't know the terms for parts of speech. In the sentence "The horses galloped through the gate

and out into the field," students may not know the word *through*, but they can easily substitute a reasonable word or phrase, such as *out of* or *past*.

Another component of syntax is word forms. Words such as *dog* and *play* are **morphemes**, the smallest meaningful units in language. Word parts that change the meaning of a word are also morphemes; when the plural marker *-s* is added to *dog* to make *dogs*, for instance, or the past-tense marker *-ed* is added to *play* to make *played*, these words now have two morphemes because the inflectional endings change the meaning of the words. The words *dog* and *play* are free morphemes because they convey meaning while standing alone; the endings *-s* and *-ed* are bound morphemes because they must be attached to free morphemes to convey meaning. **Compound words** are two or more morphemes combined to create a new word: *Birthday*, for example, is a compound word made up of two free morphemes.

THE SEMANTIC SYSTEM.   The semantic system focuses on meaning. Vocabulary is the key component of this system. Researchers estimate that, on average, students have a vocabulary of 5,000 words by the time they enter school, and they continue to acquire 3,000 to 4,000 words each year; by the time they graduate from high school, their vocabularies reach 50,000 words (Stahl & Nagy, 2006)! Students learn some words through instruction, but they acquire many more words informally through reading and through social studies and science units. Their depth of knowledge about words increases, too, from knowing one meaning for a word to knowing how to use it in many ways. The word *fire*, for example, has more than a dozen meanings; the most common are related to combustion, but others deal with an intense feeling, discharging a gun, or dismissing someone.

THE PRAGMATIC SYSTEM.   The pragmatic system deals with the social aspects of language use. People use language for many purposes; how they talk and write varies according to their purpose and audience. Language use also varies among social classes, ethnic groups, and geographic regions; these varieties are known as **dialects**. School is one cultural community, and the language of school is Standard English. This dialect is formal—the one used in textbooks, newspapers, magazines, and by TV newscasters. Other forms, including some spoken in inner cities or in Appalachia, are generally classified as nonstandard English. These nonstandard forms of English are alternatives in which the phonology, syntax, and semantics differ from those of Standard English. They're neither inferior nor substandard; instead, they reflect the communities of the speakers, and the speakers communicate as effectively as those who use Standard

PreK Practices

Why involve prekindergartners with literacy?

Bennett-Armistead, Duke, and Moses (2005) list these reasons to explain why it's important to provide a literacy-rich environment for young students and to involve them in literacy activities:

- Students learn about different uses of literacy.
- Students discover that reading and writing are fun.
- Students acquire knowledge about the world through book experiences.
- Students prepare for kindergarten and the primary grades as they learn the letters of the alphabet and concepts about print.
- Students build their vocabularies and expand the ways they construct sentences.

In this text, you'll read about ways to involve prekindergartners in reading and writing using a combination of embedded instruction that's developmentally appropriate and explicit instruction that builds skills, including phonemic awareness (Casbergue, 2017).

English. The goal is for students to add Standard English to their repertoire of language registers, not to replace their home dialect with Standard English.

Teachers understand that students use all four cueing systems as they read and write. For example, when students correctly read the sentence "Jimmy is playing ball with his father," they're probably using information from all four systems. A student who substitutes *dad* for *father* and reads "Jimmy is playing ball with his dad" might be focusing on the semantic or pragmatic system rather than on the phonological system. When a student substitutes *basketball* for *ball* and reads "Jimmy is playing basketball with his father," he might be relying on an illustration or his own experience. Or, because both *basketball* and *ball* begin with *b*, he might have used the beginning sound as an aid in decoding, but he apparently didn't consider how long the word *basketball* is compared with the word *ball*. A student who changes the syntax, as in "Jimmy, he play ball with his father," may speak a nonstandard dialect. And sometimes a student reads the sentence so that it doesn't make sense, as in "Jump is play boat with his father," In this case, the student chooses words with the correct beginning sound, but there's no comprehension. This becomes a serious problem because the student doesn't understand that what he reads must make sense.

Theme 2: Effective Reading Instruction

The components of effective reading instruction have been debated over many years as researchers weighed the importance of phonics instruction versus the use of students' literature to teach reading. Many have concluded that a balanced approach benefits most readers and writers. They also have determined that scaffolding literacy instruction as well as the practice of various instructional approaches are critical to meeting the developmental needs of learners.

Principle 4: Effective Teachers Adopt a Balanced Approach to Instruction

A balanced approach to instruction is based on a comprehensive view of literacy that combines explicit instruction, guided practice, collaborative learning, and independent reading and writing. Cunningham and Allington (2011) compare the balanced approach to a multivitamin, suggesting that it brings together the best of teacher- and student-centered learning theories. Even though balanced programs vary, they usually embody these characteristics:

Literacy.   Literacy involves both reading and writing; in fact, linking the two facilitates students' learning.

Explicit Instruction.   Teachers provide explicit instruction to develop students' knowledge about reading and writing according to grade-level standards.

Authentic Application.   Students have regular opportunities to practice what they're learning by reading trade books and writing compositions.

Reading and Writing Strategies.   Students become strategic readers and writers by learning to apply cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

Oral Language.   Opportunities for students to talk and listen are integrated with reading and writing activities.

Tools for Learning.   Students use reading, talking, writing, and technology as tools for content area learning.

Creating a balanced literacy program is a "complex process that requires flexibility and artful orchestration of literacy's various contextual and conceptual aspects" (Pearson, Raphael, Benson, & Madda, 2007, p. 33).

PreK through fourth grade balanced literacy instructional programs include these components:

- Reading
- Phonemic awareness and phonics
- Literacy strategies and skills
- Vocabulary
- Comprehension

- Literature
- Content area study
- Oral language
- Writing
- Spelling

These components are described in Figure 1–3. Creating a balance is essential, because when one component is over- or underemphasized, the development of the others suffers. A balanced literacy program integrating these components is recommended for all students, including those in high-poverty urban schools, struggling readers, and English learners (Braunger & Lewis, 2006).

COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS.   The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) Initiative identified the knowledge students are expected to learn at each grade level, beginning in kindergarten. It was spearheaded by the National Governors' Association and the Council of Chief State School Officers with the goal of ensuring that all students graduate from high school able to succeed in college or the workforce.

The Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts (2010) are a framework for improving teaching and learning with clear and consistent academic benchmarks (Allyn, 2013; Kendall, 2011). They include rigorous content that requires students to use higher level thinking skills as they apply their knowledge. The Standards expectations grow in sophistication from kindergarten through 12th grade, and at each grade level students are required to read and write more complex texts. Reading and writing are integrated across the curriculum, and students are required to conduct research

Figure 1–3 The Balanced Literacy Approach

COMPONENT	DESCRIPTION
Comprehension	Students learn to use reader factors, including comprehension strategies, and text factors, including text structures, to understand what they're reading.
Content Area Study	Students use reading and writing as tools to learn about social studies and science topics in thematic units.
Literacy Strategies and Skills	Students learn to use problem-solving and monitoring behaviors called *strategies* and automatic actions called *skills* as they read and write.
Literature	Students become engaged readers who enjoy literature through reading and responding to books and learning about genres, text structures, and literary features.
Oral Language	Students use talk and listening as they work with classmates, participate in grand conversations, give oral presentations, and listen to the teacher read aloud.
Phonemic Awareness and Phonics	Students learn to manipulate sounds in words and apply the alphabetic principle and phonics rules to decode words.
Reading	Students participate in a variety of reading experiences using picture-book stories and novels, informational books, books of poetry, textbooks, and internet materials.
Spelling	Students apply what they're learning about English orthography to spell words, and their spellings gradually become conventional.
Vocabulary	Students learn the meaning of words through listening to books teachers read aloud and from content area study.
Writing	Students learn to use the writing process to draft and refine stories, poems, reports, and other compositions.

to answer questions and solve problems. The literacy standards are organized into five strands:

Reading Strand. The Reading strand consists of three sections: Foundational Skills, Literature, and Informational Texts. Young students develop foundational skills—print concepts, phonological awareness, phonics, word recognition, and fluency—as they learn to read. The emphasis in the Literature and Informational Texts sections is on students' comprehension of complex texts: Students read increasingly sophisticated grade-level texts and grow in their ability to make inferences and connections among ideas and between texts.

Writing Strand. The Writing strand consists of four sections: Text Types and Purposes, Production and Distribution of Writing, Research to Build and Present Knowledge, and Range of Writing. Students in the primary grades learn to use the writing process to compose texts representing a variety of genres, including narratives and informative texts.

Speaking and Listening Strand. The Speaking and Listening strand consists of two sections: Comprehension and Collaboration, and Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas. Young students gain mastery of oral language skills; they refine their ability to use speaking and listening informally in discussions and more formally in oral presentations.

Language Strand. The Language strand consists of three sections: Conventions of Standard English, Knowledge of Language, and Vocabulary Acquisition and Use. Students learn to apply vocabulary, grammar, and Standard English conventions to increasingly sophisticated oral and written presentations.

Media and Technology Strand. The CCSS integrate the critical analysis of media and the creation of multimedia projects within the other strands.

For each topic, Standards clearly specify what students should accomplish at each grade level. Figure 1–4 shows how the Common Core State Standards are addressed in each chapter of this text.

According to the CCSS website, 41 states, 4 territories, and Department of Defense schools had adopted the standards in 2018. In the years since the introduction of the CCSS, much curriculum has been developed for teachers to assist with meeting the new, more rigorous expectations for young students. One such useful resource was developed by teachers—*Common Core Curriculum Maps in English Language Arts, Grades K–5* (2014). This resource presents a sequence of thematic curriculum units that connect the skills in the CCSS with literature and informational texts. It's also a good idea to visit the webpage of your state department of education for curriculum resources aligned with the CCSS.

Principle 5: Effective Teachers Scaffold Students' Reading and Writing

Teachers scaffold students' literacy development as they demonstrate, guide, and teach, and they vary the amount of support they provide according to the instructional purpose and students' needs. Sometimes teachers model how experienced readers read or record students' dictation when the writing's too difficult for them to do on their own. At other times, they guide students as they read a leveled book or proofread their writing. Teachers use five levels of support, moving from more to less as students assume responsibility (Fountas & Pinnell, 2016). Figure 1–5 presents an overview of these levels of support—modeled, shared, interactive, guided, and independent—for literacy activities.

Figure 1–4 The Common Core State Standards

CHAPTER	READING STRAND: LITERATURE	READING STRAND: INFORMATIONAL TEXTS	READING STRAND: FOUNDA-TIONAL SKILLS	WRITING STRAND	SPEAKING AND LISTENING STRAND	LANGUAGE STRAND
2 Examining students' Literacy Development			•	•		•
3 Assessing students' Literacy Development	•	•	•	•	•	•
4 Cracking the Alphabetic Code			•			
5 Spelling			•			•
6 Developing Fluent Readers and Writers			•	•		
7 Building students' Vocabulary						•
8 Teaching Comprehension: Reader Factors	•	•			•	
9 Facilitating students' Comprehension: Text Factors	•	•		•		
10 Scaffolding students' Reading Development	•	•				
11 Scaffolding students' Writing Development				•		
12 Integrating Literacy Into Thematic Units	•	•		•	•	•

These five levels of support illustrate Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) "gradual release of responsibility" model. As students move from modeled to interactive to independent reading and writing, they do more of the actual reading and writing, and teachers gradually transfer responsibility to them.

MODELED READING AND WRITING.   Teachers provide the greatest amount of support when they model how expert readers read and expert writers write. When teachers read aloud, they're modeling: They read fluently and with expression, and they talk about their thoughts and the strategies they're using. When they model writing, teachers write a composition on chart paper or an interactive whiteboard so that everyone can see what the teacher does and how it's being written. Teachers use this support

Figure 1–5 Levels of Scaffolding

LEVEL	READING	WRITING
Modeled	Teachers read aloud, modeling how good readers read fluently using books that are too difficult for students to read.	Teachers demonstrate how to write a composition, creating the text, doing the writing, and thinking aloud about their use of strategies and skills.
Shared	Teacher and students read books together, with students following as the teacher reads and then repeating familiar refrains.	Teacher and students create the text together; then the teacher does the actual writing. Sometimes students assist by spelling familiar words.
Interactive	Teacher and students read instructional-level texts together and take turns doing the reading. Teachers help students read fluently and with expression.	Teacher and students create the text and share the pen to do the writing. they spell words correctly and add capitalization, punctuation, and other conventions.
Guided	Teachers teach guided reading lessons to small, homogeneous groups using instructional-level books.	Teachers teach lessons on writing strategies, skills, and procedures, and students participate in supervised practice activities.
Independent	Students read self-selected books independently, and teachers conference with them to monitor their progress.	Students use the writing process to write stories, informational books, and other compositions.

level to demonstrate procedures, such as choosing a book to read or doing a **word sort**, and to introduce new writing genres, such as "I Am . . . " poems. Teachers often do a **think-aloud** to share what they're thinking as they read or write, the decisions they make, and the strategies they use. Teachers use modeling to:

- Demonstrate fluent reading and writing
- Explain how to use reading and writing strategies
- Teach the procedure for a literacy activity
- Show how reading and writing conventions and other skills work

SHARED READING AND WRITING.   Teachers "share" reading and writing tasks with students at this level. Probably the best known activity is **shared reading**, which teachers use to read big books with young students. The teacher does most of the reading, but students join in to read familiar and predictable words and phrases. Teachers use the **Language Experience Approach** to write students' dictation on paintings and brainstorm lists of words on the whiteboard, make **KWL charts**, and write **collaborative books**.

Sharing differs from modeling in that students actually participate in the activity rather than simply observing the teacher. In shared reading, students follow along as the teacher reads, and in shared writing, they suggest the words and sentences for the teacher to write. Teachers use shared reading and writing to:

- Involve students in literacy activities they can't do independently
- Create opportunities for students to experience success in reading and writing
- Provide practice before students read and write independently

INTERACTIVE READING AND WRITING.   Students assume an increasingly important role in interactive reading and writing. They no longer observe the teacher reading or writing, repeat familiar words, or suggest words for the teacher to write; instead, they're actively involved in reading and writing. They support classmates by sharing the reading and writing responsibilities, and their teacher provides assistance when needed. **Choral reading** and **readers theatre** are two examples of interactive reading. In **interactive writing**, students and the teacher create a text and write a message together (Williams, 2018; Tompkins & Collom, 2004). Teachers use interactive reading and writing to:

- Provide practice reading and writing high-frequency words
- Encourage students to apply phonics and spelling skills
- Read and write texts that students can't do independently
- Provide opportunities for students to share their literacy expertise with classmates

Figure 1–6 shows a piece of interactive writing done by a group of five-year-olds after reading Eric Carle's repetitive book *Does a Kangaroo Have a Mother, Too?* (2000). The teacher wrote the title and the author's name, and the students created the sentence *Animals have mothers just like me and you*. They took turns writing the letters they knew in red, and the teacher wrote the letters representing unfamiliar sounds in black. The boxes around four of the letters indicate correction tape the teacher placed over an incorrectly formed letter before the student tried again to print the letter conventionally.

GUIDED READING AND WRITING.   Even though teachers continue to provide support, students do the actual reading and writing themselves. **Guided reading** is the best known example. In this instructional procedure, small, homogeneous groups meet with the teacher to read a book at their instructional level. The teacher introduces the book and guides students as they begin reading. Then students continue reading on their own while the teacher supervises them. **Minilessons** are another example:

Figure 1–6 A Kindergarten Interactive Writing Chart
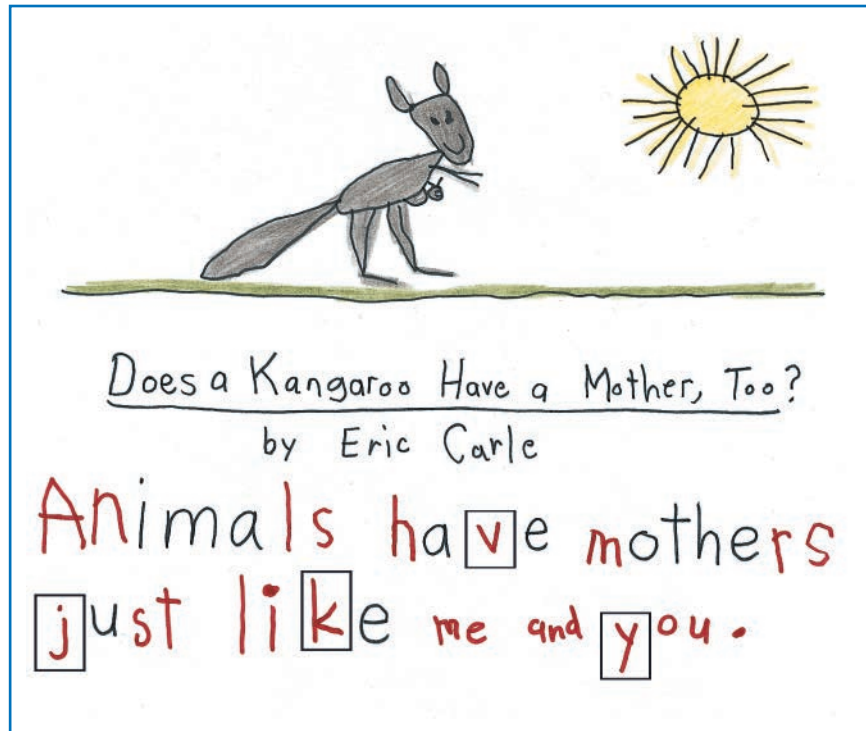
As teachers teach lessons, they provide practice activities and supervise while students apply what they're reading. Teachers scaffold students' writing as they make pages for **collaborative books**. They also provide guidance during conferences with students about their writing.

Teachers choose this level of scaffolding to support students as they actually read and write. They use guided reading and writing to:

- Support students' reading in appropriate instructional-level materials
- Teach literacy strategies and skills
- Involve students in collaborative writing projects
- Teach students to use the writing process—in particular, how to revise and edit

INDEPENDENT READING AND WRITING. Students do the reading and writing themselves at the independent level, applying the strategies and skills they've learned in authentic literacy activities. During independent reading, students usually choose their own books and work at their own pace as they read and respond to books. Similarly, during independent writing, students usually choose their own topics and move at their own pace as they develop and refine their writing. This isn't to suggest, however, that teachers don't play a role in independent-level activities; they continue to monitor students' progress, but they provide much less support at this level.

Through independent reading, students learn how pleasurable reading is and, teachers hope, become lifelong readers. As they write, students come to view themselves as authors. Teachers use activities at this level to:

- Provide opportunities for students to apply the reading and writing strategies and skills they've learned
- Engage students in authentic literacy experiences in which they choose their own topics, purposes, and materials
- Develop lifelong readers and writers

Teachers working with prekindergartners through fourth graders using all of these levels. When a reading strategy is introduced, for instance, its application is modeled by the teacher. And, when students are to practice a strategy that has already been introduced, they are guided through the activity, with a gradually increasing level of responsibility. The purpose of the activity, not the activity itself, determines the level of support.

Principle 6: Effective Teachers Organize for Literacy Instruction

No single instructional program best represents the balanced approach to literacy; instead, teachers organize for instruction by creating their own program that fits their students' needs and their school's grade-level standards. Instructional programs should reflect these principles:

- Teachers create a community of learners in their classroom.
- Teachers incorporate the components of the balanced approach.
- Teachers scaffold students' reading and writing experiences.

Five popular approaches are guided reading, basal reading programs, literature focus units, literature circles, and reading and writing workshop.

GUIDED READING.   Teachers use guided reading to personalize instruction and meet students' individual needs. They meet with small groups of students who read at approximately the same proficiency level for teacher-directed lessons (Fountas & Pinnell, 2016). In these 20-minute lessons, teachers teach word-identification and comprehension strategies and have students apply what they're learning as they read books at their instructional level. Teachers emphasize that the goal of reading is comprehension—understanding what they're reading, not just saying all the words correctly. At the same time, teachers are working with one guided reading group, classmates work at literacy centers or pursue other activities that they can complete independently. This instructional approach is often used in kindergarten through third grade, but it can also be adapted to use with older, struggling readers.

BASAL READING PROGRAMS.   Commercially produced reading programs are known as basal readers. These programs feature a textbook containing reading selections with accompanying workbooks, supplemental books, and related instructional materials at each grade level, including digital components. Phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and spelling instruction is coordinated with the reading selections and aligned with grade-level standards. The teacher's guide provides detailed procedures for teaching the selections and related strategies and skills. Instruction is typically presented to the whole class, with reteaching to small groups of struggling students. Testing materials are also included so that teachers can monitor students' progress. Publishers tout basal readers as a complete literacy program, but effective teachers realize that it is important to incorporate other strategies as well.

LITERATURE FOCUS UNITS.   Teachers create literature focus units featuring high-quality picture-book stories and novels. The books are usually chosen from a district- or state-approved list of award-winning books that all students are expected to read at a particular grade level. These books include classics such as *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* (Carle, 2002) and *Charlotte's Web* (White, 2006) and award winners such as *Officer Buckle and Gloria* (Rathmann, 1995) and *Don't Let the Pigeon Drive the Bus!* (Willems, 2003). Everyone in the class reads and responds to the same book, and the teacher supports students' learning through a combination of explicit instruction and reading and writing activities. Through these units, teachers teach about literary genres and authors and develop students' interest in literature.

GO DIGITAL! Incorporate Technology Into Your Classroom.

Teachers integrate 21st-century technology into their classrooms at all grade levels. They use digital software, the Internet, and computer technology for many purposes, including these:

- Presenting information to students
- Scaffolding students' reading and writing
- Involving students in activities and projects
- Responding to students' work
- Assessing students' achievement

Teachers often display information on interactive whiteboards as part of whole-class presentations and minilessons, and they teach students to use a variety of digital tools, including ebooks, digital cameras, and software programs. Basal reading programs offer websites with supplemental activities, and several ebook versions of basal readers are now available.

LITERATURE CIRCLES.   Small groups of students get together in **literature circles** or book clubs to read a story or informational book. To begin, teachers select five or six books at varying reading levels. Often, the books are related in some way—representing the same theme or written by the same author, for instance. They collect multiple copies of each book and give a **book talk** to introduce them. Then students choose a book and form a group to read and respond to it. They set a reading and discussion schedule and work independently, although teachers sometimes sit in on the discussions. Through the experience of reading and discussing a book together, students learn more about how to respond to books and develop responsibility for completing assignments.

READING AND WRITING WORKSHOP.   Students do authentic reading and writing in workshop programs. They select books, read independently, and conference with the teacher about their reading. They write books on topics that they choose and conference with the teacher about their writing. Teachers set aside a time for **reading and writing workshop**, and students read and write while the teacher conferences with small groups. Teachers also teach **minilessons** on reading and writing strategies and skills and read books aloud to the whole class. In a workshop program, students read and write more like adults do—making choices, working independently, and developing responsibility.

These five approaches can be divided into authentic and textbook programs. Guided reading, literature focus units, literature circles, and reading and writing workshop are classified as authentic programs because they use trade books and involve students in meaningful activities. Basal readers, not surprisingly, are textbook programs that reflect the behaviorist theory. Teachers generally combine these programs because students learn best through a variety of reading and writing experiences. Sometimes teachers may use guided reading along with literature focus units and writing workshop; they may alternate literature focus units or literature circles with reading and writing workshop and a textbook program; still others may use some components from each approach throughout the school year.

Theme 3: Adjusting Instruction to Meet Students' Needs

Effective teachers adjust and personalize their instruction because students vary in their levels of development, academic achievement, and ability. Teachers vary instructional arrangements, choose instructional materials at students' reading levels, and modify assignments to address the core principles of differentiating instruction.

Principle 7: Effective Teachers Differentiate Instruction

Tomlinson (2004) explains that the one-size-fits-all instructional model is obsolete, and teachers respect students by honoring both their similarities and their differences. Differentiation is based on Vygotsky's idea of a **zone of proximal development**. If instruction is either too difficult or too easy, it isn't effective; instead, teachers must provide instruction that meets students' instructional needs.

HOW TO DIFFERENTIATE INSTRUCTION.   Differentiation involves personalizing the content, the process, and the products:

Differentiating the Content.   Teachers identify the information that students need to learn to meet grade-level standards so that every student will be successful. They differentiate the content in these ways:

- Choose instructional materials at students' reading levels
- Consider students' developmental levels as well as their current grade placement in deciding what to teach
- Use assessment tools to determine students' instructional needs

Differentiating the Process.   Teachers vary instruction and application activities to meet students' needs. They differentiate the process in these ways:

- Provide instruction to individuals, small groups, and the whole class
- Scaffold struggling readers and writers with more explicit instruction
- Challenge advanced readers and writers with activities requiring higher level thinking
- Monitor students' learning and adjust instruction when needed

Differentiating the Products.   Teachers also vary how students demonstrate what they've learned. Demonstrations include both the projects that students create and the tests used to measure their academic achievement. Teachers differentiate the products in these ways:

- Have students create projects individually, with partners, or in small groups
- Design projects that engage students with literacy in meaningful ways
- Assess students using a combination of visual, oral, and written formats

As teachers differentiate instruction, they consider the background knowledge and literacy demands of the reading selection, create a text set of related books, design activities with varied grouping patterns, consider students' preferred language modalities and thinking styles, and determine how much support students are likely to need. Figure 1–7 lists some of the ways teachers differentiate instruction.

Figure 1–7 Ways to Differentiate Instruction

COMPONENT	DESCRIPTION	INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES
Content	Teachers identify the information that students need to learn to meet grade-level standards and the instructional materials to be used.	• Choose instructional materials at students' reading levels. • Consider students' developmental levels as well as their grade placement when deciding what to teach. • Use assessment tools to determine students' instructional needs.
Process	Teachers vary instruction and application activities to meet students' needs.	• Provide instruction to individuals, small groups, and the whole class. • Scaffold struggling readers and writers with more explicit instruction. • Challenge advanced learners with activities requiring higher level thinking.
Products	Teachers modify the ways students demonstrate what they've learned.	• Have students create projects individually or with classmates. • Design projects that engage students in meaningful ways. • Assess students using visual, oral, and written formats.

Teaching English Learners
Be Effective Teachers of Reading

Students who come from language backgrounds other than English and aren't yet proficient in English are known as English learners (ELs). Many can converse in English but may struggle with the academic language of school. These students benefit from participating in the same instructional programs that mainstream classmates do, but teachers are required to make adaptations to create learning contexts that respect minority students and meet their needs (Shanahan & Beck, 2006). Learning to read and write is more challenging because they're learning to speak English at the same time. Teachers scaffold ELs' oral language acquisition and literacy development in these ways:

Explicit Instruction. Teachers present more explicit instruction on literacy strategies and skills because ELs are more at risk (Graves, Schneider & Ringstaff, 2018) (Graves et al., 2018). They also spend more time teaching unfamiliar academic vocabulary (e.g., _homonym, paragraph, revise, summarize_).

Oral Language. Teachers provide many opportunities each day for students to practice speaking English comfortably and informally with partners and in small groups. Through conversations about topics they're learning, ELs develop both conversational and academic language, which in turn supports their literacy development (Rothenberg & Fisher, 2007).

Small-Group Work. Teachers provide opportunities for students to work in small groups because social interaction supports their learning (Moses, Ogden & Kelly, 2015). As English learners talk with classmates, they're learning the culture of literacy.

Reading Aloud to Students. Teachers read aloud a variety of stories, poems, and informational books, including some books that represent students' home cultures (Rothenberg & Fisher, 2007). In the process, teachers model fluent reading, and students build background knowledge as they become more familiar with English vocabulary and written language structures.

Background Knowledge. Teachers organize instruction into units to build students' world knowledge about grade-appropriate concepts, and they develop ELs' literary knowledge through minilessons and a variety of reading and writing activities (Braunger & Lewis, 2006).

Authentic Literacy Activities. Teachers provide daily opportunities for students to apply the strategies and skills they're learning as they read and write for authentic purposes (Akhavan, 2006). English learners participate in meaningful literacy activities through literature circles and reading and writing workshop.

These recommendations promote English learners' academic success.

Teachers' attitudes about minority students and their understanding of how people learn a second language play a critical role in the effectiveness of instruction (Martínez, 2018). It's important that teachers understand that ELs have different cultural and linguistic backgrounds and plan instruction accordingly. Most classrooms reflect the European-American middle-class culture, which differs significantly from minority students' backgrounds and how they use language. For example, some students are reluctant to volunteer answers to teachers' questions, and others may not answer if the questions are different from those their parents ask (Peregoy & Boyle, 2013). Teachers who learn about their students' home language and culture and embed what they learn into their instruction are likely to be more successful.

PARTNERING WITH PARENTS.   Parents play a crucial role in helping their children become successful readers and writers, and home-literacy activities profoundly influence students' academic success: Students score higher on standardized achievement tests, have better school attendance, and exhibit stronger thinking skills when parents are involved in their education (Merga & Roni, 2018). Most teachers recognize the importance of home-literacy activities and want to become partners with their students' parents. In some communities, parents respond enthusiastically when teachers ask them to listen to their children read aloud or invite them to participate in a home–school writing event, for example, but in other communities there's little or no response.

Teachers' expectations are often based on middle-class parents, who typically see themselves as partners with teachers—reading to their children, playing educational games, going to the public library together, and helping with homework. Other parents view their role differently (Edwards, 2004): Some are willing to attend teacher–parent conferences and support school projects such as bake sales and carnivals, but they expect teachers to do the teaching; others feel inadequate when it comes to helping their children because of their own unsuccessful school experiences or limited ability to read and write in English. Parents' viewpoints are often a reflection of their culture and socioeconomic status (Lareau, 2000): Middle-class parents usually work with teachers to support their children's literacy development; working-class parents often have the belief that teachers are better qualified to teach their students; and poor, minority, and immigrant parents often feel powerless to help their students. Parents' involvement is also related to educational level: Those who didn't graduate from high school are less likely to get involved in their children's education (Paratore, 2001).

Because some parents don't understand the crucial role they play in their children's academic success, it's up to teachers to establish collaborative relationships with parents. Edwards (2004) explains that parent–teacher collaborations need to change in these ways so that teachers can create more empowering classroom cultures:

Respect the literacy activities of families.   Nearly all families incorporate reading and writing activities into their daily routines, but these activities may differ from school-based literacy activities. Some students are at risk of failing because they aren't familiar with the literacy activities and language patterns that teachers use. Nieto (2002) urges teachers to value parents' literacy activities, even if they don't match teachers' expectations, and use them in developing a culturally responsive literacy program.

Reach out to families in new ways.   Edwards (2004) recommends that teachers create schoolwide programs with a yearlong schedule of activities that address particular literacy goals at each grade level. Effective communication is essential: When teachers demonstrate that they want to listen to parents, giving them opportunities to share insights about their students and ask questions about how students learn to read and write, parents become more willing to work with teachers and support their children's learning.

Build parents' knowledge of literacy procedures.   Too often teachers assume that parents know how to support their children's literacy learning, but many parents don't know how to read aloud, respond to their children's writing, or use other literacy procedures. Parents will be more successful when teachers offer specific suggestions and provide clear directions (Edwards, 2004).

When teachers accept that parents view their role in different ways and become more knowledgeable about cultural diversity and how it affects parent–teacher relationships, they're more likely to be successful.

Interventions

Schools use the results of assessments to identify low-achieving students, and they plan intervention programs to remedy students' reading and writing difficulties and accelerate their learning (Cooper, Chard, & Kiger, 2006). These programs are used in addition to regular classroom instruction, not as a replacement for it. The classroom teacher or a specially trained reading teacher meets with struggling students every day; using paraprofessionals is a widespread practice that's not recommended because aides aren't as effective as certified teachers (Allington, 2012). Teachers provide intensive, expert instruction to individuals or very small groups of no more than three students. Interventions take various forms: They can be provided by adding a second lesson during the regular school day, offering extra instruction in an after-school program, or holding extended-school-year programs during the summer. Figure 1–8 summarizes the recommendations for effective intervention programs.

Until recently, most school-based interventions were designed for middle grade students who were already failing; now the focus has changed to early intervention to eliminate the pattern of school failure that begins early and persists throughout some students' lives (Strickland, 2002). Three types of interventions for young students have been developed:

- Preventive programs to create more effective early-childhood programs
- Family-focused programs to develop young students' awareness of literacy, parents' literacy, and parenting skills
- Early interventions to resolve reading and writing problems and accelerate literacy development for low-achieving K–3 students

Teachers are optimistic that earlier and more intensive intervention will solve many of the difficulties that older students exhibit today.

Figure 1–8 High-Quality Interventions

COMPONENT	DESCRIPTION
Scheduling	Interventions take place daily for 30–45 minutes, depending on students' age and instructional needs. Classroom teachers often provide the interventions, but sometimes specially trained reading teachers provide them.
Grouping	Teachers work with students individually or in very small groups; larger groups, even when students exhibit the same reading or writing problems, aren't as effective.
Reading Materials	Teachers match students to books at their instructional level for lessons and to books at their independent level for voluntary reading.
Instruction	Teachers' lessons generally include rereading familiar books, reading new books, teaching phonics and reading strategies, and writing, but the content varies according to students' areas of difficulty.
Reading and Writing Practice	Teachers provide opportunities for students to practice reading and writing.
Assessment	Teachers monitor progress on an ongoing basis by observing students and collecting work samples. they also use diagnostic tests to document students' learning according to grade-level standards.
Home–School Partnerships	Teachers keep parents informed about students' progress and encourage them to support independent reading and writing at home.

FEDERAL EARLY INTERVENTIONS.   To prevent literacy problems and break the cycle of poverty in the United States, the federal government directs two early-intervention programs for economically disadvantaged students and their parents. Head Start promotes the healthy development and school preparedness of young low-income students through a variety of services; it provides education, health, nutrition, and social support to students and their families. This long-running program, administered by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, reaches one million students and their families each year through prenatal and infant programs, preschool programs, and other services for students of migrant farm workers, Native Americans, and homeless families. Head Start began in 1965 as part of President Lyndon Johnson's War on Poverty, and now, more than 50 years later, the program remains controversial because studies evaluating its long-term effectiveness have been inconclusive.

The Even Start Family Literacy Program is a newer program for low-income students from birth to age seven that began as part of NCLB. It's designed to improve educational opportunities for low-income families through these related activities:

- An early childhood education program to prepare students for school success
- An adult literacy program to improve parents' reading and writing competencies
- A parent education program to train parents to participate more fully in students' education
- Opportunities for students and their parents to participate in literacy activities together

All four components are required in this unified family literacy program.

RESPONSE TO INTERVENTION.   Response to Intervention (RTI) is a promising schoolwide initiative to identify struggling students quickly, promote effective classroom instruction, provide interventions, and increase the likelihood that students will be successful (Mellard & Johnson, 2008). It involves three tiers:

Tier 1: Screening and Prevention.   Teachers provide high-quality instruction that's supported by scientifically based research, screen students to identify those at risk for academic failure, and monitor their progress. If students don't make adequate progress toward meeting grade-level standards, they move to Tier 2.

Tier 2: Early Intervention.   Trained reading teachers provide enhanced, individualized instruction targeting students' specific areas of difficulty. If students' literacy problems are resolved, they return to Tier 1; if they make some progress but need additional instruction, they remain in Tier 2; and if they don't show improvement, they move to Tier 3, where the intensity of intervention increases.

Tier 3: Intensive Intervention.   Special education teachers provide more intensive intervention to individual students and small groups. They focus on remedying students' problems and teaching compensatory strategies, and they monitor students' progress more frequently.

This schoolwide instruction and assessment program incorporates data-driven decision making, and special education teachers are optimistic that it will be a better way to diagnose learning-disabled students.

Improving classroom instruction, diagnosing students' specific reading and writing difficulties, and implementing intensive intervention programs to remedy students' literacy problems are three important ways that teachers work more effectively with struggling readers and writers. Visit the *What Works Clearinghouse*, an initiative of the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences, to study evidence ratings for many popular reading intervention programs. The website is located at https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/.

Theme 4: Linking Assessment to Instructional Planning

Effective teachers monitor students' learning, make adjustments when necessary, and assess learning in multiple ways, not just using paper-and-pencil tests. Principle 8 describes ways to link instruction and assessment so that they inform each other.

Principle 8: Effective Teachers Link Instruction and Assessment

Assessment is an integral and ongoing part of both learning and teaching (Mariotti & Homan, 2005). Sometimes teachers equate standardized high-stakes achievement tests with assessment, but classroom assessment is much more than a once-a-year test. It's a daily part of classroom life: Teachers collect and analyze data from observations, conferences, and classroom tests, and then use the results to make decisions about students' academic achievement (Cunningham & Allington, 2011). Teachers assess students' learning for these purposes:

Determining Reading Levels. Teachers determine students' reading levels so that they can plan appropriate instruction.

Monitoring Progress. Teachers regularly assess students to ensure that they're making expected progress in reading and writing, and when they're not progressing, teachers take action to get them back on track.

Diagnosing Strengths and Weaknesses. Teachers examine students' progress in specific literacy components, including phonics, fluency, comprehension, writing, and spelling, to identify their strengths and weaknesses. Diagnosis is especially important when students are struggling or aren't making expected progress.

Documenting Learning. Teachers use a combination of test results and collections of students' work to provide evidence of their academic achievement and document that they've met grade-level standards.

These purposes highlight the wide range of ongoing assessment activities that effective teachers use. As you plan for instruction and document learning, use **My Teaching To-Do Checklist: Teaching Effectiveness.**

THE INSTRUCTION–ASSESSMENT CYCLE. Assessment is linked to instruction (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005). Teachers do some assessments before they begin to

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MY TEACHING TO-DO CHECKLIST: Teaching Effectiveness

☐ I apply theories about how students learn in my teaching.
☐ I support students' use of the cueing systems as they read and write.
☐ I've created a community of learners in my classroom.
☐ I've adopted a balanced approach to instruction.
☐ I scaffold students as they read and write.
☐ I organize my literacy program with instruction, practice opportunities, and independent reading and writing projects.
☐ I differentiate instruction to meet my students' needs.
☐ I link instruction and assessment.
☐ I integrate state standards into my instruction.

teach, some while they're teaching, and others afterward. They link instruction and assessment in this four-step cycle:

Step 1: Planning.   Teachers use their knowledge about students' reading levels, their background knowledge, and their strategy and skill competencies to plan appropriate instruction that's neither too easy nor too difficult.

Step 2: Monitoring.   Teachers monitor instruction that's in progress as they observe students, conference with them, and check their work to ensure that their instruction is effective. They make modifications, including reteaching when necessary, to improve the quality of their instruction and meet students' needs.

Step 3: Evaluating.   Teachers evaluate students' learning using rubrics and check lists to assess students' reading and writing projects and administering teacher-made tests. They also collect samples to document students' achievements.

Step 4: Reflecting.   Teachers judge the effectiveness of their instruction by analyzing students' reading and writing projects and test results and consider how they might adapt instruction to improve student learning.

It's easy to blame the students when learning isn't occurring, but teachers need to consider how they can improve their teaching through planning, monitoring, evaluating, and reflecting because it's their responsibility to ensure that their students are successful.

CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT TOOLS.   Teachers use both a variety of informal assessment tools that they create themselves and commercially available tests (McKenna & Stahl, 2009). Informal assessment tools include these activities:

- Observing students' participating in instructional activities.
- Collecting running records of students' oral reading to analyze their ability to solve reading problems
- Examining students' work for signs of growth
- Conferencing with individual students about their reading and writing progress
- Completing checklists to monitor students' progress
- Using rubrics to assess students' writing and other performances

These assessment tools support instruction, and teachers choose which one to use according to the kind of information they need. They administer commercial tests to individuals or the entire class to determine students' overall reading achievement or their proficiency in a particular component—phonemic awareness or comprehension, for example.

STANDARDIZED TESTS.   Beginning in second grade, the results of yearly standardized tests also provide evidence of students' literacy achievement. The usefulness of the data is limited, however, because the tests are usually administered in the spring and the results aren't released until after the school year ends. At the beginning of the next school year, teachers do examine the data and use what they learn in planning for their new class, but the impact isn't as great as it would be for the teachers who worked with those students during the previous year. Another way the results are used is in measuring the effectiveness of teachers' instruction by examining how much students grew since the previous year's test and whether they met grade-level standards.

Chapter Review

Becoming an Effective Teacher of Reading

- Teachers understand how teacher-centered theory is different from student-centered theory.
- Teachers adopt a balanced approach to literacy instruction.
- Teachers differentiate instruction so all students can be successful.
- Teachers link instruction and assessment.

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