



Wisconsin
Foundations of Reading
Study Guide

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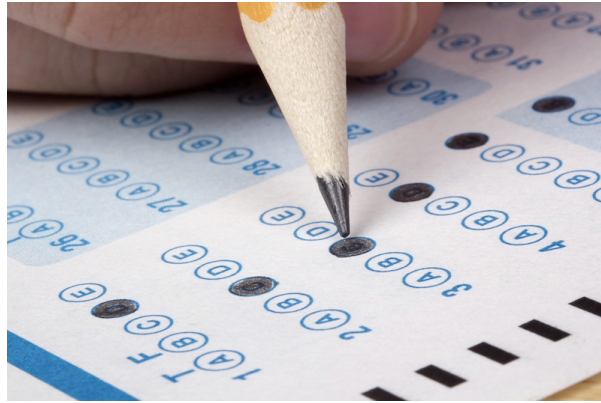
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Overview of the Test and Resources for Preparation

Key Websites

➤ Jennifer Yaeger's Web Site—

- This site includes the MTEL Foundations of Reading Practice Test, MTEL Foundations of Reading Multiple Choice Analysis, MTEL Test Information Booklet with sample questions, *Put Reading First* and many other helpful links:

www.jenniferyaeger.weebly.com

➤ MTEL Website

- The MTEL Foundations of Reading Practice Test:
http://www.mtel.nesinc.com/PDFs/MA_FLD090_PRACTICE_TEST.pdf
- The MTEL Foundations of Reading MTEL Practice Test Analysis:
http://www.mtel.nesinc.com/PDFs/MA_FLD090_PT_appendix_13.pdf

➤ Put Reading First

<http://lincs.ed.gov/publications/pdf/PRFbooklet.pdf>

➤ Other Recommended Texts/Study Guides

- Boosalis, Chris Nicholas (2004). *Beating them All!* Boston: MA. Pearson.
- Kinzer, C.K. & Leu, D.J. (2011) *Phonics, Phonemic Awareness, and Word Analysis for Teachers: An Interactive Tutorial*, 9/e. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

➤ Reading Rockets

This site includes useful and informative articles on a variety of reading related topics. In particular, below is a list of web addresses to suggested articles included in this study guide:

Types of Phonics Instruction and Instructional Methods: www.readingrockets.org/article/254

What Does Research Tell Us About Teaching Reading to English Language Learners?:
www.readingrockets.org/article/19757

Test Overview Chart: Foundations of Reading (PreK-6) (90)

Subareas	Approximate Number of Multiple-Choice Items	Number of Open-Response Items
I. Foundations of Reading Development	43-45	
II. Development of Reading Comprehension	33-35	
III. Reading Assessment and Instruction	21-23	
IV. Integration of Knowledge and Understanding		2

The Foundations of Reading test is designed to assess the candidate’s knowledge of reading/language arts required for the Massachusetts Early Childhood, Elementary, and Moderate Disabilities licenses. This subject matter knowledge is delineated in the Massachusetts Department of Education’s *Regulations for Educator Licensure and Preparation Program Approval* (7/2001), 603 CMR 7.06 “Subject Matter Knowledge Requirements for Teachers.”

The Foundations of Reading test assesses the candidate’s proficiency and depth of understanding of the subject of reading and writing development based on the requirement that the candidate has participated in seminars or courses that address the teaching of reading. Candidates are typically nearing completion of or have completed their undergraduate work when they take the test.

The multiple-choice items on the test cover the subareas as indicated in the chart above. The open-response items may relate to topics covered in any of the subareas and will typically require breadth of understanding of the field and the ability to relate concepts from different aspects of the field. Responses to the open-response items are expected to be appropriate and accurate in the application of subject matter knowledge, to provide high quality and relevant supporting evidence, and to demonstrate a soundness of argument and understanding of the field.

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Massachusetts Tests for Educator Licensure™
FIELD 90: FOUNDATIONS OF READING
TEST OBJECTIVES

Subarea

Multiple-Choice	Range of Objectives	Approximate Test Weight
I. Foundations of Reading Development	01-04	35%
II. Development of Reading Comprehension	05-07	27%
III. Reading Assessment and Instruction	08-09	<u>18%</u>
		80%
Open-Response		
IV. Integration of Knowledge and Understanding	10	20%

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Charts that Support General Concepts on the MTEL

Explicit Instruction	Implicit Instruction
Most important first step in a sequence of instruction	Incidental
Teacher models, demonstrates	For extension and practice; reinforcement of a previously taught skill
Overt objective; measurable	May be many lessons learned or skills developed, but not one primary or measurable objective
Principal could walk in the door and without seeing lesson plan would be able to identify purpose	Purpose may be unclear to an outside observer (or even participant)
Focused	May not appear focused

Multiple Choice: How to approach certain types of questions...	
When multiple Choice Questions Relate to Word Identification	When Multiple Choice Questions Relate to Vocabulary and Comprehension
Think: “Back to Basics”	Think: Which activity would help develop independent readers and critical thinkers?
Traditional approach; may feel rote	Focus is on deep, not superficial understanding
Teacher-driven; very focused	Active learning instead of passive
Explicit, systematic, sequential phonics instruction is of primary importance (use of syntax, semantics, context clues should be considered “back-up plans”)	Not “random” assignments, but focused ones

Reading Development and Identification of Gaps

Foundations of Reading Development	What is often the missing part of the equation???	Comprehension and Fluency
<p>Oral Language</p> <p>Phonological Awareness (specifically phonemic awareness)</p> <p>Emergent Literacy</p> <p>Concepts about Print</p> <p>Letter Identification</p> <p>Alphabetic Principle (letters and letter combinations represent sounds)</p> <p>Word Identification:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Phonics • Word Analysis • Sight Words • Use of Context Clues (semantics, syntax)—often observed when students self correct 	<p>Schema/Background Knowledge</p> <p>Vocabulary</p> <p>Self-Monitoring (metacognition--application of active reading strategies such as questioning, predicting, connecting)</p>	<p>Literal comprehension</p> <p>Inferential comprehension</p> <p>Analysis of texts</p> <p>Fluency: Sufficient rate, phrasing, intonation, expression (PROSODY) to support and reflect comprehension</p>

SUBAREA: Foundations of Reading Development (35% of the test)

Section 0001 Understand Phonological and Phonemic Awareness:

- ✓ The distinction between phonological awareness (i.e. the awareness that oral language is composed of smaller units, such as spoken words and syllables) and phonemic awareness (i.e. a specific type of phonological awareness involving the ability to distinguish the separate phonemes in a spoken word)
- ✓ The role of phonological awareness and phonemic awareness in reading development
- ✓ The difference between phonemic awareness and phonics skills
- ✓ Levels of phonological and phonemic awareness skills (e.g. rhyming, segmenting, blending, deleting and substituting)
- ✓ Strategies (e.g., implicit, explicit) to promote phonological and phonemic awareness (e.g. distinguishing spoken words, syllables, onsets/rimes, phonemes)
- ✓ The role of phonological processing in the reading development of individual students (ELLs, struggling readers, highly proficient readers)

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Terminology

Phoneme: a phoneme is the smallest part of *spoken* language that makes a difference in the meaning of words. English has 41 phonemes. A few words, such as *a* or *ob*, have only one phoneme. Most words, however, have more than one phoneme: The word *if* has two phonemes (/i/ /f/); **check** has three phonemes (/ch/ /e/ /k/), and **stop** (/s/ /t/ /o/ /p/) has four phonemes. Sometimes one phoneme is represented by more than one letter.

Grapheme: a grapheme is the smallest part of written language that represents a phoneme in the spelling of a word. A grapheme may be just one letter, such as **b, d, f, p, s**; or several letters, such as **ch, sh, th, -ck, ea, -igh**.

Phonics: The understanding that there is a predictable relationship between phonemes (sounds of **spoken** language) and graphemes (the letters and spellings that represent those sounds in **written** language).

Phonemic Awareness: The ability to hear, identify, and manipulate individual sounds – phonemes – in spoken words. This is purely an auditory skill and does NOT involve a connection to the written form of language.

Phonological Awareness: A broad term that includes phonemic awareness. In addition to phonemes, phonological awareness activities can involve work with rhymes, words, syllables, and onsets and rimes.

Syllable: A word part that contains a vowel, or, in spoken language, a vowel sound.

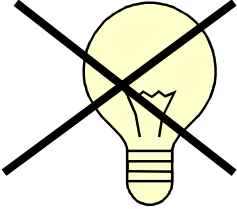
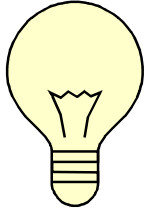
Onset and Rime: Parts of spoken language that are smaller than syllables but larger than phonemes. An onset is the initial consonant sound of a syllable; a rime is the part of a syllable that contains the vowel and all that follows it. **STOP** (st = onset; op = rime)

Teaching Strategies and Resources for Further Study:

Review *Phonemic Awareness Instruction* section (pages 1-10) in Put Reading First. You can read it online or download it from the following address:

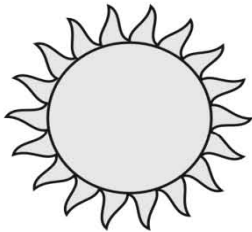
www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/PFRbooklet.pdf

Comparison of Phonological Awareness and Phonemic Awareness to Phonics

PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS	PHONICS
<p style="text-align: center;">Lights Out!</p> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <p style="text-align: center;">It's Auditory</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Lights On!</p> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <p style="text-align: center;">It's Visual</p>
<p>The following examples of phonological awareness skills are listed in a hierarchy from “basic” to “more complex”:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Rhyming 2. Syllables 3. Counting words in a sentence 4. Hearing/manipulating onset and rime 5. Phonemic Awareness <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The most complex level of phonological awareness. ○ The ability to manipulate and identify the individual phonemes in spoken words. ○ Phonemic awareness skills also fall within a hierarchy from “basic” to “complex” ○ Identification of initial sound (e.g. /v/ is the first sound in <i>van</i>) is one example of a basic level. ○ Phonemic segmentation is considered a benchmark for demonstrating a complex level of phonemic awareness. ○ Example: How many sounds/ phonemes in ship? /sh/ /i/ /p/=3 ○ One of the greatest predictors of reading success. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Alphabetic principle. ○ Mapping phonemes to their corresponding letters and letter combinations (graphemes).

Elkonin Boxes: Sounds in Words

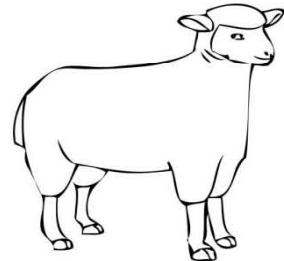
Say the word that names the picture. Put a marker in the first box as you say the first sound of the word. Put a marker in the second box as you say the second sound of the word. Put a marker in the third box as you say the third sound of the word.



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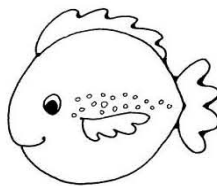
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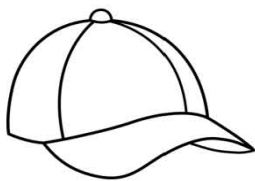
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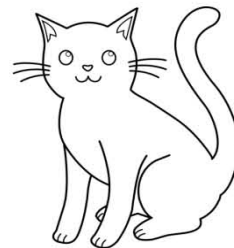
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Phonemic Awareness (Excerpted from *Put Reading First*¹):

What does scientifically based research tell us about phonemic awareness instruction?

Key findings from the scientific research on phonemic awareness instruction provide the following conclusions of particular interest and value to classroom teachers.

Phonemic awareness can be taught and learned.

Effective phonemic awareness instruction teaches children to notice, think about, and work with (manipulate) sounds in spoken language. Teachers use many activities to build phonemic awareness, including:

Phoneme isolation

Children recognize individual sounds in a word.

Teacher: What is the first sound in **van**?

Children: The first sound in **van** is /v/.

Phoneme identity

Children recognize the same sounds in different words.

Teacher: What sound is the same in **fix**, **fall**, and **fun**?

Children: The first sound, /f/, is the same.

Phoneme categorization

Children recognize the word in a set of three or four words that has the “odd” sound.

Teacher: What word doesn’t belong? **Bus**, **Bun**, **Rug**.

Children: **Rug** does not belong. It doesn’t begin with /b/.

Phoneme blending

Children listen to a sequence of separately spoken phonemes, and then combine the phonemes to form a word. Then they write and read the word.

Teacher: What word is /b/ /i/ /g/?

Children: /b/ /i/ /g/ is **big**.

*Teacher: Now let’s write the sounds in **big**: /b/, write **b**; /i/, write **i**; /g/, write **g**.

*Teacher: (Writes **big** on the board.) now we’re going to read the word **big**.

Phoneme segmentation

Children break a word into its separate sounds, saying each sound as they tap out or count it. Then they write and read the word.

Teacher: How many sounds are in **grab**?

Children: /g/ /r/ /a/ /b/. Four sounds.

*Teacher: Now let’s write the sounds in **grab**: /g/, write **g**; /r/, write **r**; /a/, write **a**; /b/, write **b**.

*Teacher: (Writes **grab** on the board.) Now we’re going to read the word **grab**.

* Now it’s “lights on!” What is the skill? _____

Phoneme deletion

Children recognize the word that remains when a phoneme is removed from another word.

Teacher: What is **smile** without the /s/?

Children: **Smile** without the /s/ is **mile**.

Phoneme addition

Children make a new word by adding a phoneme to an existing word.

Teacher: What word do you have if you add /s/ to the beginning of **park**?

Children: **Spark**.

Phoneme substitution

Children substitute one phoneme for another to make a new word.

Teacher: The word is **bug**. Change /g/ to /n/. What's the new word?

Children: **bun**.

Phonemic awareness instruction helps children learn to read.

Phonemic awareness instruction improves children's ability to read words. It also improves their reading comprehension. Phonemic awareness instruction aids reading comprehension primarily through its influence on word reading. For children to understand what they read, they must be able to read words rapidly and accurately. Rapid and accurate word reading frees children to focus their attention on the meaning of what they read. Of course, many other things, including the size of children's vocabulary and their world experiences, contribute to reading comprehension.

Phonemic awareness instruction helps children learn to spell.

Teaching phonemic awareness, particularly how to segment words into phonemes, helps children learn to spell. The explanation for this may be that children who have phonemic awareness understand that sounds and letters are related in a predictable way. Thus, they are able to relate the sounds to letters as they spell words.

Some common phonemic awareness terms:

PHONEME

MANIPULATION:

When children work with phonemes in words, they are manipulating the phonemes. Types of phoneme manipulation include blending phonemes to make words, segmenting words into phonemes, deleting phonemes from words, adding phonemes to words, or substituting one phoneme for another to make a new word.

BLENDING

When children combine individual phonemes to form words, they are blending the phonemes. They also are blending when they combine onsets and rimes to make syllables and combine syllables to make words.

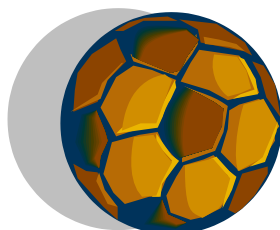
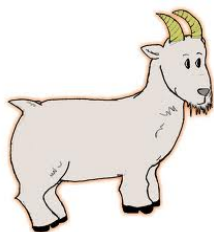
SEGMENTING

(SEGMENTATION):

When children break words into their individual phonemes, they are segmenting the words. They are also segmenting when they break words into syllables and syllables into onsets and rimes.

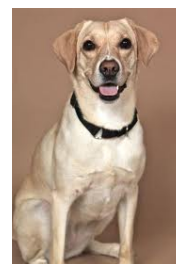
Phonological, Phonemic Awareness, Phonics Practice

1. *Let's find the pictures that rhyme. That means they have the same ending sound.*



The teacher is developing which skill with the exercise above? _____

2. *Let's match pictures that have the same first sound.*



The teacher is developing which skill with the exercise above? _____

3. *Imagine a beginning reader reads the sentence below. Notice how the student segments the word, then has to blend it back together. This example shows how _____ supports decoding.*

b-i-g
The dog is big.

4. *How many sounds in the word BLAST? _____*

SUBAREA: Foundations of Reading Development (35% of the test)

Section 0002: Understand Concepts of Print & the Alphabetic Principle:

- ✓ Development of the understanding that print carries meaning
- ✓ Strategies for promoting awareness of the relationship between spoken and written language
- ✓ The role of environmental print in developing print awareness
- ✓ Development of book handling skills
- ✓ Strategies for promoting an understanding of the directionality of print
- ✓ Techniques for promoting the ability to track print in connected text
- ✓ Strategies for promoting letter knowledge (e.g., skill in recognizing and naming upper-case and lower-case letters)
- ✓ Letter formation (how to form/write letters correctly)
- ✓ Strategies for promoting an understanding of the alphabetic principle (i.e., the recognition that phonemes are represented by letters and letter pairs)
- ✓ Use of reading and writing strategies for teaching letter-sound correspondence
- ✓ Development of alphabetic knowledge in individual students (English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

Terminology

Alphabetic Principle: phonemes (speech sounds) that are represented by letters and letters pairs.

Environmental Print: print found authentically in our environment (stop sign, labels on food).

Emergent Literacy: “There is not a point in a child’s life when literacy begins; rather it is a continuous process of learning.” This means that we are emerging in our understanding of literacy before we can even speak. Literacy development begins with one’s earliest experiences of authentic literacy in the home (from the development of oral language, to having books read to you, to “scribbling” as a precursor to conventional letter formation). On the MTEL, students described as “emergent readers” are typically in an early childhood setting or kindergarten. They have not yet begun formal reading instruction.

Book Handling Skills: Illustrates a child’s knowledge of how books “work” (how to hold the book, tracking print from left to right, front and back cover, title page, dedication page etc.)

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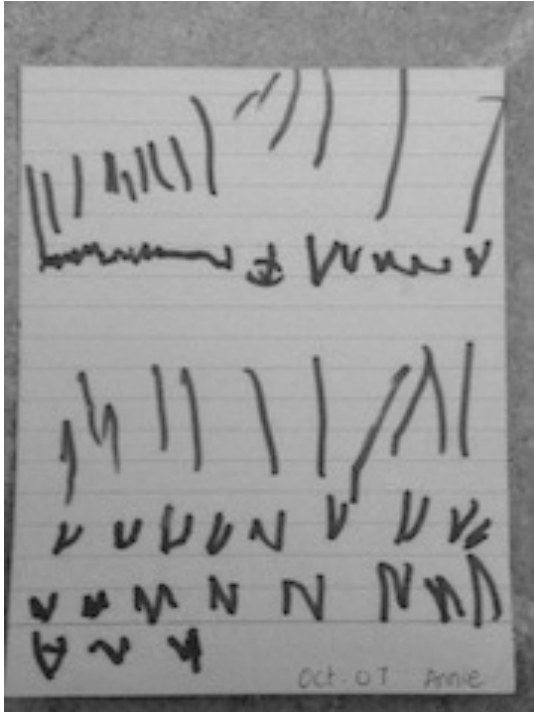
Add Your Notes on these Topics Here:

Promoting Emergent Literacy in the Classroom

Promoting Book Handling Skills/Concepts of Print

Strategies for Promoting Letter Recognition and Formation

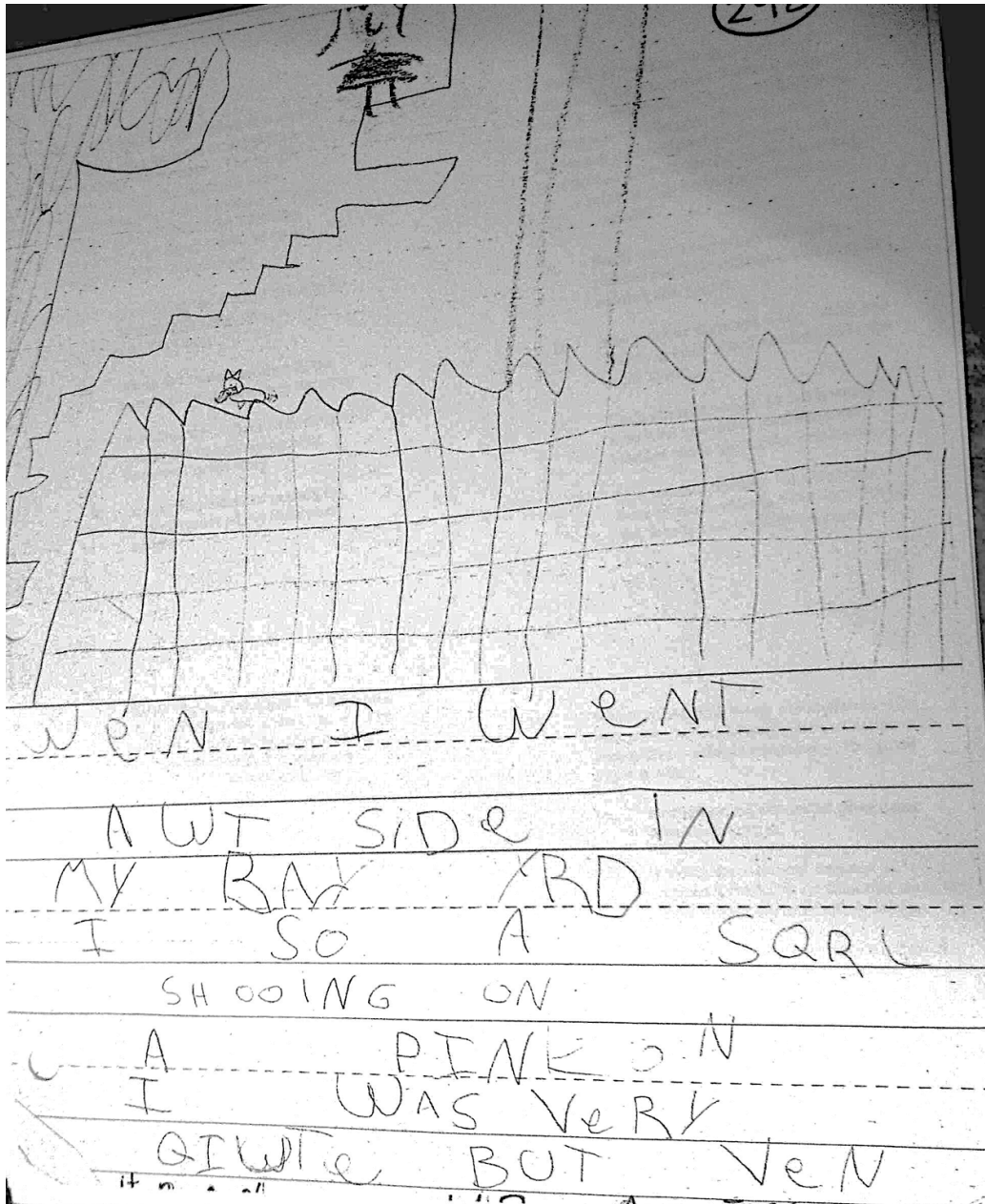
Samples of Emergent Writing



This first example illustrates the literacy skills of a child who knows that “print carries meaning”. She knows that the squiggles carry meaning and are different than pictures. She does not yet know conventional letters. Learning some letters that hold relevance for her (i.e. those in her name or the names of loved ones, letters from environmental print) would be a logical next step for her.



This same child is further in her literacy development. She is beginning to show increased evidence of the use of conventional letters, although the letters used are random and are not yet associated with the corresponding sound(s). She may be ready for beginning introduction to the alphabetic principle.



This is the same child a few years later (in kindergarten). Her story reads:

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

Her story shows evidence of her knowledge of concepts in print and the alphabetic principle:

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

SUBAREA: Foundations of Reading Development (35% of the test)

Section 0003: Understand the Role of Phonics in Promoting Reading Development

- ✓ Explicit and implicit strategies for teaching phonics
- ✓ The role of phonics in developing rapid, automatic word recognition
- ✓ The role of automaticity in developing reading fluency
- ✓ Interrelationship between decoding, fluency and reading comprehension
- ✓ The interrelationship between letter-sound correspondence and beginning decoding (e.g., blending letter sounds)
- ✓ Strategies for helping students decode single-syllable words that follow common patterns (e.g. CVC, CVCC) and multisyllable words
- ✓ Methods for promoting and assessing the use of phonics generalizations to decode words in connected text
- ✓ Use of semantic and syntactic cues to help decode words
- ✓ The relationship between decoding and encoding (e.g. analyzing the spellings of beginning readers to assess phonic knowledge, using spelling instruction to reinforce phonics skills)
- ✓ Strategies for promoting automaticity and fluency (i.e., accuracy, rate, and prosody)
- ✓ The relationship between oral vocabulary and the process of decoding written words
- ✓ Specific terminology associated with phonics (e.g. phoneme, morpheme, consonant digraph, consonant blend)
- ✓ Development of phonics skills in individual students and fluency in individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

Terminology:

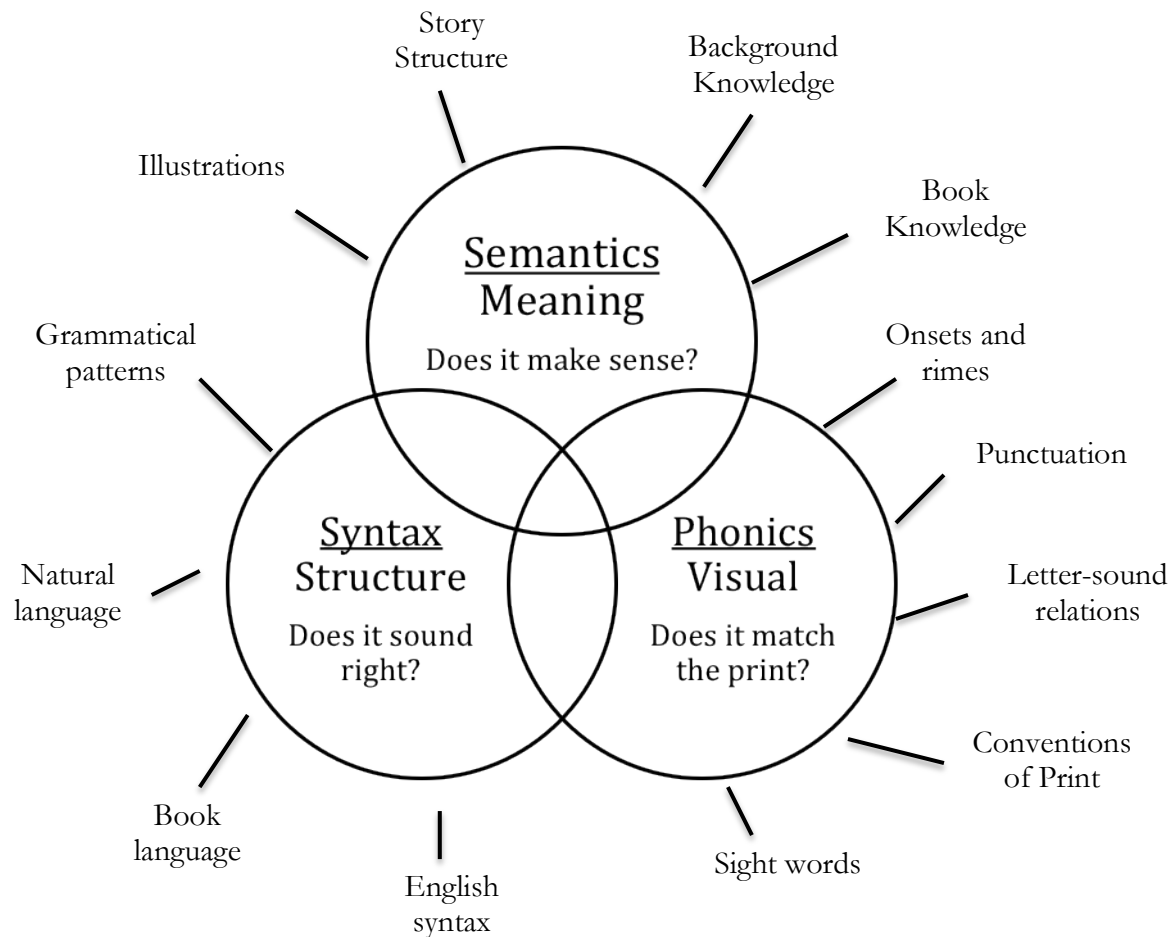
Review phonics terms from glossary section in beginning of guide.

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Teaching Strategies and Resources for Further Study:

- ✓ Review *Phonics* section (pages 11-19) in Put Reading First.
- ✓ Read article on the *Three Cueing Systems* in your study guide.

The Three Reading Cueing Systems²



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

3 Cueing Systems

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

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

A simplified version of the cueing systems:

Cueing System	Questions and prompts for the reader:	Demands knowledge of . . .	MTEL Interpretation
<p><u>M</u>eaning/Semantics (M)</p>	<p><i>What would <u>m</u>ake sense?</i> Does that make sense?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The context of sentence, paragraph, passage and/or text • Background knowledge • Illustrations, where available 	<p style="text-align: center; font-size: 2em;">Context Clues- “Back-Up Plan”</p>
<p><u>S</u>tructure/Syntax (S)</p>	<p><i>What would <u>s</u>ound right?</i> How would we <u>s</u>ay it? Would we say it that way?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar • An intuitive sense of the correct order of words in a sentence, subject-verb agreement, consistent use of tense 	
<p><u>V</u>isual/Phonics (V)</p>	<p><i>What word matches the <u>p</u>rint?</i> What sounds do the letters/letter combinations make? “Sound it out”. “Tap it out.” “Chunk it.”</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alphabetic principle • Letter-sound correspondence • Phonics generalizations • Structural Analysis Strategies 	<p style="text-align: center;">THE CUEING SYSTEM GIVEN GREATEST PRIORITY AND IMPORTANCE for INSTRUCTION—</p>

The text reads:

The young children arrived at the park and quickly jumped on the swings.

Reader 1: The young children arrived at the pool [park] and quickly jumped on the swings.

Teacher prompt focusing on the use of meaning: *Does that make sense? Would the children be at a pool if they jumped on the swings?*

Reader 2: The young children arrived at the park and quickly jump [jumped] on the swings.

Teacher prompt focusing on the use of syntax: *Does that sound right? Would we say it this way: They arrived at the park and jump on the swings?"*

Reader 3: The young chicken [children] arrived at the park and quickly jumped on the swings.

Teacher prompt focusing on the use of visual/phonics: *Let's look at this word where you said 'chicken'. Read all the way through the word. Notice the middle part of the word. Do these letters say, 'chick'?*

Important Phonics Generalizations and Terms^{3, 4}

	Consonants (C)	Vowels (V)
Some useful generalizations about consonants and vowels:	<p>B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P etc.</p> <p>Consonant letters are fairly reliable. There is a strong relationship between the letter and the sound we expect it to represent.</p> <p>Consonants represent the dominant sounds in words.</p>	<p>Generally, vowel sounds are considered short, such as in the sounds below:</p> <p>A: apple, E: elephant I: igloo O: octopus U: umbrella</p> <p>Or long, such as the sounds in the words below:</p> <p>A-say E: tree I: bike O: boat U: cute</p> <p>Vowels are more difficult to learn because each letter is represented by more than one distinct sound; the sound depends on the other letters around it. Vowel sounds are also harder to discriminate (hear, manipulate, identify).</p>
. . .but there are irregularities. . .	<p>A letter may represent more than one phoneme. For example, some consonant letters may produce a hard or soft sound.</p> <p>The hard c is the sound of /k/ in <i>cat</i>.</p> <p>The soft c is the sound of /s/ in <i>cent</i>, and <i>city</i>.</p> <p>The hard g is the sound of /g/ in <i>game</i>.</p> <p>The soft g is the sound of /j/ in <i>gem</i> and <i>gentle</i>.</p>	<p>Vowel sounds behave differently in accented and unaccented syllables. The vowel is most clearly heard in the accented syllable.</p>
Final -y		<p>Y functions as a vowel in the final position (e.g. very, merry)</p>

<p>Blends</p>	<p>bl, sm, scr, gr, sl, etc.</p> <p>Blends are consonant pairs or clusters. <i>Trick to help you remember:</i> The bl in blend is an example...notice that you still hear each sound “through to the end” (these letters do NOT make a new sound when combined).</p>	<p>(The term “blend” is generally used when referring to consonants. A diphthong, described below, is the vowel equivalent.)</p>
<p>Digraphs (and trigraphs)</p>	<p>ch, ph, sh, th, wh, tch, gh (final position only), ng (final position only) etc.</p> <p>Two consonant letters that together make a <u>new sound</u>.</p> <p><i>Trick to help you remember:</i> A digraph makes me laugh. The last two letters in digraph (ph) and in laugh (gh) are connected to form two <u>completely new sounds</u>.</p>	<p>ai, ay, oa, ee, ea</p> <p>Generalization: “When two vowels go walking, the first one does the talking and says its name”.</p> <p>These combinations of vowels together make one <u>new sound</u>.</p>
<p>Silent “E”</p>		<p>When a short word ends with an “e”, the first vowel usually has the long sound and the final “e” is silent.</p> <p>Word or syllable patterns that follow this generalization:</p> <p>VCe (ape) CVCe (cape) CCVCe (brave)</p>
<p>“R-Controlled Vowels” or “Vowels followed by r”</p>		<p>When a vowel letter is followed by “r”, the vowel sound is neither long nor short (it is different!).</p> <p><i>Examples:</i> “ar” in car, “or” in for, “ir” in bird</p>
<p>Diphthongs</p>		<p>A blend of vowel sounds, where each sound is still heard.</p> <p>The two most agreed upon vowel combinations are “oi” in boil and “ou” in mouth.</p>

Approaches to Phonics Instruction

Synthetic vs. Analytic Approaches to Phonics Instruction:

One definition of **synthetic phonics**:

- a part-to-whole phonics approach to reading instruction in which the student learns the sounds represented by letters and letter combinations, blends these sounds to pronounce words, and finally identifies which phonic generalizations apply. . .⁵

One definition of **analytic phonics**:

- a whole-to-part approach to word study in which the student is first taught a number of sight words and then relevant phonic generalizations, which are subsequently applied to other words; deductive phonics. See also whole-word phonics.⁶

[Phonics](#) has become an acceptable practice and approach to teaching children to read. However, there are different methods in which it is used, and disagreement over which approach is best.

[Synthetic phonics](#) involves the development of phonemic awareness from the outset. As part of the decoding process, the reader learns up to 44 phonemes (the smallest units of sound) and their related graphemes (the written symbols for the phoneme). In contrast, **Analytical Phonics**, also known as the Whole Word approach, involves analysis of whole words to detect phonetic or orthographic (spelling) patterns, then splitting them into smaller parts to help with decoding.^[5]

Supporters of [Synthetic phonics](#) argue that if the systematic teaching of phonics doesn't take place, analytic learners can fall behind and fail to develop the tools they need for decoding words.^[6]

Note: While many educators would argue that there is no one approach to reading instruction that works best for all learners, the Foundations of Reading test emphasizes the effectiveness of the [synthetic approach](#) to phonics instruction.

For More Information on approaches to phonics instruction from the National Reading Panel, see:

Types of Phonics Instruction (including Types of Phonics Instruction and Instructional Methods) at <http://www.readingrockets.org/article/254/>

Researched-Based Sequence of Instruction for Phonics Knowledge⁷ (According to Chall)

Emergent Readers

- Learn concepts about print
- Build oral language
- Build phonological awareness (e.g. a sense of rhyming)
- Develop knowledge of letter names (letter identification)
- May begin to develop knowledge of alphabetic principle (the sounds associated with letters)

Early/Beginning Readers

Phonics instruction begins with words containing **short** vowel sounds. These words begin with single consonant letters and then include consonant blends (e.g. *cast*) and digraphs (e.g. *chat*). Beginning readers (typically in late kindergarten through grade 1) learn consistent phonics generalizations. In other words, they learn to read words that follow predictable patterns.

CVC

cat
sip
bug
map

CVCC

cast
tent
lift
fist

CCVC

trip
twig
ship
chat

CCVCC

stick
truck
twist
blend

Then children are introduced to ways to read words with **long vowel patterns**.

CVCe

The “silent e” pattern.

same
late
bike

CVVC, CCVVC, CVVCC, CCVVCC etc

Next students learn these patterns containing vowel digraphs

rain train toast speech
team chain reach
bait

SIGHT WORDS

Children at this stage also begin to learn a bank of sight words. These words appear frequently in their reading and writing and need to be memorized: *because, friend, there, when*

Transitional Readers (2nd grade and up)

Students at this level begin to see lots of words that are not necessarily in their oral vocabulary. The patterns may be consistent, but the features become more complex and many words are now multi-syllable. The derivation of these words may indicate their meaning, pronunciation, and spelling.

spoil

place

bright

shopping

carries

chewed

shower

bottle

favor

ripen

cellar

fortunate

pleasure

Fluency

When readers read fluently, they read smoothly, accurately and efficiently. Qualities of fluency include accuracy, appropriate rate, expression, phrasing and intonation.

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

Independent Level	Instructional Level	Frustration Level
<p data-bbox="252 701 518 739">95-100% accuracy</p> <p data-bbox="204 781 566 904">This is the level at which students should practice reading independently.</p>	<p data-bbox="675 701 919 739">90-94% accuracy</p> <p data-bbox="611 781 987 987">This is the <i>student's zone of proximal development</i> where small group instruction or individual instruction is appropriate.</p>	<p data-bbox="1059 701 1362 739">Below 90% accuracy</p> <p data-bbox="1031 781 1393 943">This is the level at which the student's reading development may be undermined.</p> <p data-bbox="1023 992 1406 1406"><i>The amount of time a child is expected to read texts at their frustration level should be limited. All children should have access to the complexity of texts appropriate for their grade, but there is little evidence to show that this practice will actually improve reading development.</i></p> <p data-bbox="1023 1453 1401 1906"><i>An exception: Readers can develop their ability to access and understand complex texts if the teacher occasionally chooses a short passage, excerpt or short story for this purpose and provides sufficient scaffolding and opportunities for repeated re-readings. This practice is known in the CCSS as "close reading".</i></p>

What strategies support oral reading fluency?

- Repeated readings of familiar texts
- Echo reading
- Choral reading
- Reader's theater

Why is fluency so important?

- With greater fluency students can focus their cognitive resources on the meaning of the text; they cannot focus on the meaning if they are have a slow rate (word-by-word reading). They cannot focus on the meaning if they are struggling to identify the words on the page.

Examples of Words with Specific Features and Phonics Patterns⁸

<u>long</u>	<u>short</u>	<u>short</u>	<u>long</u>	<u>other</u>	<u>l controlled</u>	<u>r controlled</u>	<u>w changes</u>
a	had	big	ate	sing	all	far	want
	and	did	came	bring	call	start	wash
be	an	in	made	going	fail		walk
he	can	him	make		small	or	
me	ran	sit	take	drink		for	warm
she	am	it	gave	think	tell		
we	at	its			well	first	work
the	that	if	say	thank	help	her	
	ask	wish	may			hurt	
I	fast	six	play	little	will	after	
	Black	pick	they			better	
go		this		funny	full	under	
so	yes	which	see		pull		
no	best	with	green	grow		our	
	get		keep	show			
my	let	got	sleep	own		here	
try	red	hot	three	yellow			
why	then	not					
by	when	off	eat	how			
fly	ten	on	*read	now			
	went	long	clean	down			
	them	stop		brown			
			five				
		run	like	out			
		cut	ride	found			
		but	white	round			
		jump					
		just	light	saw			
		must	right	draw			
		much					
		up	blue	good			
		us	new	look			
				too			
				soon			
				myself			
				open			
				over			

<u>Schwa</u>	<u>s as z, f/v</u>	<u>vowel sub</u>	<u>ending v</u>	<u>silent letters</u>	<u>r exceptions</u>	<u>irregular</u>	<u>sight</u>
again	as	to	give	would	carry	two	one
about	has	do	*live	know		buy	once
around	always	into		write	four		
away	hers	today	have	eight	your	laugh	
	is	together		who			
come	his				every		
some	goes	because		are			
done	please	been		before	their		
from	these	could					
does	those	pretty			there		
what	use	put			where		
	was	said					
		shall			very		
	of	you					
		kind					
		find					
		old					
		cold					
		hold					
		both					
		any					
		many					
		never					
		seven					
		upon					
		only					
		don't					
		*read					

Sample Sight/High Frequency Words

PrePrimer	Primer		First	Second		Third
a	all	too	after	always	why	about
and	am	under	again	around	wish	better
away	are	want	an	because	work	bring
big	at	was	any	been	would	carry
blue	ate	well	as	before	write	clean
can	be	went	ask	best	your	cut
come	black	what	by	both		done
down	brown	white	could	buy		draw
find	but	who	every	call		drink
for	came	will	fly	cold		eight
funny	did	with	from	does		fall
go	do	yes	give	don't		far
help	eat		going	fast		full
hers	four		had	first		got
I	get		has	five		grow
in	good		her	found		hold
is	has		him	gave		hot
it	he		how	goes		hurt
jump	into		just	green		if
little	like		know	its		keep
look	must		let	made		kind
make	new		live	many		laugh
me	no		may	off		light
my	now		of	or		long
not	on		old	pull		much
one	our		once	read		myself
play	out		open	right		never
red	please		over	sing		only
run	pretty		put	sit		own
said	ran		round	sleep		pick
see	ride		some	tell		seven
the	saw		stop	their		shall
three	say		take	these		show
to	she		thank	those		six
two	so		them	upon		small
up	soon		then	us		start
we	that		think	use		ten
yellow	there		walk	very		today
you	they		where	wash		together
	this		when	which		try
						warm

*Dolch Sight words as commonly taught in schools – phonetically regular short vowel words ending in a consonant marked in blue⁹

SUBAREA: Foundations of Reading Development (35% of the test)

Section 0004: Understand Word Analysis Skills and Strategies

- ✓ The development of word analysis skills and strategies in addition to phonics, including structural analysis
- ✓ Interrelationships between word analysis skills, fluency, and reading comprehension
- ✓ Identification of common morphemes (e.g., base words, roots, inflections and other affixes)
- ✓ Recognition of common prefixes (e.g. un-, re-, pre-), and suffixes (-tion, -able) and their meanings
- ✓ Knowledge of Latin and Greek roots that form English words
- ✓ Use of syllabication as a word identification strategy
- ✓ Analysis of syllables and morphemes in relation to spelling patterns
- ✓ Techniques for identifying compound words
- ✓ Identification of homographs (i.e., words that are spelled the same but have different meanings and may be pronounced differently [e.g., bow, part of a ship/bow, to bend from the waist; tear, a drop of water from the eye/tear, to rip])
- ✓ Use of context clues (e.g., semantic, syntactic) to help identify words and to verify pronunciation and meaning of words
- ✓ Development of word analysis and fluency in individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers).

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Terminology

Morpheme: any unit in a word is a morpheme (in the word dogs, “dog” and the “s,” are both morphemes)

Base Word: A base-word is usually a simple word from which you can build a family of words around it. If you start with “place” you can say places, placing, placings, replace, placement, etc.

Root Word: Root word refers to the origin of a word. For example, “locus” means *place* in Latin. From this root word derives words such as *local*, *locate*, *locality*, *relocation* and phrases like “*in loco parentis*.”

Prefix: Morpheme added to the beginning of the word

Suffix: Morpheme added to the end of the word

Affix: Prefixes, suffixes and inflectional endings

Also see homograph, homonym and homophone in the Glossary section

Analysis of Word Structure: When Decoding Isn't Enough

When reading multisyllabic words, readers may use phonics generalizations to decode--“sound out”-- individual syllables or parts of a longer word; however, *decoding phoneme-by-phoneme is simply not enough*. When encountering multisyllabic words, readers now need to draw on a host of additional strategies to identify unfamiliar words and they need to be able to break apart these unfamiliar words efficiently and strategically. For example, they need to identify smaller words within larger words, notice roots and bases, prefixes and suffixes and so on. They may also break apart words by syllable.

Not only do these skills help the reader identify the word on the page, structural analysis strategies help the reader understand the meaning of the word itself by breaking apart words into “meaning-bearing parts”.

Some examples of generalizations taught with multisyllabic words:

Closed Syllables	When a short word (or syllable) with one vowel letter ends in a consonant, the vowel sound is usually short. Word patterns that follow this rule are: VC (am) CVC (ham) CVCC (damp) CCVC (stem)
Open Syllables	When a word or a syllable has only one vowel and it comes at the end of the word or syllable, it usually creates the <i>long vowel sound</i> . CV (he, me) CV-CVC (ti -ger, na -tion, hu -man)
Inflectional Endings	Affixes added to the end of words to indicate number (ox/oxen, bush/bushes) or tense (playing, played, plays)
Syllabication	<u>Examples:</u> sum-mer pre-vent um-brel-la
Compound Words	<u>Examples:</u> hotdog shoelace
Contractions	<u>Examples:</u> have not: haven't can not: can't
Prefixes/Suffixes	<u>Examples:</u> re- un- -able; -ful
Schwa	An unstressed vowel sound, such as the first sound in “around” and the last vowel sound in “custom”.

Applying Structural Analysis to Spelling: Important Understandings¹⁰

Important Understandings

1) When spelling unfamiliar multisyllabic words the speller needs to keep in mind that relying on sounds of the word parts for spelling is no longer as reliable as it was with single syllables.

Example: Consider the words *dollar*, *faster*, *actor*. The ending *sound* is the same, but the spelling is different.

What should you emphasize? Help children learn that while they do not know the spelling of the whole word, they likely know a part of the word. Slow down on the less familiar part (in this case, the unaccented syllable).

2) Students need to pay close attention when joining syllables (syllable juncture). One key principle: to mark the short vowel, double the consonant.

Example: *Tigger vs. tiger; gripped vs. griped; hu-man; mam-mal.*

What should you emphasize?

Pay attention to the vowel sound of the first syllable. Determining whether it is a long or short vowel sound will help you decide on the spelling.

3) Accent and stress play a key role in spelling multisyllabic words. There are no fixed rules that govern the spelling of these words, but there are some common generalizations...

Example: *Verbs and adjectives tend to end in -en (waken, golden) whereas nouns tend to end in -on (prison, dragon). Comparative adjectives tend to end in -er (smaller, taller).*

Some spellings are simply more common than others:

Example *there are over 1,000 words ending in -le, but only 200 that end in -el.*

What should you emphasize? Help students notice the most common patterns and generalizations through sorts and discussions.

4) Words that are related in meaning are often related in spelling, despite changes in sound.

Example: *Consider the following spelling: COMPISITION. The o in the word **compose** is the clue to its spelling.*

Similarly, DECESION is spelled with an i instead of an e because it comes from the word decide.

What should you emphasize? By thinking of a word that is related to one you're trying to spell, you will often discover a helpful clue.

5) Polysyllabic (multisyllabic) words often have unstressed syllables in which the vowel is reduced to the schwa sound, but this sound can be written in several different ways.

What should you emphasize? Remembering the root word will often help the speller choose the correct spelling.

6) The suffix pronounced /shun/ can be spelled several ways and can cause the consonant or vowel sound to alternate, changing the pronunciation.

Example: Note the different spellings in *protection, invasion, admission, and musician*.

Also note how the suffix can affect the base word and pronunciation in these interesting ways: detect/detection (the /t/ sound becomes a /sh/ sound); and decide/decision (where the /i/ sound moves from long to short).

What should you emphasize? There are MANY familiar words to examine. By noticing the patterns in these familiar words, students will begin to see the generalizations that emerge. These generalizations are also included in the chart below, but it is recommended that students spend lots of time examining these patterns before sharing generalizations with them.

Suffix Generalizations:

1. Base words that end in -ct or -ss just add -ion (traction, expression)
2. Base words that end in -ic add -ian (magician)
3. Base words that end in -te drop the e and add -ion (translation)
4. Base words that end in -ce drop the e and add a -tion (reduce/reduction)
5. Base words that end in -de and -it drop those letters and add -sion or -ssion (decide/decision, admit/admission).
6. Sometimes -ation is added to the base word, which causes little trouble for spellers because it can be heard (transport, transportation)

Sample Sort for Prefixes—Example of Structural Analysis¹¹

in-	un-	dis-
mis-	Out of Sorts	

uneasy	insincere	dishonest
misspell	unaware	informal
disbelief	misfortune	unknown
infrequent	disorder	mistake
undress	inhuman	disconnect
misleading	unfasten	inexpensive
disease	mischief	untidy
insane	disrespect	discourage

SUBAREA: Development of Reading Comprehension (27% of the test)

Section 0005: Understand Vocabulary Development:

- ✓ The relationship between oral and written vocabulary development and reading comprehension.
- ✓ The role of systematic, non-contextual vocabulary strategies (e.g., grouping words based on conceptual categories and associative meanings) and contextual vocabulary strategies (e.g. paraphrasing)
- ✓ The relationship between oral vocabulary and the process of identifying and understanding written words
- ✓ Strategies for promoting oral language development and listening comprehension (e.g., read-alouds, word explanation strategies)
- ✓ Knowledge of common sayings, proverbs and idioms (e.g. *It's raining cats and dogs; Better safe than sorry.*)
- ✓ Knowledge of foreign words and abbreviations commonly used in English (e.g. RSVP)
- ✓ Criteria for selecting vocabulary words
- ✓ Strategies for clarifying and extending a reader's understanding of unfamiliar words encountered in connected text (e.g. use of semantic and syntactic cues, use of word maps, use of dictionary)
- ✓ Strategies for promoting comprehension across the curriculum by expanding knowledge of academic language, including conventions of standard English grammar and usage, differences between the conventions of spoken and written standard English, general academic vocabulary and content-area vocabulary (e.g., focus on key words)
- ✓ The importance of frequent, extensive, varied reading experiences in the development of academic language and vocabulary
- ✓ Development of academic language and vocabulary knowledge and skills in individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers).

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Terminology:

Oral Vocabulary: The vocabulary one can use appropriately in speech and can understand when heard aloud

Written Vocabulary: The words one can understand when seen in written form.

Semantic Mapping: A strategy that visually displays the relationship among words and helps to categorize them.

Teaching Strategies:

Review *Vocabulary* section (pages 33-45) in Put Reading First.

Vocabulary Development: Overview

Vocabulary relates to understanding the MEANINGS of words.

Why is vocabulary so important to reading development?

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

Do we have a vocabulary “problem”?

- Students need but lack deep and meaningful understanding of words.
 - There are three levels of word knowledge: *unknown*, *acquainted*, and *established*²
 - Words at the established level are words that are easily, rapidly and automatically understood.
 - It is critical that we build students' established knowledge of words
- The more children are read to from birth, the more words in their oral and listening vocabularies. Many of the words in books do not arise naturally in discussions; wide reading builds rich vocabulary knowledge.
- A child's background knowledge also strongly affects their exposure to a wide range of words; the more students have a range of experiences, the more students can make meaningful connections to words. For example, consider children who lack knowledge of city life who live in rural settings and vice versa. Children are simply exposed to different words depending on their life experiences.
- Many children can appear to be strong readers because they read grade level texts with a high degree of accuracy; however, many of these same children may have little understanding of what they read.
 - When accuracy is strong and comprehension is weak, start by assessing whether or not the student understands the meanings of words in context. Lack of vocabulary knowledge is often the missing factor.

Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary Effectively

Teach vocabulary in and out of context. Teach individual words and strategies for determining the meaning of unfamiliar words. Remember that we cannot teach all of the words that students need to learn through direct instruction; word learning comes in large part from students' own reading.

- Provide explicit instruction in selected words that will likely be seen in other contexts
 - Semantic maps and webs are effective for helping children make connections between known words and new words; graphic organizers provide a visual image of these connections and help children retain the meanings
 - Child-friendly definitions help children understand words in a meaningful context. For example, consider the dictionary definitions for *pedantic*:
 - *Random House, Webster's Dictionary*: overly concerned with minute details or formalisms, esp. in teaching
 - *Child-Friendly Definition*: being overly concerned with sticking to unimportant rules, being “stuffy” and inflexible about the small details of things
 - Providing opportunities to discover synonyms and antonyms help to clarify and expand word knowledge

- *Collins Thesaurus of English Language—Synonyms for “pedantic”*: hairsplitting, particular, formal, precise, fussy, picky (informal); punctilious, priggish, pedagogic, pompous, erudite, didactic, bookish (formal)
 - Providing examples of words that “fit” and “don’t fit” the definition also help students retain definitions
 - Providing multiple exposures of these words also help students retain word meanings
- Provide explicit instruction in strategies to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words
 - Use of context clues
 - Dictionary skills
 - Analysis of word parts (morphemic analysis) such as prefixes, suffixes, roots and bases
- Provide explicit instruction of technical (“domain specific”) vocabulary important to understanding content in social studies and science
- Provide opportunities for children to hear books read-aloud.
 - Choose books that are ABOVE the students’ own reading level. Point out the meanings of important and a few selected words in context.
- Provide opportunities for children to read independently; wide reading across genres exposes students to words that do not appear in oral conversation.
 - A great deal of vocabulary can be learned from just reading. Even “children who read just ten minutes a day outside of school experience substantially higher rates of vocabulary growth between second and fifth grade than children who do little reading.”¹³
- Provide opportunities for children to talk about what they read and what is read to them; talk supports vocabulary development and comprehension.
- Provide opportunities for children to make a connection between known words in speaking and the less familiar written form.
 - An effective strategy is to make sure children see the word at the same time that it is pronounced.
- Ensure that vocabulary instruction is active and engaging; engage children in developing word consciousness.
- Pair reading and writing (each supports the other!)

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

Some Important Considerations for Beginning Readers:

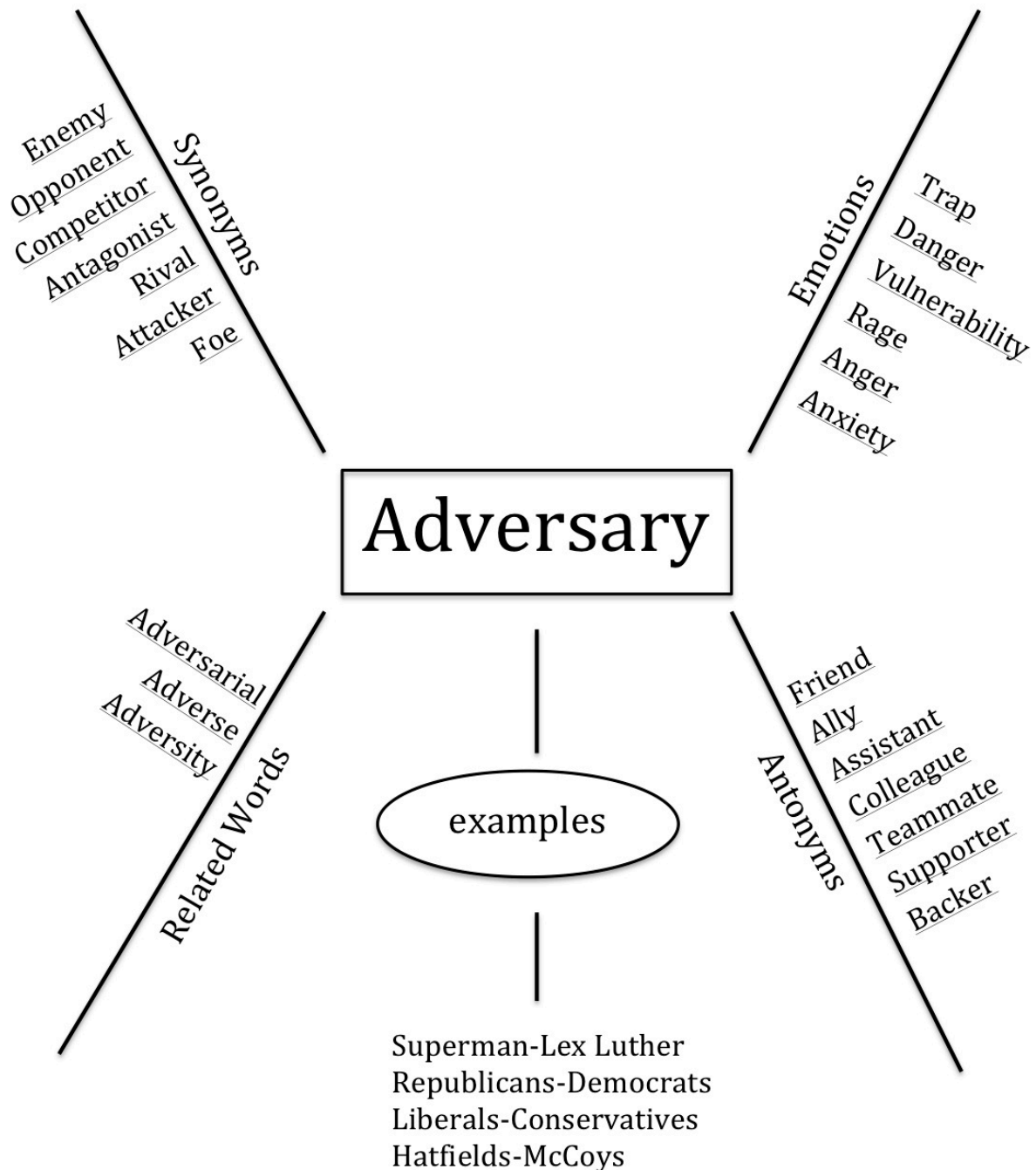
- Beginning reading instruction should focus on helping children learn to read words already in their spoken vocabularies
- As children develop as readers they should be taught vocabulary words that are unknown (but the *concept* is known), such as “pant” (a dog pants). This is especially important for ELLs because they have many concepts, but not the words.
- Teach new words that represent new concepts. This is perhaps the most demanding.

When answering multiple choice questions related to vocabulary, consider the purpose:

- Is it to prepare students for content area (e.g. science, history) instruction? If so, teach the concept words that are unfamiliar and necessary to understand the topic.

- If the question is asking about preparing students to understand literary texts, consider the words that would be helpful to know in this text, but also in others (words that would provide more “bang for the buck”). These words are also known as Tier II words (Beck).

Semantic Map (example)



Vocabulary Tiers
By: Isabel Beck¹⁴

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

The siblings waited anxiously for the news from the surgeon. When she walked through the doors into the corridor, they took one look at her face and began to bawl with elation.

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

SUBAREA: Development of Reading Comprehension (27% of the test)

Section 0006: Understand How to Apply Reading Comprehension Skills and Strategies to Imaginative/Literary Texts

- ✓ Knowledge of reading as a process to construct meaning
- ✓ Knowledge of reading comprehension and analysis skills for reading literature (e.g., analyzing a text's key ideas and details, interpreting an author's use of craft and structure, integrating knowledge and ideas from multiple literary works)
- ✓ Knowledge of levels of reading comprehension (i.e., literal, inferential and evaluative) and strategies for promoting comprehension of imaginative/literary texts at all three levels
- ✓ Strategies for promoting close reading of imaginative/literary texts
- ✓ Development of literary response skills (e.g. connecting elements in a text to prior knowledge and other sources; using evidence from a text to support analyses, develop summaries, and draw inferences and conclusions)
- ✓ Development of literary analysis skills (e.g. identifying features of different literary genres, analyzing story elements, analyzing character development, interpreting figurative language, identifying literary allusions, analyzing the author's point of view)
- ✓ Use of comprehension strategies to support effective reading (e.g., rereading, visualizing, reviewing, self-monitoring and other metacognitive strategies)
- ✓ Use of oral language activities to promote comprehension (e.g. retelling, discussion)
- ✓ The role of reading fluency in facilitating comprehension
- ✓ Use of writing activities to promote literary response and analysis (e.g., creating story maps and other relevant graphic organizers; comparing and contrasting different versions of a story, different books by the same author, or the treatment of similar themes and topics in different texts or genres)
- ✓ Development of reading comprehension skills and strategies for individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

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Terminology:

Literal, Inferential and Evaluative Questions (see page that follows)

Metacognitive Strategies: These are strategies that help the reader become more aware of their own reading process, their thoughts as they read, and help the reader to have more control over their reading (e.g. noticing when comprehension breaks down and using “fix-up” strategies, such as rereading or paraphrasing, to comprehend).

Graphic Organizers: Visual “maps” or diagrams that help the reader organize the information they read. A story map is one type of graphic organizer. It allows the reader to organize the elements of a story (characters, setting, events, problem, solution).

Teaching Strategies:

Review *Comprehension Section* in Put Reading First.

Levels of Comprehension

Levels (from the more basic to the more complex)	Definition	Examples
<p>Literal</p> <p>--Often determined through a retelling in which the student can repeat back the sequence of events and identify key story elements (e.g. who, what, when, where)</p>	<p>Information that is stated <u>explicitly</u> in the text such as who, what, when, where, why.</p> <p>You can find the information “right there” on the page...just <i>read the lines</i>.</p>	<p>Excerpt from Text: <i>It was a bright, sunny day in April, and the flowers were in bloom.</i></p> <p>When does the story take place? <u>A sunny day in April.</u></p> <p>What was in bloom? <u>Flowers.</u></p>
<p>Inferential</p>	<p>Information that is <u>implied</u> within the text, but not directly or explicitly stated.</p> <p>The reader needs to “search and find” clues within the text and then <i>read between the lines</i>.</p>	<p>Excerpt from Text: <i>Annie burst out of the house in her bare feet. She took a deep breath, filling her lungs with the warm air and let her toes discover the fresh grass for the first time in months.</i></p> <p>When do you think the story takes place? Provide evidence. <u>The story probably takes place in the beginning of spring. The fact that Annie burst out of the house may indicate that she was excited by the change in season. The text indicates that she didn’t wear shoes (so it had to be warm enough) and that she hadn’t been outside in bare feet “for months”.</u></p>
<p>Evaluative</p>	<p>The reader needs to use information from the text and their own world experiences to form a judgment.</p>	<p>The question might sound like this:</p> <p>Do you think (character in the text) made the right choice for her family? Explain using text evidence.</p>

Before-During-After Reading Strategies¹⁵

Before Reading:

The reader develops a plan of action by:

- Activating and building upon prior knowledge and experiences
- Predicting what text is about based on text features, visuals, and text type
- Setting a purpose for reading

An *Anticipation Guide* is an example of a Before Reading Strategy.

During Reading:

The reader maintains and monitors a plan of action by:

- Connecting new texts with prior knowledge and experiences
- Checking predictions for accuracy
- Forming sensory images
- Making inferences
- Determining key vocabulary
- Interpreting the traits of main characters
- Self-monitoring own difficulty in decoding and comprehending text
- Interpreting diagrams, maps, and charts
- Posing how, why and what questions to understand and/or interpret text
- Recognizing cause-effect relationships and drawing conclusions
- Noticing when comprehension problems arise

A *Character Map* is an example of a During Reading Strategy.

After Reading:

The reader evaluates a plan of action by:

- Discussing accuracy of predictions
- Summarizing the key ideas
- Connecting and comparing information from texts to experience and knowledge
- Explaining and describing new ideas and information in own words
- Retelling story in own words including setting, characters, and sequence of important events
- Discussing and comparing authors and illustrators
- Reflecting on the strategies that helped the most and least and why

A *Semantic Map* is an example of an After Reading Strategy.

Literacy Guide:¹⁶

STRATEGIES FOR SUCCESSFUL READERS AND WRITERS

Successful readers and writers need to learn and practice a number of strategies to use Before, During, and After Reading.

The following pre-reading activities can help students to:

- Activate Background Knowledge and Make Connections
- Stimulate Predictions
- Form a Purpose for Reading

Predicting:

- Examine the cover illustration (if there is one) and read the title of new book. Ask child to predict what it might be about based on either the cover picture, the title, or both. If the title and illustration are not helpful in giving the student a sense of what the story is about, you can provide a brief summary of the book. For example, when looking at a book with a picture of a cat on the front, you can say: “This story is about a cat that moves to a new house and has some adventures while trying to make new friends.”

Activating Background Knowledge:

- Ask the student to tell you what he or she knows about the subject of the story or if he or she has had similar experiences, or heard or read a story like this or by same author. “You said you have a cat. Tell me what your cat does all day and who its friends are. What kind of friends do you think the cat in this book might find?” if the topic is totally unfamiliar, reconsider book choice, or take extra time to build the necessary background knowledge through some kind of concrete experiences. For example, if you choose a book about a farm and the student has never been to a farm you may want to begin by looking at pictures of farms and farm animals, and having a brief discussion about what kinds of things happen on farms: what animals live there, what things grow on farms, etc.

Conducting Picture Walk:

- With Emergent and Early readers conduct a “Picture Walk” through the book, or chapter, by covering the print, and encouraging or guiding the student in a discussion of what could be going on based on the pictures. If there is vocabulary that may not be familiar to child such as “cupboard” or “bonnet” point the words out and explain them in connection with the teeny tiny woman is putting on her hat, except in this book it’s called a ‘bonnet’ (pointing to the word) which is another word for hat. She is putting on her teeny tiny bonnet. Do you think she is getting ready to go somewhere? “In your discussion of the pictures, be sure to use as much of the actual book language as possible, especially if there are repeated patterns or refrains. (*The Teeny Tiny Woman*, Barbara Seeling).

Noticing Structure of the text:

- Where appropriate, point out or help the child notice the structure of the text and connect it with other similarly structured texts heard or read. “Yes, this is a fairy tale. We’ve read several fairy tales together. What do you know about fairy tales? What have you noticed that is the same about the three tales we read?”

Forming Purpose for Reading:

- Formulate and encourage the student to come up with two or three predictions or questions before reading. “This is a story about a boy who wants a dog, but his mother won’t let him have one. What do you think he is going to do first? Why do you think that?” “You already know a lot about dinosaurs. What are some things you think you might learn when reading this book?”

ASKING QUESTIONS

An important strategy to use before, during and after reading to enhance interest and comprehension¹⁷

Engaging students in a dialogue about something they are about to read can clarify their thinking and help you find out what they already know or expect from the material. Questions and discussion also clarify understanding during and after reading. One way to begin this dialogue is through asking questions that elicit responses reflecting the student’s thoughts and understandings about the reading.

Too often questions are used only at the end of reading, asked by the teacher or tutor to check comprehension. In fact, successful readers ask themselves questions throughout the reading process. Beginning readers need modeling and practice to learn how to do this.

Effective questions encourage real thinking, not just yes or no answers. Notice too different kinds of questions require different ways of finding the answer:

- **Factual or “right there”** questions can be answered with a single word or phrase found right in the story: “When did the story take place?” “It was midnight, the 25th of October...”
- **Inference or “think and search”** questions require finding and integrating information from several places in the story and relating one’s own knowledge as well. “When did the story take place?” “The harvest moon hung high in the sky, shining on the field of ripe orange pumpkins waiting to be picked for Halloween...” Using our background knowledge of concepts like “harvest” and “Halloween” as well as the words “ripe pumpkins” we figure out that this story takes place one night in late October, even though those words aren’t used in the text.
- **“In the head” or “On my own”** questions require bringing in one’s own information, (background knowledge). These can be answered without reading from the book. “We have read a lot of fairy tales, what kinds of things usually happen in fairy tales?” Or, “You told me you have a cat. What might happen in a story called *Puss in Boots*? Do you think it could be true?”

- Remember to focus on the positive aspects of the child's responses to encourage future attempts.

Questions before reading should help the reader:

- **Make connections** between background knowledge and the topic of the book: "This book is about Anansi the Spider: do you remember the other Anansi book we read? What kind of character is Anansi? What kinds of things did he do in the story? How do you suppose he will behave in this book?"
- **Set a purpose** for reading: "Here is a new book about sea turtles. What are some things that you would like to learn about these creatures?"
- **Make predictions:** "The title of this book is *The Missing Tooth*, (Cole, 1988). Who do you suppose the two boys on the cover are, and what do you think this book might be about? What happens to you when you lose a tooth?"

Questions during reading should help the reader:

- **Clarify and review** what has happened so far: "What are some of the things that made Arlo and Robby such good friends?"
- **Confirm or create new predictions:** "Now that one boy has lost a tooth, so they aren't both the same, what's going to happen? I wonder if they will stay friends?"
- **Critically evaluate the story and make personal connections:** "Could this really happen – that two good friends could have a fight because one of them had something the other wanted? How would you feel if you were Robby? What would you do?"
- **Make connections with other experiences or books:** "Does this remind you of another story/character, what happened in that story? Could that happen here?"
- **Monitor the child's reading for meaning and accuracy:** "Did that word 'horned' make sense? What is a 'horned toad'?"

Questions after reading will help:

- **Reinforce the concept** that reading is for understanding the meaning of the text, and making connections: "In this story about Amy's first day in school how did she feel before going into her classroom? How did you feel on your first day?"
- **Model ways of thinking** Through and organizing the information they have taken in from reading a text: "What did Amy's teacher do when she walked into the classroom? How does Amy feel now? How do you know that?"
- **Encourage critical thinking** and personal response: "What do you think might have happened if the teacher had not done that? Why do you think the author decided to write this story? Would you have done what Amy did?"
- **Build awareness** of common themes and structures in literature: "What other story or character does this sound like? What parts are the same? What parts are different?"

When children respond to your questions it is important to listen carefully to what they say, and to respond to any questions they may have. Also, if a student has misunderstood a section of a story you may want to go back to that part of the book and reread it, clarifying any difficult vocabulary if necessary, to help the student understand what is going on.

You might say:

“You said that the rabbit was laughing at the pig at the end, but you know, I remember something different. Lets look at that part of the book again and see what it says.” (Then reread the appropriate segment of the book.)

“Here it says: ‘The rabbit ran through the door and slipped past the man who was laughing at the pig.’ Do you know what it means when someone “slips past” something?...”

The most important thing, however, when talking about a story with a child is to let them know that their ideas about what they have read are important and that you value what they have to say.

Literary Text Matrix: Fiction, Literary Nonfiction, and Poetry¹⁸

	Genre Type of Text	Text Structure and Features	Author's Craft
Fiction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adventure Stories • Realistic Fiction • Historical Fiction • Folktales • Legends • Fables • Tall Tales • Myths 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Themes • Morals • Lessons Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plot – Sequence of Events • Conflict • Solution • Resolution Elements • Setting • Characterization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diction and Word Choice • Dialogue • Exaggeration Figurative Language <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Symbolism • Simile • Metaphor
Literary Notification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal Essay • Autobiography and Biography 	Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description • Cause and Effect • Comparison • Chronology Elements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Point of View • Themes or Central Ideas • Logical Connections • Transitions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diction and Word Choice • Use of Action or Dialogue to Introduce Characters • Exaggeration • Figurative Language • Symbolism • Simile and Metaphor
Poetry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Narrative poem • Lyrical poem • Humorous poem • Free Verse 	Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verse • Stanza Text Features <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repetition • Dialogue • Line Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Patterns Elements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rhyme Scheme • Rhythm • Mood 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diction and Word Choice • Exaggeration • Use of Imagery to Provide Detail • Figurative Language • Simile and Metaphor • Alliteration • Onomatopoeia

Analyzing Literary Characters

_____ Main Character/s and other important character/s?

_____ Character feelings and changes over time?

_____ Character personality traits and changes over time?

_____ Character motives/goals and changes over time?

_____ Character relationships and changes over time?

_____ Connection to character/s from other stories?

_____ Story theme?

SUBAREA: Development of Reading Comprehension (27% of the test)

Section 0007: Understand How to Apply Reading Comprehension Skills and Strategies to Informational/Expository Texts

- ✓ Knowledge of reading comprehension and analysis skills for reading informational text (e.g., explaining key ideas and details in an informational text, analyzing the craft and structure used in an expository or persuasive text, integrating knowledge and ideas from multiple print or digital sources)
- ✓ Knowledge of levels of reading comprehension (i.e., literal, inferential and evaluative) and strategies for promoting comprehension of informational/expository texts at all three levels
- ✓ Strategies for promoting close reading of informational/expository texts, including strategies for identifying point of view, distinguishing facts from opinions, analyzing multiple accounts of the same event or topic, determining how an author uses reasons and evidence to support particular points in a text, and detecting faulty reasoning in informational/expository texts
- ✓ Use of reading strategies for different texts and purposes (e.g., adjusting reading rate based on text difficulty, skimming/scanning)
- ✓ Use of comprehension strategies to support effective reading (e.g., rereading, visualizing, self-questioning, paraphrasing)
- ✓ Use of oral language activities to promote comprehension (e.g., using evidence in an informational/expository text to explain concepts, events, ideas, or procedures)
- ✓ The role of reading fluency in facilitating comprehension of informational/expository texts
- ✓ Use of writing activities to promote comprehension (e.g. student-generated questioning, note-taking, outlining, summarizing, semantic maps)
- ✓ Knowledge of text structures (e.g. chronological, comparison/contrast, cause/effect)
- ✓ Use of text features (e.g. index, glossary), graphic features (e.g., illustrations, charts, maps), and reference materials
- ✓ Application of comprehension strategies to electronic texts
- ✓ Development of students' ability to apply reading comprehension skills for varied purposes
- ✓ Development of the reading comprehension skills and strategies of individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers).

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Terminology:

Informational/Expository Texts: These are factual materials for science, social studies, and other content areas, as well as “concept books” for the very young dealing with the alphabet or relationships of time, space, amount. These books explain something to children or teach them how to do something.

Teaching Strategies:

Review *Comprehension Section* in Put Reading First.

Informational/Expository Texts

What are the unique features of informational texts?

Informational texts...

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

What can we do to increase comprehension of informational texts?

- Increase availability of informational texts.
- Increase exposure.
- Increase instructional time with informational text.
- Increase explicit teaching of comprehension strategies, along with lots of opportunities for guided and independent practice.
- Increase attention to the unique features of informational text.
- Ensure that informational text is used for authentic purposes as much as possible.

Informational Text Matrix: Exposition, Procedural Text or Documents, and Argumentation and Persuasive Text¹⁹

	Genre Type of Text	Text Structure and Features	Author's Craft
Exposition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informational Trade Book • Textbook • News Article • Feature Article • Encyclopedia Entry • Book Review 	<p>Organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description • Sequence • Cause and Effect • Problem and Solution • Comparison and Contrast <p>Content Features</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Point of View • Topics or Central Ideas • Supporting Ideas and Evidence <p>Graphic Features</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Titles • Subheadings • Italics • Captions • Sidebars • Photos and Illustrations • Charts and Tables 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transition Words • Signal Words • Figurative Language and Rhetorical Structures (Parallel Structure, quotations, examples, repetition, logical arguments)
Procedural Text and Documents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recipe • Schedule • Map • Directions • Table • Graph • Time Line 	<p>Organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description • Procedures • Sequence <p>Graphic Features</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Titles • Labels • Headings • Subheadings • Captions • Sidebars • Photos and Illustrations • Charts and Graphs • Legends 	

Informational Text Structure: Definitions & Signal Words

(Adapted from Dole, 1997)

Type of Informational Text Structure	Definition	Signal Words
Chronological/Sequential/Temporal	A main idea supported by details, which must be in a particular order.	Until, before, after, next, finally, lastly, first/last, then, on (dates), at (time)
Descriptive/Enumerative	A major idea supported by a list of details or examples, which may occur in any order.	For example, for instance, in particular, in addition. Note: Varies with text reads more like fiction.
Cause and Effect	The supporting details give the causes of a main idea or the supporting details are the results produced by the main idea.	Since, because, this lead to, on account of, due to, may be due to, for this reason, consequently, then, so, therefore, thus
Compare/Contrast	The supporting details of two or more main ideas indicate how those concepts are similar or different.	In like manner, likewise, similarly, the difference between, as opposed to, after all, however, and yet, but nevertheless
Problem/Solution	A subordinate structure that provides a problem and solution, which may employ any (or all) of the preceding structures.	One reason for that, a solution, a problem
Question/Answer	A subordinate structure that provides a question and answer, which may employ any (or all) of the first four structures.	How, when, what, where, why , who, how, many, the best estimate, it could be that, one may conclude

Note: Most informational text employs more than one text structure.

SUBAREA: Reading Assessment and Instruction (18% of the test)

Section 0008: Understand Formal and Informal Methods for Assessing Reading Development:

- ✓ The use of data and ongoing reading assessment to adjust instruction to meet students' reading needs
- ✓ The characteristics and uses of standardized criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests to assess reading development and identify reading difficulties
- ✓ Concepts of validity, reliability, and bias in testing
- ✓ The characteristics and uses of formal and informal reading-related assessments (e.g. assessment of phonemic awareness, miscue analyses, Informal Reading Inventories, running records, use of rubrics, portfolio assessment, assessment of authentic tasks)
- ✓ Characteristics and uses of group versus individual reading assessments
- ✓ Techniques for assessing particular reading skills (e.g. oral or written retellings to assess comprehension, dictated word lists to test letter-sound knowledge)
- ✓ Awareness of text leveling
- ✓ Awareness of the challenges and supports in a text (e.g. pictures, predictability, decodability)
- ✓ Techniques for determining students' independent, instructional and frustration reading levels
- ✓ Assessment of the reading development of individual students

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Terminology:

Cloze Procedure: A versatile, informal instrument for use in determining a student's reading level, use of context while reading, and knowledge of vocabulary. Sometimes used as an alternative to the Informal Reading Inventory for determining reading levels, students read a selection in which random words are deleted and replaced with blank spaces. Students are directed to read the selection and fill in the blanks with words they think would best complete the sentence.

Ongoing Reading Assessment: Assessment made on a regular basis through a variety of means, both formal and informal. The purpose is to document progress the student makes in reading, while also identifying areas that need instruction. "Kid watching" is one important type of ongoing reading assessment. In this case, notes are made in a systematic way about students' reading behaviors.

Criterion-Referenced Tests: Tests based on objectives that contain specific conditions, outcomes, and criteria that are expected for satisfactory completion of the task.

Norm-Referenced Tests: A norm-referenced test (NRT) provides information on how well a student performs in comparison to an external reference group or norm group.

Miscue Analysis: Analysis of any responses (mistakes) made during oral reading that deviate from those anticipated

Informal Reading Inventories (IRIs): A compilation of graded reading selections with comprehension questions accompanying each selection. This inventory is individually administered to determine the student's strengths and weaknesses in word recognition and comprehension.

Running Records: The running record is an in-depth observation task that allows the teacher to determine:

- Text difficulty.
- Student placement in groups or materials.
- The directional movement of the child in reading connected text.
- The child's ability to coordinate oral language with the visual patterns in text.
- The child's speed of responding, a measure of the child's ability to slow oral language enough to rectify an oral reading error through self-correction.
- The type of cues the child uses to process printed language (meaning, syntax, or visual) about printed text with another type of information.
- The child's self-correction behavior

Rubrics: A set of scoring guidelines for evaluating student work.

Portfolio Assessment: Assessment made on the systematic collection of student work for use in evaluating changes in student performance in reading and language

Notes on Reading Assessments²⁰

Individual Assessments

Informal Reading Inventories (IRIs)

- Test grade level passages from which children read aloud
- Primary purpose is to determine a student's independent reading level and to reveal processes that the student uses or neglects in decoding print
- By looking at processes (strategies) the student is or is not using, the teacher can then design appropriate instruction
- Strengths and needs are determined by a post-test analysis of what the child does when reading aloud
- Typically a word list is used as the initial assessment to determine the appropriate passage at which to start
- The standard cut-off is 80%. Once the child misses more than 20% of the words from a particular list, you turn to the reading passages and start a level or two below the highest level that the child could read.
- Then the child reads aloud and the teacher marks the behavior the student exhibits during reading (e.g. words the child skips over, inserts, omits, etc)
- The purpose of this assessment is to determine the independent reading level (highest passage scored at 95% accuracy or above) and the areas of decoding needing attention.
- There may be comprehension questions after the IRI passage is scored. Usually the child is asked to read again silently, this time focusing on comprehension
- Sometimes this child is asked to retell what was read: "Start at the beginning..."

Running Records

- More flexible, "on the run"
- Can be completed with any text the child is reading
- Check marks on a blank page indicate words read correctly
- Ran/Rat= ran is what the child said; rat is the correct word in the text

Miscue Analysis

- When analyzing on the test, it is important to keep in mind "test reality" vs. "real reality" (analysis of errors below indicates ways of interpreting according to "test reality")
- Some types of errors show more progress than others
- Omissions: high numbers show the child is not using any strategies to decode the print
- High number of initial letter attempts and substitutions can reflect that the child has emerging decoding skills; at least the child is attempting to decode – instruction would then focus on helping child become more skilled in decoding
- Errors with sight words: children need to memorize these so that they are accurate and efficient at automatically recognizing these words
- Insertions: shows the children is relying on something other than print while decoding – according to this model and the test perspective, the most important point is that the child is not relying sufficiently on the visual (print), regardless of how much meaning they are deriving from print
- Self corrections: in the real world, self corrections may be a very good sign (the child is self-monitoring and aware when something doesn't make sense or sound right). For the

test, however, self-corrections still indicate an area in which the child needs direct skills instruction so that they can become more automatic and efficient

- Errors and self-corrections indicate the processes students are using while reading to make and correct mistake. This is where the 3 cueing systems come in:
 - Meaning/semantics (reading with the meaning in mind): “Does that make sense?”
 - Visual/graphophics (reading with the print in mind): “Does that look right?”
 - Syntax/grammar (reading with the grammar in mind): “Does that sound right?”
- MSV
- This model (and the test perspective) tends to prescribe skills instruction during this “learning to read” stage
- This model tends to view all children’s miscues, even their self-corrections, as hindrances to learning to decode

Group Assessments

Norm-referenced

- 3 key terms to know: reliability, validity, reporting
- Reporting can also be associated with the terms raw score, rank and grade-equivalent
- Reliability means that the test measures things the same way *every time* it is used
- Validity: does the test measure what it says it measures?
- We need reliability and validity if we are to be able to make accurate comparisons.
- Test conditions also need to be the same.
- Example: a score of “6” is the same in one class vs. another, the same in one state vs. another
- Raw score: number of the correct items out of the number of items in total.
- Percentile rankings: this makes comparing one student to another easier. A student who was correct on all items then scored in the 99th percentile, which means she did better than 99 percent of the people who took the test.
- 50th percentile means a student did better than half and worse than half of all the students who took it
- Grade equivalent: what does the score mean? This helps us determine what “normal” is for children in each grade. A raw score of 5 might be normal for 2nd graders; a 9 might be “normal” for 3rd graders.
- When reporting, it is important to keep in mind the audience (e.g. parents) to determine how to report the scores and what to say about them so that they are understandable.

Criterion-referenced

- Terms associated: Benchmarks and rubric
- These tests look at both process and product
- For example, these assessments may consider what children are doing when they write answers they write, along with whether the answer is correct
- The benchmark establishes a criteria for success and a time at which it should be met
- Rubrics can rate how well children are progressing toward the criteria (e.g. beginning, developing, proficient)

Cloze Procedure²¹

Preparation:

1. Select a passage of about 100 words.
2. Type it leaving the first and last sentences intact.
3. Beginning with the second sentence, delete every seventh word. Place a line where each word is deleted. All lines should be the same length.
4. Prepare one passage for you to use as a model and a different one for the child to use.

Administration:

1. Explain that you need help with your “homework.” Explain in your own words that you are not testing the child but that you are getting practice in administering this tool.
2. Model this activity with a short practice passage.
3. Have the child read through the passage first, saying “blank” where the lines (deleted words are).
4. Have the child go back and insert a word for each space. S/he should be encouraged to guess. This is untimed, so there shouldn’t be any pressure to move quickly.
5. Acknowledge that the child did a great job and thank him/her for helping with your “homework.”

Evaluation:

1. Only EXACT replacements for the deleted words are CORRECT. Therefore, do not evaluate the child’s work in front of him/her.
2. Tally the number of EXACT replacements and determine a percentage of correct responses. For example, if there are 18 deleted words and the child replaces 12 of them with the exact word that was in the original text, the ratio would be 12/18 or 66.6%.
3. Independent Level = 60% or higher (At this level, the child should be successful without support.)
Instructional Level = between 40-59% (At this level, the child should be able to read independently after you have provided prereading support.)
Frustrational Level = between 0 and 39% (This level may be too difficult for the child, even with support.)

Example:

The Terrible Eek a Japanese tale retold by Patricia A. Campton

A long time ago, in a certain place in the mountains, it began to rain. The wind shook a small house _____ a thatch roof.

Inside a boy _____ his father sat warming their hands _____ a small fire. Nearby, the boy’s _____ prepared the evening meal.

The sounds _____ the wind and rain battering at _____ house frightened the boy. “Father, are _____ afraid?” the boy asked. [Continue in this manner through a passage of about 100 words. Leave the last sentence intact.]

Answers: with, and, over, mother, of, the, you.

Yopp-Singer Test of Phoneme Segmentation²²

Student's name _____

Date _____

Score (number correct) _____

Directions: Today we're going to play a word game. I'm going to say a word and I want you to break the word apart. You are going to tell me each sound in the word in order. For example, if I say "old," you should /o/ - /l/ - /d/. (Administrator: Be sure to say the sounds, not the letters, in the world.)

Practice items: (Assist the child in segmenting these items as necessary/) ride, go, man

Test items: (Circle those items that the student correctly segments; incorrect responses may be recorded on the blank line following the item.)

SAMPLE WORDS:

1. dog _____

4. sat _____

2. keep _____

3. fine _____

Concepts of Print Checklist (excerpt)²³

Directions: Have the student read through a familiar book. During the reading, record your observations of the student's behaviors.

Grade	Teacher
Examiner	

Assess	Prompt the Student	Pre-	Post-	Comments
Book Concepts				
Cover of Book	Show me how you hold a book.			
	Show me the front of the book.			
	Show me the name of the author/illustrator.			
	Show me the back of the book.			
Title	Show me the title.			
Title Page	Show me the title page.			
Text Concepts				
Print tells a story	Where does the book tell the story?			
Concept of a word	Can you put your fingers around a word?			
	Can you find two words that are the same?			
	Where is the first word on this page?			
	Where is the last word on this page?			
Concept of letter	Can you put your fingers around a letter?			
	Can you tell me the names of some letters on this page?			

- + = Understands concept (answers the question or performs the indicated behavior without hesitation)
- ✓ = Needs review (answers the question or performs the indicated behavior with hesitation or with additional prompting)
- = Does not understand concept (cannot answer the question or perform the indicated behavior)

Assessing for Different Purposes:²⁴

Determining a child's reading level is one purpose for assessment, but checking in, gathering anecdotal information, talking with children and observing their reading behaviors will represent the bulk of assessments in the classroom. Informal observations are often called, "Kid Watching."

What elements of reading should we assess?

- Emergent literacy (familiarity with conventions of print; phonological awareness; knowledge of letter names and sounds; purpose of literacy in their lives)
- Word strategies (sight words, decoding and spelling behaviors). Ideally you want to know how students are using the skills you've taught **IN CONTEXT**. For example, how do they solve problems when determining how to read or write unfamiliar words?
- Fluency. (How smooth or choppy? Expression? Intonation?)
- Comprehension.
- Interest. Motivation. Attitudes toward reading.

Comparison of Norm-Referenced and Criterion-Referenced Tests

Point of Comparison	Norm-Referenced	Criterion-Referenced
Purpose	Determines a student's grade-level achievement.	Determines extent to which student objectives are being met.
Testing procedures	Each student takes a complete test.	Items may be randomly assigned as purposes dictate.
Achievement Standard	Comparison with other students of the same age.	Performance of the individual in regard to the objective.
Reporting of results	Grade-level achievement norms for individuals or groups.	Percentage score on the number of items correct for specific objective
Implications for teaching	Teaching for the test constrains classroom activity and invalidates the test.	Teaching for the objectives is desirable and expected if the objectives have been carefully formulated.

SUBAREA: Reading Assessment and Instruction (18% of the test)

Section 0009: Understand Multiple Approaches to Reading Instruction

- ✓ Knowledge of the significant theories, approaches, practices and programs for developing reading skills and reading comprehension
- ✓ Strategies for planning, organizing, managing, and differentiating reading instruction to support the reading development of all students
- ✓ Adjustment of reading instruction based on ongoing assessment
- ✓ Instructional strategies for promoting development of particular reading skills (e.g., phonemic awareness, phonics skills, word identification, automatic recognition of sight words, vocabulary knowledge)
- ✓ The importance of close reading and rereading of well crafted, content-and idea-rich texts in reading development; strategies for evaluating and sequencing texts for reading instruction according to text complexity
- ✓ The importance of balancing students' exposure to and reading of literary and informational texts
- ✓ The uses of large-group, small-group and individualized reading instruction
- ✓ Strategies for selecting and using meaningful reading materials at appropriate levels of difficulty
- ✓ Creation of an environment that promotes love of reading
- ✓ Strategies for promoting independent reading in the classroom and at home
- ✓ Uses of instructional technologies to promote reading development
- ✓ Awareness of strategies and resources for supporting individual students (e.g., English Language Learners, struggling readers through highly proficient readers)

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Teaching Reading to English Language Learners

Reading Instruction and English Language Learners

Reading Rockets

What Does Research Tell Us About Teaching Reading to English Language Learners?

By: Suzanne Irujo (2007)

*Please find this article at: www.readingrockets.org/article/19757

English Sounds not in Other Languages

Below is an example of a sound used in English that are not part of other languages. These sounds are difficult for new speakers of English.

Language	Sounds Not Part of the Language
Chinese	b, ch, d, dg, g, o, ash, s, th, <i>th</i> , v, z
French	ch, ee, j, ng, oo, th, <i>th</i>
Spanish	dg, j, sh, th, <i>z</i>

Stages of Reading Development

Early Literacy Development²⁵

Stages of Early Literacy Development:

Emergent – Early – Early Fluent –Fluent

The terms “Beginning Reading and Writing” or “Early Literacy Development” actually include several phases of learning through which children progress in different ways and tempos. It is an exciting and complex process that usually occurs between the ages 5 through 8. As in most other areas of development all children do not follow one clear sequential path in lock-step. Rather, individual children may take a variety of routes to reading and writing mastery. Literacy learning is circular or “recursive”; learners may move forward in some areas and seem to step back as they consolidate understanding in others. Thus, reading and writing may not develop evenly. A child may be fluent in one area and emergent in another. Ultimately however, whatever the timetable or path, the goals are the same for all:

- To become fluent and efficient readers and writers who can make sense of and convey meaning in written language;
- To become thinkers and communicators who are actively reviewing and analyzing information;
- To enjoy reading and writing; and,
- To feel successful as users of literacy for a variety of purposes.

NOTE: Keep in mind that the grade levels associated with each phase describe below are only approximate. In each grade there are likely to be children in all phases of literacy acquisition. Also, remember that within each phase there may be a range of learners who are developing in different ways.

I. Emergent Readers and Writers (typically pre-kindergarten through first grade).²⁶

- Understand that written language conveys messages
- Pretend read and write: they turn pages of books, invent the story using pictures and their memory of a story
- Begin to match spoken words with print
- May know some letter names and some letter sound associations
- May recognize some words and letters in their environment or in texts; but not again in a different context; they may still be unsure of the concept of “word” or “letter”
- Can write some letters, usually those in their own names
- In writing may reverse some letters, and may use mostly upper case letters
- May make scribbles or strings of random letters with no spaces; one letter may represent a whole word
- May “read” or attribute meaning to his or her marks; may not be able to “re-read” these marks at a later time.

Children in this phase benefit from:

- Seeing reading and writing modeled through listening to good stories and seeing others write meaningful messages
- Supported practice while reading engaging, predictable books with pictures that clearly relate to and illustrate the story line
- Encouragement to experiment with writing
- Experience with sorting words and pictures to build letter and sound recognition
- Experience with rhyming and other word play
- Activities that engage students in using oral and written

II. Early Readers (typically first through second grade).²⁷

- Know that reading needs to make sense
- Are more attentive to print and know more print conventions
- Understand that books have exact and unchanging messages carried by print as well as pictures
- Can identify most letters by name, and can use some letter/sound knowledge (i.e.: the sound of the first letter) to help figure out words.
- Know the meaning of some punctuation (capitals and periods), but may not use consistently in writing and reading
- Can recognize, by sight, a small but growing store of words in different contexts
- Use pictures, story patterns, context and memory of some words as well as some phonics to make sense of print

Early Writers:

- Use spaces between words, but not consistently
- Include more sound/letter association in spelling, especially initial or final consonants; may write some whole words or word parts (like “ing”) from memory
- Can usually re-read his or her own writing
- Have variable handwriting: may use more lower case letters, but still could be mixed with caps, may reverse some letters (writing b instead of d)

Children in this phase benefit from:

- Continued exposure to shared and guided reading of pattern stories and other predictable books, with clear print and pictures
- Modeling and explicit teaching of and practice with using three cuing systems and strategies to figure out words and make sense of print
- Games, activates to consolidate voice/print match and build sight word recognition
- Games and activates to build phonemic awareness
- Encouragement to write using invented spelling
- Language experience activities
- Hearing, discussing, retelling a variety of stories read aloud

III. Early Fluent/Fluent Readers (typically second through third grade).²⁸

- Recognize many words in and out of context
- Can apply phonics and other word analysis skills to figure out and confirm new words
- Monitor their own reading for meaning and self correct as needed
- Read with increased fluency, accuracy, and expression

Early Fluent/Fluent Writers:

- Are more comfortable with drafting, revising and editing
- Show influence of the texts they have read
- Express their ideas more elaborately
- Use spelling that is closer to conventional spelling
- Increase their use of punctuation

Children in this phase benefit from:

- Continued opportunities to read and discuss a variety of increasingly challenging and personally meaningful texts
- Continued practice reading for meaning using various strategies: integrating cueing systems, self monitoring and self correcting
- Exposure to and practice with more aspects of word analysis
- Practice building accuracy, fluency, expression
- Practice reading silently
- Guidance and practice with specific comprehension strategies
- Encouragement to continue writing with increasing support for revision and editing
- Hearing and discussing a variety of literature read aloud

SUBAREA: Integration of Knowledge and Understanding (20% of the test)

Section 0010: Prepare an organized, developed analysis on a topic related to one or more of the following: foundations of reading development; development of reading comprehension; reading assessment and instruction.

- ✓ The role of phonological and phonemic awareness in reading development
- ✓ Development of alphabetic knowledge
- ✓ Role of phonics in developing rapid, automatic word recognition
- ✓ Development of word analysis skills and strategies in addition to phonics, including structural analysis
- ✓ The relationship between vocabulary development and reading comprehension
- ✓ Use of comprehension strategies to enhance comprehension of imaginative/literary texts
- ✓ Knowledge of organizational patterns in informational/expository texts
- ✓ Techniques for assessing particular reading skills
- ✓ Strategies for planning, organizing, managing and differentiating reading instruction to support the reading development of all students

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Open Response Questions and MTEL Overview Charts

Tips for Analyzing the Running Record and Comprehension Discussion Components of the MTEL Test

Miscue Analysis/Analysis of Oral Reading:

1. Make sure you read the “background” information at the top of the page. It can be easy to miss. It will likely tell you the grade level of the student and provide you with some context for reviewing the running record.
2. As you read through the running record, note the type of miscues that the student makes. One helpful way is to make a T chart with a comparison of the word from the text and the miscue. In this way you can identify the patterns of miscues or trends. See example below:

Text	Miscue
rain	ran
pain	pan
team	tem

3. You will probably be asked to identify one strength and one weakness in the running record. When you look for a strength/weakness, it is critical that you use several examples from the text to support your conclusions.
4. The test will ask you to use your knowledge of **word identification strategies** to write your response. There are four types of these word identification strategies you will keep in mind as you assess strengths and weaknesses:
 - Use of Phonics
 - Analysis of Word Structure
 - Use of Context Clues and
 - Identification of Sight Words

Use of Phonics: *Look for use of phonics in single syllable words and in single syllables.*

In what ways does the child use/not use phonics knowledge (knowledge of letter-sound correspondence) and phonics generalizations to decode words? Look for patterns of words that the reader reads successfully or with which he struggles such as *vowel digraphs, words ending in silent e, consonant blends etc.* A strong answer depends upon your use of correct terminology to support your conclusions.

Analysis of Word Structure (also known as Structural Analysis or Word Analysis):

Look for analysis of word structure with multi-syllable words.

Consider whether or not the reader has strategies for decoding longer, multi-syllable words. Does the reader break these longer words into more manageable parts by looking for “chunks” or word parts that they know? Does the reader divide these words into their syllables? Compound words into the smaller words from which they’re composed? Accurately read words with inflections (ed, ing, plural endings)? Does the reader use word analysis to divide words into meaning-bearing parts such as prefixes, suffixes, and roots or bases?

The goal is strategy use! Does the reader attempt to read these longer words strategically?

Use of Context Clues: *Does the reader use context clues to identify an unfamiliar word?*

Here’s how you can tell that Use of Context Clues is a strength: The reader may SELF-CORRECT © errors by saying to themselves “That didn’t sound right!” or “That didn’t make sense!” Once they apparently notice the error, these readers use context clues to return to the error to self-correct ©.

A reader may also have a strength in the use of context clues if they substitute words into the passage that still make sense (use of semantics) and sound right (use of syntax).

On the other hand, a reader may have a weakness in the use of context clues if they routinely make substitutions (miscues) that don’t make sense or sound right. They may use the first letter to guess, and then plug away without regard to meaning.

* NOTE: If the child’s strength is in the use of context clues, you must then ask yourself the following question: “Why did the child need to use context clues with these words? With which types of words did s/he struggle? Which types of words did s/he initially read incorrectly?” Once you determine a pattern of miscues (usually in the area of phonics or word analysis), you will have also identified your weakness!

Identification of Sight Words: Does the reader show automaticity in reading high frequency words? High frequency words that are phonetically “regular” are words such as: *am, at, mom, and big*. Irregular sight words are words such as *because, were, what, said, and the*. (See page 73 of the study guide for more examples). These irregular words need to be memorized because they do not follow phonics generalizations. If a child misreads a number of these common words, particularly those with irregular spellings, they show a weakness in this area.

WHY IS WORD IDENTIFICATION SO IMPORTANT? In order for a child to read fluently and with comprehension, they need to be “freed” from the burden of decoding unknown words. If they struggle to identify words on the page, they cannot then simultaneously focus on the meaning of the text. Therefore, strong readers need to read with automaticity. Automaticity is required for fluent reading. Fluency is strongly related to comprehension.

Answering the Open Response Question related to Comprehension:

1. Read all information carefully!
2. The question will likely read, “Using your knowledge of reading comprehension (e.g. literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, engagement of schema, self monitoring) write a response. . .
3. Be sure that you are familiar with the elements of reading comprehension listed above (and discussed below) and be prepared to provide examples and evidence to support your answer.

Literal Comprehension: If the student can repeat back the sequence of events (plot), provide characters, setting etc. stated *directly* and *explicitly* in the text, they are using their literal comprehension skills. Look for the reader’s ability to retell in a sequential fashion, highlighting key details as explicitly stated.

Inferential Comprehension: After considering literal comprehension skills, the next step is to determine if the reader can use *clues* from the passage to infer what is happening (to “read between the lines” or to look beneath the surface). Students who can ponder/wonder/predict are inferring. They may wonder WHY something happened, or consider WHAT MIGHT happen, or HOW.

Engagement of Schema: Does the reader show evidence of activating background knowledge? Does the reader use connections (text-to-self, text-to-text, and/or text-to-world) to better understand what he/she is reading? Does the reader show understanding of the vocabulary in the passage? If so, the reader is engaging with his/her schema (background knowledge) to better understand the text.

Self-Monitoring: Does the reader show evidence of metacognition? Does s/he apply comprehension strategies (visualization, summarizing, synthesizing, making connections etc) to better understand the text? Is s/he aware of areas where comprehension breaks down and where a strategy is needed to make sense of the text?

How to Form Your Open Response

Step 1:

Identify and name the strength and then, in the next paragraph, the weakness.

This means for the Running Record you will identify and name the **Word Identification strategy**. Refer to the specific terms provided in the parenthesis of the question, but also be more specific where possible:

Joe appears to have a weakness in the Use of Phonics. Specifically he has difficulty decoding words with vowel diagraphs.

For the Comprehension Question you will identify and name the **Comprehension Strategy**.

*Joe appears to have a strength in **inferential comprehension**.*

Step 2:

Define the strength or weakness in your own words. Be very clear!

Step 3:

Provide **evidence**. Use at least 3 examples, possibly more.

Step 4:

Briefly wrap-up by explaining how a strength/weakness in the area you've identified **contributes to overall reading performance**.

Running Record Scenarios

Scenario #1

Text	Miscue
Dream	Deam
Tried	Tied
Smell	Sell
Driver	Diver
Smart	Sart
Broil	Boil

What is the obvious weakness?

Scenario #2

Text	Miscue
Dream	Deam ©_
Tried	Tied ©
Smell	Sell ©
Driver	Diver ©
Smart	Sart ©
Broil	Boil ©

Obvious strength?

Weakness?

(The © means self-correct)

Scenario #3

Text	Miscue
Situation	s-i-t-u-a-t-i-u-n
Appreciation	a-p-p-r-e-k-i-a-t-u-n
Perfecting	Pr-f-e-c-t-i-n-g
Unopposed	u-n-opp-os-ed

Weakness?

Scenario #4

Text	Miscue
Situation	Sit-u-a-tion
Appreciation	ap-pre-ci-a-tion
Perfecting	Per-fect-ing
Unopposed	Un-op-posed
Inefficient	In-ef-fi-cient

Strength or weakness?

Scenario #5: Identify the strength and weakness

Text	Miscue
because	- (omit) ©
there	this
friend	fend
could	- (omit) ©
through	-(omit) ©

Scenario 6: Identify the weakness:

Text	Miscue
Dropping	Drop
Waking	Wake
Sleeping	Sleep
Walked	Walk
Changed	Change

Scenario 7: Identify the strength only

Text	Miscue
Rainbow	Rain-bow
Cargo	Car-go
Particular	Par-ti-cu-lar
Hotdog	Hot-dog
Mastermind	Master-mind
Determine	De-ter-mine

Scenario 8: Identify the strength and weakness:

Text	Miscue
Treat	tret
Because	(correct)
Pray	Pra
Strain	Stran
Through	(correct)
Street	Stret
Been	(correct)

Answers:

Each of these responses would need to be fully developed on the MTEL test, but the answers to each question are listed below.

Scenario 1:

- Weakness is in **Use of Phonics**, specifically decoding words with **consonant blends**.
- **NO STRENGTH** in this scenario.

Scenario 2:

- Strength is in **Use of Context Clues**, as evidenced by the many **self-corrections**. The student was likely self-correcting by using context clues to ask themselves: “What would make sense?” “What would sound right?” *Keep in mind, however, that you really would only know if the strength was in Use of Context Clues by analyzing the substitutions in the context of the passage.*
- The weakness was in the **Use of Phonics**, specifically decoding words with **consonant blends**.

Scenario 3:

- Weakness is in the **Use of Word Analysis**. Student does not appear to have a strategy to break-apart multisyllabic words.
- Strength would appear as the words do in Scenario 4 (words broken apart strategically)

Scenario 4:

- Strength is in **Use of Word Analysis**.

Scenario 5:

- Strength is in **Use of Context Clues**, as evidenced by the many **self-corrections**. The student most likely self-corrected by using context clues to ask themselves: “What would make sense?” “What would sound right?” *Keep in mind, however, that you really would only know if the strength was in Use of Context Clues by analyzing the substitutions in the context of the passage.*
- Weakness is in **Sight Word Recognition** as evidenced by the omissions of these words and in the errors with reading sight words.

Scenario 6:

- **WEAKNESS:** Word Analysis, leaving off the inflections (inflectional endings)

Scenario 7

- **STRENGTH:** Word Analysis (chunking, breaking words into syllables and compound words into the two words from which they are composed)

Scenario 8

- **STRENGTH:** Identification of sight words;
- **WEAKNESS:** Use of phonics, specifically vowel digraphs (even though the reader clearly knows how to decode consonant blends); Could also be context clues (student should have shown an attempt to self-correct)

Sample Open Response Answer (Analysis of Oral Reading)

The sample response below is in response to question #11 from the Sample Test Questions found in the MTEL Test Information Booklet (available on Jen Yaeger's web site):

Jonathan appears to have a strength in the area of structural analysis. Structural analysis, also known as analysis of word structure, is the ability to break down multisyllabic words into their meaning-bearing parts. Jonathan is able to read these words strategically. For example, he read the following words correctly by breaking down these words into syllables: summer (sum-mer), mountain (moun-tain), nearly (near-ly). He was also able to read compound words (words such as shoebox and newspaper) by breaking down these words into the two words from which they're composed (i.e. shoe-box and news-paper). Clearly it is one of Jonathan's strengths that he can break these unfamiliar words down in order to read them accurately. While he is not reading with automaticity, as evidenced by the pauses before many multisyllabic words, he *is* able to apply these strategies to help him.

Jonathan's weakness appears to be in the area of sight word recognition. Sight words, also known as high frequency words, are words that children need to know with automaticity. Many of these words are also irregular and need to be memorized. For example, Jonathan read went for what, will for would and through for though. It would benefit Jonathan to develop automaticity with these sight words. With greater automaticity and accuracy, Jonathan will be able to focus on comprehension.

Reading Comprehension Open Response Practice

Ella, a third-grade student, has been silently reading a short story entitled, "Sisters" by Warren Hynes²⁹. The passage describes a conversation between the narrator and her mother as they prepare to head out to the beach.

I knocked on her door again, my pail and shovel in hand.

"Maya, do you want to walk to the beach and dig for sea glass?"

"No," she said.

I tried again. "Maya, remember how much fun it was last year?"

"Leave me alone," she said from behind the door.

I didn't understand. "But why?" I asked. "Don't you want to do it together?"

No answer.

I trudged into the kitchen, where Mom was making sandwiches for the beach.

"Mom," I said, "Maya won't go with me to the beach. I don't think she loves me anymore."

Mom saw the tears in my eyes, and she hugged me tightly. "Oh, sweetie," Mom said. "Maya loves you a lot. She's just getting to the point where listening to her music and writing in her journal means a lot to her, too."

I shook my head. "But why can't she just explain that, then?" I asked. "Why does she have to be so mean about it?"

Mom nodded. "I'll talk to her about it later," she said. "But just remember, this is a phase she's going through. It's just a mood she's in today, and she needs her alone time. Maya will always be there for you, don't worry."

I wiped the salty tears from my eyes, blew my nose, and let Mom put sunscreen on me. When the lunches were ready, the two of us walked to the beach. Maya would join us later, Mom said, when she was ready.

I just don't think I understand 12-year-olds. I never will.

Used with Permission of Warren Hynes

After Ella finishes reading the passage, the teacher prompts her to retell this part of the story.

Shown below is Ella's oral retelling of the passage (*See retelling scenarios below—there will be only one on the actual test).

Using your knowledge of reading comprehension (e.g. literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, engagement of schema, self-monitoring), write a response in which you:

- Identify and discuss one of Ella's strengths related to reading comprehension; and
- Identify and discuss one of Ella's weaknesses related to reading comprehension.

Retelling Scenario #1:

The story is about a girl who wants to go to the beach with Maya--I think that's her sister--to look for sea glass. Maya doesn't want to go but she won't explain why. Then the girl talks to her mom about it. It says that the girl doesn't feel loved. The mom says that Maya does still love her and that it's just a phase, but I don't know what that means. In the end the girls says she doesn't understand 12 year-olds.

Retelling Scenario #2:

The story is about a girl who wants to go swimming at the beach with her sister, Maya. You can tell that the girl really wants her sister to want to hang out and play with her, just like they used to, but now Maya is older and doesn't want to. I think maybe the older sister is not interested in playing anymore like when she was a kid. This is definitely hurting the girl's feelings and she has no one to talk to about it. She really doesn't understand why things are different.

Retelling Scenario #3:

The story is about a girl who wants to go swimming at the beach with her sister, Maya. This story actually reminded me a lot of my relationship with my brother, Travis. It's like the older sister sees her as a pest and that's just how Travis makes me feel. He doesn't really want to do anything like we used to. This story made me feel badly for this girl. I hope it is just a phase that Maya is going through. I hope that's the same for my brother.

Retelling Scenario #4:

The story is about a girl who is trying to get her sister to go to the beach with her. At first I thought the girl's name was Maya, but then I went back and reread it and realized that they don't tell you the girl's name. They just tell you that the sister is Maya. Anyway, there was a lot of dialogue so you really have to pay attention to who is talking. So the girl starts off talking to the mom about her sister and complaining because Maya won't go to the beach. Then she goes and tries to talk to her sister, but her sister won't change her mind. Finally, the girl just decides to go to the beach by herself. I think this story is really about one sister who is getting older and growing up and the other sister who wants her to stay young and play like they used to. It's really hard when people change.

Retelling Scenario #5:

The story is about a girl who wants to go to the beach with her sister. At first the sister tries to get the older sister to go, but the older sister just says, "No." Then the younger sister talks to her mom who is making her lunch so that they can go to the beach. You can tell the mom is trying to comfort her, and she explains that the older sister is writing in her journal, but it just doesn't explain why the sister can't go to the beach and work on her journal later.

Possible Responses: What matters here is not that you agree with every possible strength or weakness (there are other possible interpretations), but that you make your own case, supported by evidence and demonstrating a clear understanding of reading comprehension.

Retelling Scenario 1:

Strength: Literal Comprehension

Weakness: Inferential or Engagement of Schema

Retelling Scenario 2:

Strength: Inferential Comprehension

Weakness: Literal Comprehension

Retelling Scenario 3:

Strength: Engagement of Schema or Inferential Comprehension

Weakness: Literal Comprehension

Retelling Scenario 4:

Strength: Self-Monitoring or Inferential Comprehension

Weakness: Literal Comprehension

Retelling Scenario 5:

Strength: Literal Comprehension

Weakness: Inferential Comprehension or Engagement of Schema

Glossary^{30, 31, 32, 33}

Make sure you are familiar with these terms!

Accuracy (part of fluency): Reading words in text with no errors.

Academically Engaged: Students are academically engaged when they are participating in activities/instruction in a meaningful way and understanding the tasks in which they are involved.

Affix: A general term that refers to prefixes and suffixes.

After-Reading Comprehension Strategies: Strategies that require the reader to actively transform key information in text that has been read (e.g., summarizing, retelling).

Aligned Materials: Student materials (texts, activities, manipulatives, homework, etc.) that reinforce classroom instruction of specific skills in reading.

Alphabetic Principle: The concept that letters and letter combinations represent individual phonemes in written words.

Ample Opportunities for Student Practice: Students are asked to apply what they have been taught in order to accomplish specific reading tasks. Practice should follow in a logical relationship with what has just been taught. Once skills are internalized, students are provided with more opportunities to independently implement previously learned information.

Analogy: Comparing two sets of words to show some common similarity between the sets. When done as a vocabulary exercise this requires producing one of the words (e.g., cat is to kitten as dog is to _____?).

Antonym: A word opposite in meaning to another word.

Automaticity: Reading without conscious effort or attention to decoding.

Background Knowledge: The knowledge and understandings of the world that students have acquired through their everyday experiences – riding in cars or buses, playing and talking with other children and adults, that help them to make sense of the texts they read.

Base Word: A unit of meaning that can stand alone as a whole word (e.g., friend, pig). Also called a free morpheme.

Before-Reading Comprehension Strategies: Strategies employed to emphasize the importance of preparing students to read text (e.g., activate prior knowledge, set a purpose for reading).

Blending: The task of combining sounds rapidly, to accurately represent the word.

Bloom's Taxonomy: A system for categorizing levels of abstraction of questions that commonly occur in educational settings. Includes the following competencies: Knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Choral Reading/Chanting: Two or more individuals reading aloud from the same text-this can help students to develop oral reading fluency.

Chunked Text: Continuous text that has been separated into meaningful phrases often with the use of single and double slash marks (/ and //). The intent of using chunked text or chunking text is to give children an opportunity to practice reading phrases fluently.

Chunking: A decoding strategy for breaking words into manageable parts (e.g., yes/ter/day). Chunking also refers to the process of dividing a sentence into smaller phrases where pauses

might occur naturally (e.g., When the sun appeared after the storm, / the newly fallen snow shimmered like diamonds).

Comprehension: Understanding what one is reading, the ultimate goal of all reading activity.

Comprehension Questions: Questions that address the meaning of text, ranging from literal to inferential to analytical.

Concepts About Print/Conventions of Print: The understanding an individual has about the rules or accepted practices that govern the use of print and the use of written language. For example concepts about print include: reading left to right, top to bottom, words are made of letters, use of spaces between words, use of upper case letters, spelling patterns, punctuation, etc.

Concept Definition Mapping: Provides a visual framework for organizing conceptual information in the process of defining a word or concept. The framework contains the category, properties, and example of the word or concept.

Connected Text: Words that are linked (as opposed to words in a list) as in sentences, phrases, and paragraphs.

Consonant Blend: Two or more consecutive consonants which retain their individual sounds (e.g., *bl* in *block*; *str* in *string*).

Consonant Digraph: Two consecutive consonants that represent one phoneme, or sound (e.g., *ch*, *sh*).

Context/Context Cues: Information from the surrounding text that helps identify or gives meaning to a specific word or phrase i.e. “yesterday I read the book”. The words surrounding “read” help us know how to pronounce it.

Context Clue: Using words or sentences around an unfamiliar word to help clarify its meaning.

Conventional Spelling: Spelling that is in the standard or correct form for written documents.

Cueing System: Any of the various sources of information that may aid identification of a word such as: graphophonics, semantic and syntactic information.

Decodable Text: Text in which a high proportion of words (80%-90%) comprise sound-symbol relationships that have already been taught. It is used for the purpose of providing practice with specific decoding skills and is a bridge between learning phonics and the application of phonics in independent reading.

Decodable Words: Words containing phonic elements that were previously taught.

Decoding: The ability to translate a word from print to speech, usually by employing knowledge of sound-symbol correspondences; also the act of deciphering a new word by sounding it out.

Derivational Affix: A prefix or suffix added to a root or stem to form another word (e.g., -ness in likeness, un- in unhappy).

Diagnostic: Diagnostic tests can be used to measure a variety of reading, language, or cognitive skills. Although they can be given as soon as a screening test indicates a child is behind in reading growth, they will usually be given only if a child fails to make adequate progress after being given extra help in learning to read. They are designed to provide a more precise and

detailed picture of the full range of a child's knowledge and skill so that instruction can be more precisely planned.

Differentiated Instruction: Matching instruction to meet the different needs of learners in a given classroom.

Digraphs: A group of two consecutive letters whose phonetic value is a single sound (e.g., *ea* in *bread*; *ch* in *chart*; *ng* in *sing*).

Diphthong: A vowel produced by the tongue shifting position during articulation; a vowel that feels as if it has two parts, especially the vowels spelled *ow*, *oy*, *ou*, and *oi*.

Direct Instruction: The teacher defines and teaches a concept, guides students through its application, and arranges for extended guided practice until mastery is achieved.

Discourse: How we combine sentences to communicate ideas.

During-Reading Comprehension Strategies: Strategies that help students engage the meanings of a text (e.g., asking questions at critical junctures; modeling the thought process used to make inferences; constructing mental imagery).

Echo Reading: Reading of a text where an adult or experienced reader reads a line of text, and the student repeats the line. A good technique for Emergent and Early Readers to build fluency and expression.

Elkonin Boxes: A framework used during phonemic awareness instruction. Elkonin Boxes are sometimes referred to as Sound Boxes. When working with words, the teacher can draw one box per sound for a target word. Students push a marker into one box as the segment each sound in the word.

Emergent Reader: a reader who is developing an association of print with meaning – the early stages of learning to read.

Empirical Research: Refers to scientifically based research that applies rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge. This includes research that: employs systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment; has been accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of independent experts through a comparably rigorous, objective and scientific review; involves rigorous data analyses that are adequate to test the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions drawn; relies on measures or observational methods that provide valid data across evaluators and observers and across multiple measurements and observations; and can be generalized.

Etymology: The origin and history of a word.

Explicit Teaching:

1. Teacher **Models** and **Explains**
2. Teacher provides **Guided Practice**
 - Students practice what the teacher modeled and the teacher provides prompts and feedback
3. Teacher provides **Supported Application**
 - Students apply the skill as the teacher scaffolds instruction
4. **Independent Practice**

Expository Text: Text that reports factual information (also referred to as informational text) and the relationships among ideas. Expository text tends to be more difficult for students than narrative text because of the density of long, difficult, and unknown words or word parts.

Five Components of Reading: Phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

Flexible Grouping: Grouping students according to shared instructional needs and abilities and regrouping as their instructional needs change. Group size and allocated instructional time may vary among groups.

Floss Rule: Words of one syllable, ending in f, l, or s – after one vowel, usually ending in ff, ll, or ss (sounds /f/, /l/, /s/).

Fluency Probe: An assessment for measuring fluency, usually a timed oral reading passage at the student's instructional reading level.

Fluency: Ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with proper expression. Fluency provides a bridge between word recognition and comprehension.

Frustration Model: An adaptation of the concept map. The framework of the Frustration Model includes: the concept word, the definition, characteristics of the concept word, examples of the concept word, and non-examples of the concept word. It is important to include both examples and non-examples, so students are able to identify what the concept word is and what the concept word is not.

Frustrational Reading Level: the Level at which a reader reads at less than a 90% accuracy (i.e., one or more errors per 10 words read). Frustration level text is difficult text for the reader.

Grammar Conventions: the rules, or accepted practices, that govern the use of grammar in written or spoken language.

Grapheme: A letter or letter combination that spells a phoneme; can be one, two, three, or four letters in English (e.g., e, ei, igh, eigh).

Graphic Organizers: A visual framework or structure for capturing the main points of what is being read, which may include concepts, ideas, events, vocabulary, or generalizations. Graphic organizers allow ideas in text and thinking processes to become external by showing the interrelatedness of ideas, thus facilitating understanding for the reader. The structure of a graphic organizer is determined by the structure of the kind of text being read.

Graphophonics (Phonics): referring to the relationship between the letters and the letter sounds of a language

Graphophonemic Knowledge: Knowledge of the relationships between letters and phonemes.

Guided Practice: Students practice what the teacher modeled and the teacher provides prompts and feedback.

Guided or Supported Reading: a method by which an experienced reader provides structure and purpose, and models strategies in order to move beginning readers towards independence.

High Frequency Words: a small group of words (300-500) that account for a large percentage of the words in print and can be regular or irregular words. Often, they are referred to as “sight words” since automatic recognition of these words is required for fluent reading.

Homograph: Words that are spelled the same but have different origins and meanings. They may or may not be pronounced the same (e.g. *can* as in a metal container/*can* as in able to).

Immediate Intensive Intervention: Instruction that may include more time, more opportunities for student practice, more teacher feedback, smaller group size, and different materials. It is implemented as soon as assessment indicates that students are not making adequate progress in reading.

Implicit Instruction: The opposite of explicit instruction. Students discover skills and concepts instead of being explicitly taught. For example, the teacher writes a list of words on the board that begin with the letter “m” (mud, milk, meal, and mattress) and asks the students how the words are similar. The teacher elicits from the students that the letter m stands for the sound you hear at the beginning of the words.

Independent Reading Level: The level at which a reader can read text with 95% accuracy (i.e., no more than one error per 20 words read). Independent reading level is relatively easy text for the reader.

Independent-Instructional Reading Level Range: The reading range that spans instructional and independent reading levels or level of text that a student can read with 90% to 95% or above accuracy.

Inference: Drawing meaning from a combination of clues in the text without explicit reference to the text. “The sky was dark and cloudy so I took my umbrella.” We can infer that it might rain even though the text does not say that.

Inflectional Suffix: In English, a suffix that expresses plurality or possession when added to a noun, tense when added to a verb, and comparison when added to an adjective and some adverbs. A major difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes is that inflections added to verbs, nouns, or adjectives do not change the grammatical role or part of speech of the base words (-s, -es, -ing, -ed).

Informal Assessment: Does not follow prescribed rules for administration and scoring and has not undergone technical scrutiny for reliability and validity. Teacher-made tests, end-of-unit tests and running records are all examples of informal assessment.

Informational Test: Non-fiction books, also referred to as expository text, that contain facts and information.

Intervention: Highly skilled teachers in a small pupil-teacher ratio classroom provide explicit and systematic instruction that is tailored to meet the identified needs of struggling readers. Teachers will utilize assessment to guide accelerated instruction, use teacher modeling and scaffolding with gradual release of responsibility to students, and provide extensive practice opportunities.

Intervention Program: Programs that provide instruction intended for flexible use as part of differentiated instruction and/or more intensive intervention to meet student learning needs in one or more of the specific areas of reading (phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension). These programs are used to provide targeted, intensive intervention for small groups of struggling readers.

Invented Spelling: An attempt by beginning writers to spell a word when the standard spelling is unknown, using whatever knowledge of sounds or visual patterns the writer has.

Inversions: Reversal or “flipping” of letters either horizontally or vertically, i.e.: p-d, or b-d, m-w, u-n. Not unusual for Emergent writers or readers.

KWL Chart (*Know, Want to know, Learned*): A pre-reading or during reading activity to support understanding in which adult and child develop a chart organized in three columns: 1) things the child already *Knows* about a specific topic, 2) what the child *Wants* to know about the same topic, and 3) what the child *Learns* about the topic after reading about it.

Language Experience Approach: a method of teaching reading by using the reader’s own dictated language.

Language Structure: The organization of words (both spoken and written) into meaningful segments (phrases or sentences) using conventions of grammar and syntax.

Letter Combinations: Also referred to as digraphs, a group of consecutive letters that represents a particular sound(s) in the majority of words in which it appears (e.g., *ai* in *maid*; *ch* in *chair*; *ar* in *car*; *kn* in *know*; *ng* in *ring*).

Letter Recognition: The identification of individual letters by name and/or sound in a variety of contexts.

Letter-Sound Correspondence: Making a connection between individual letters and the sounds they represent (graphophonics).

Linguistic Approach: A reading based on highly regular spelling patterns. Such as: Nat the cat sat on the mat.

Literal Comprehension: Understanding of the basic facts that the student has read.

Main Idea: The central thought or message of a reading passage.

Miscue: Any substitution of a word in a text that a reader makes.

Miscue Analysis: An examination of reading errors or substitutions (miscues) as the basis for determining the strengths and weaknesses of students’ reading skills.

Modeled Reading: An experienced reader’s oral reading of a text to aid students in learning strategies, understanding intonation and expression, and the use of punctuation, among other aspects of reading.

Metacognition: An awareness of one’s own thinking processes and how they work. The process of consciously thinking about one’s learning or reading while actually being engaged in learning or reading. Metacognitive strategies can be taught to students; good readers use metacognitive strategies to think about and have control over their reading.

Modeling: Teacher overtly demonstrates a strategy, skill, or concept that students will be learning.

Morpheme: The smallest meaningful unit of language.

Morphemic Analysis: An analysis of words formed by adding prefixes, suffixes or other meaningful word units to a base word.

Morphology: The system of meaningful parts from which words may be created.

Multisyllabic Words: Words with more than one syllable. A systematic introduction of prefixes, suffixes, and multisyllabic words should occur throughout a reading program. The average number of syllables in the words students read should increase steadily throughout the grades.

Narrative Text: Text that tells a story about fictional or real events.

Objectives: Measurable statements detailing the desired accomplishments of a program.

Oddities: Vowels that are pronounced differently from the expected pronunciation (e.g., the “o” in old is pronounced /ō/ instead of the expected /o/).

Onset and Rime: In a syllable, the onset is the initial consonant or consonants, and the rime is the vowel and any consonants that follow it (e.g., the word *sat*, the onset is *s* and the rime is *at*. In the word *flip*, the onset is *fl* and the rime is *ip*).

Orthographic Units: The representation of the sounds of a language by written or printed symbols.

Orthography: A writing system for representing language.

Pacing: the pace of a lesson should move briskly, but not so fast as to rush students beyond their ability to answer correctly. The purposes for a fast pace are to help students pay close attention to the material being presented, and provided students more practice time which increases the opportunity for greater student achievement, keeps students actively engaged, and reduces behavior management problems by keeping students on-task.

Partner/Peer Reading: Reading aloud taking turns with a partner who provides word identification help and feedback.

Pattern Story or Cumulative Story: A story that has many elements or language patterns repeated until the climax; a predictable text.

Phoneme: The smallest unit of sound within our language system. A phoneme combines with other phonemes to make words.

Phoneme Isolation: Recognizing individual sounds in a word (e.g., /p/ is the first sound in pan).

Phoneme Manipulation: Adding, deleting, and substituting sounds in words (e.g., add /b/ to out to make boat; delete /p/ in pan to make an; substitute /o/ for /a/ in a pat to make pot).

Phonemic Awareness: The ability to notice, think about, or manipulate the individual phonemes (sounds) in words. It is the ability to understand that sounds in spoken language work together to make words. This term is used to refer to the highest level of phonological awareness: awareness of individual phonemes in words.

Phonics: The study of the relationships between letters and the sounds they represent; also used to describe reading instruction that teaches sound-symbol correspondences.

Phonics Approach: Teaching reading and spelling in a way that stresses the connection between letters and the sounds they represent, teaches the dissection of words into parts and then blending the sounds together again. Phonics can be taught directly or can be incorporated in ongoing reading and writing.

Phonogram: A succession of letters that represent the same phonological unit in different words, such as *igh* in *flight*, *might*, *tight*, *sigh*, and *high*.

Phonological Awareness: One’s sensitivity to, or explicit awareness of, the phonological structure of words in one’s language. This is an “umbrella” term that is used to refer to a student’s sensitivity to any aspect of phonological structure in language. It encompasses awareness of individual words in sentences syllables, and onset-rime segments, as well as awareness of individual phonemes.

Phonology: The speech-sound system.

Picture Cues: Use of images that accompany and reflect the content of a text to help readers figure out words and understand the meaning of text.

Picture Walk: A pre-reading strategy: an examination of the text looking at pictures to gain an understanding of the story and to illicit story related language in advance.

Pragmatics: A branch of linguistics concerned with the use of language in social contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language.

You have invited your friend over for dinner. Your child sees your friend reach for some cookies and says, “Better not take those, or you’ll get even bigger.” You’re embarrassed that your child could speak so rudely. However, you should consider that your child may not know how to use language appropriately in social situations and did not mean harm by the comment.

An individual may say words clearly and use long, complex sentences with correct grammar, but still have a communication problem – if he or she has not mastered the rules for social language known as pragmatics.

Prefix: A morpheme that precedes a root and that contributes to or modifies the meaning of a word as re-in reprint.

Pre-reading Strategies: Activities that take place just before reading, like reviewing a book cover or looking at the pictures, predicting, and formulating questions; these strategies provide students with valuable information about the text and prepare them for reading.

Print Conventions/Conventions of Print: The understanding an individual has about the rules or accepted practices that govern the use of print in the use of written language: for example concepts about print include: reading left to right, top to bottom, words are made of letters, use of spaces between words, use of upper case letters, spelling patterns, punctuation, etc.

Prior Knowledge: Refers to schema, the knowledge and experience that readers bring to the text.

Progress Monitoring: Tests that keep the teacher informed about the child’s progress in learning to read during the school year. They are a quick sample of critical reading skills that will tell the teacher if the child is making adequate progress toward grade level reading ability at the end of the year.

Prosody: Reading with expression, proper intonation, and phrasing. This helps readers to sound as if they are speaking the part they are reading. It is also this element of fluency that sets it apart from automaticity.

Rate: the speed at which a person reads.

Readability Level: refers to independent, instructional, and frustrational levels of text reading.

Reading Centers: Special places organized in the classroom for students to work in small groups or pairs, either cooperatively or individually. Students work in centers while the teacher is conducting small group reading instruction. Each center contains meaningful, purposeful activities that are an extension and reinforcement of what has already been taught by the teacher in reading groups or in a large group. Reading centers offer students the opportunity to stay academically engaged as they apply the skills they have been learning. They are an excellent way for teachers to determine whether or not students know what they have been

taught. It is important to develop a system and organize your classroom in such a way that you can provide feedback to students in a timely manner. Waiting until the end of the week to look at what students have worked on all week is not a productive use of instructional time, as students may have been practicing errors all week.

Examples of Reading Centers: Students practice phonics skills at the phonics center, sort word cards at the vocabulary center, and at the reading center, they read books, listen to taped books, record the reading of a book, and read in pairs. The reading center would contain a variety of books at various reading levels to meet the needs of all students. Other centers may consist of writing and spelling activities, pocket charts, white boards, magnetic letters to practice word building, sentence strips and word cards to create stories, sequencing activities with pictures, story boards, or sentence strips to retell a story that has been read. Some centers may be permanent; others will change according to the skills, books, and activities being currently addressed. It is recommended that teachers not bring in material from other content areas unless the activity from science or math, for example, specifically focuses on a skill that is being addressed in reading instruction. Reading centers require careful planning.

Reading Fluency Prorating Formula: when students are asked to read connected text for more than one minute or less than one minute, their performance must be prorated to give a fluency rate per minute. The prorating formula for this is the following:

$$\text{words read correctly} \times 60 / \text{by the number of seconds} = \text{Reading Fluency Score}$$

Repeated Reading: Rereading of text until the reader is able to read at a predetermined rate to produce fluency.

Retelling: Recalling the content of what was read or heard.

Reversals: The result of reversing the order of letters in a word (tap/pat), or confusing similar letters such as d-b, or writing letters backwards. Not uncommon with Emergent readers and writers.

Rhyming: Words that have the same ending sound.

Root: A bound morpheme, usually of Latin origin, that cannot stand alone but is used to form a family of words with related meanings.

Scaffolded Instruction: The process of modeling and encouraging strategic, successful reading by providing structure, organization, questioning, clarification, summarizing, or trying information to what is known or what will be found out. Students are given all the support they need to arrive at the correct answer. For example, after an error occurs, the support or assistance a teacher offers may include cues, giving reminders or encouragement, breaking the problem down into steps, providing an example, or anything else so that students can arrive at the correct answer instead of the teacher giving the answer.

Schema: Refers to prior knowledge, the knowledge and experience that readers bring to the text.

Schwa: The vowel sound sometimes heard in an unstressed syllable and is most often sounded as 'uh' or as the short 'u' sound as in 'cup.'

Scientifically Based Reading Research (SBRR): Refers to empirical research that applies rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge. This includes research that: employs systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment; has been accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of

independent experts through a comparably rigorous, objective and scientific review; involves rigorous data analyses that are adequate to test the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions drawn; relies on measurements or observational methods that provide valid data across evaluators and observers and across multiple measurements and observations; and can be generalized.

Scope and Sequence: A “roadmap” or “blueprint” for teachers that provides an overall picture of an instructional program.

Screening: Tests that provide the teacher a beginning assessment of the student’s preparation for grade level reading instruction. They are a “first alert” that a child will need extra help to make adequate progress in reading during the year.

Segmenting: Separating the individual phonemes, or sounds, of a word into discrete units.

Self Monitoring: Paying attention to one’s own reading process while reading, and taking steps to reread or make corrections as needed to make sense of the text.

Semantics: The study of the meaning in language; the analysis of the meanings of words, phrases, sentences.

Semantic Feature Analysis: Uses a grid to help explore how a set of things are related to one another. By analyzing the grid one can see connections, make predications, and master important concepts.

Semantic Maps: Portray the schematic relations that compose a concept; a strategy for graphically representing concepts.

Shared Reading: When children are involved in reading a text with an adult in such a way that the adult models strategies and concepts such as predicting and noticing letter patterns. Helpful with very early readers in developing concepts about print such as “word” and directionality.

Sight Words: Words that are recognized immediately. Sometimes sight words are thought to be irregular, or high frequency (e.g., the Dolch and Fry lists). However, any word that is recognized automatically is a sight word. These words may be phonetically regular or irregular.

Sound(ing) Out: Using phonics to figure out words.

Sound to Symbol: Phonics instruction that matches phoneme to grapheme.

Spelling Patterns: Refers to digraphs, vowel pairs, word families, and vowel variant spellings.

Story Elements: Characters, problem, solutions, themes, settings, and plot.

Story Grammar: The general structure of stories that includes story elements.

Story Maps: A strategy used to unlock the plot and important elements of a story. These elements can be represented visually through various graphic organizations showing the beginning, middle, and end of a story. Answering the questions of who, where, when, what, and how or why, and listing the main events is also part of story mapping. These elements are also referred to as story grammar.

Story/Text Structure: A set of conventions that govern different kinds of texts such as characters, plot, settings, or in an informational text, comparison and contrast.

Strategic Learners: Active learners. While reading they make predictions, organize information, and interact with the text. They think about what they are reading in terms of what they already know. They monitor their comprehension by employing strategies that facilitate their understanding.

Strategy: A means to enhance understanding of text.

Structural Analysis: A procedure for teaching students to read words formed with prefixes, suffixes, or other meaningful word parts.

Student Friendly Explanation: An explanation of the word's meaning rather than a definition.

1. Characterizes the word and how it is typically used.
2. Explains the meaning in everyday language.

Suffix: An affix attached to the end of a base, root, or stem that changes the meaning or grammatical function of the word, as -en in oxen.

Summarizing: Reducing large selections of text to their bare essentials: the gist, the key ideas, the main points that are worth noting and remembering.

Syllable: A segment of a word that contains one vowel sound. The vowel may or may not be preceded and/or followed by a consonant.

Syllable Types: There are six syllable types:

1. Closed: cat, cobweb
2. Open: he, silo
3. Vowel-consonant-e (VCE): like, milestone
4. Consonant-l-e: candle, jungle (second syllable)
5. R-controlled: star, corner
6. Vowel pairs: count, rainbow

Symbol to Sound: Matching grapheme to phoneme.

Synonym: Words that have similar meanings.

Syntax: The pattern or structure of word order in sentences, clauses and phrases; the grammatical rules that govern language. Sentences have to follow certain structural rules in order to make sense. You can't just throw any words together to make a sentence!

Order words make sense need to...this doesn't make sense!

Words need order to make sense...Ahh! Much better!

So what is the structure of a sentence? How do we know what is supposed to go where? The answer lies in syntax.

Systematic Instruction: A carefully planned sequence for instruction, similar to a builder's blueprint for a house. A blueprint is carefully thought out and designed before building materials are gathered and construction begins. The plan for instruction that is systematic is carefully thought out, strategic, and designed before activities and lessons are planned. Instruction is clearly linked within, as well as across the five components (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension). For systematic instruction, lessons build on previously taught information, from simple to complex.

Systematic Phonics Instruction: Systematic phonics programs teach children an extensive, pre-specified set of letter-sound correspondences or phonograms.

Target Words: Words that are specifically addressed, analyzed, and/or studied in curriculum lessons, exercises, and independent activities.

The Writing Process: A view of teaching writing as an ongoing process involving several steps such as: planning, drafting, revising, editing, publishing.

Timed Reading: Student reads appropriate text with a predetermined number of words to be read within a specific amount of time.

Trade Book: A book intended for general reading that is not a textbook.

Utility: Degree of usefulness.

Variant Correspondences: various corresponding spelling patterns for a specific sound or a variety of spelling patterns for one sound (e.g., long a spelled a, a_e, ai_, _ay).

Visual Information: Information that is accessed through visual means such as the size and shape of a word, format, pictures, diagrams, etc.

Vocabulary: Refers to all of the words of our language. One must know words to communicate effectively. Vocabulary is important to reading comprehension because readers cannot understand what they are reading without knowing what most of the words mean. Vocabulary development refers to stored information about the meanings and pronunciation of words necessary for communication. Four types of vocabulary include listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Vowel Digraph or Vowel Pair: Two vowels together that represent one phoneme, or sound (e.g., ae, ai, oa).

Word Analysis/Word Attack Strategies: The process of using strategies to figure out or decode unfamiliar words.

ENDNOTES

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