ALL CHILDREN READ

TEACHING FOR LITERACY IN TODAY'S DIVERSE CLASSROOMS

FIFTH EDITION

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Fifth Edition

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**Pearson**

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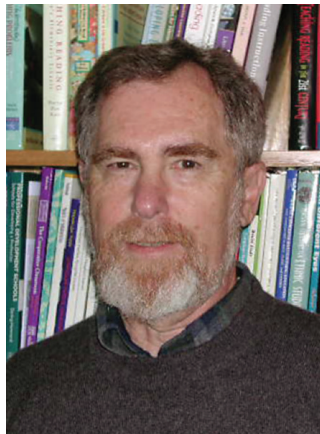
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Preface

New to This Edition

Since you are most likely reading these words on a screen, you are experiencing one feature that distinguishes this fifth edition of *All Children Read: Teaching for Literacy in Today's Diverse Classrooms*. And of course there are updates to the contents that respond to significant developments in the literacy field and build upon the strengths our readers have found in previous editions of our book.

The fifth edition includes:

- **Learning outcomes open each chapter and are linked to the sections where they are discussed.** The end-of-chapter reviews link you back to where the information was presented within the chapter, too.

- **Illustrative video clips** bring content to life, allowing you to view real classrooms taught by master teachers and receive in-depth information from subject matter experts. Video clips are accompanied by Video Exploration short-answer questions with answer feedback that encourage you to think critically about chapter concepts.

- **New, interactive glossary** helps you keep track of important terms that are used throughout the book.

- **Check Your Understanding multiple-choice quizzes** are located at the end of every major section of all chapters and provide immediate feedback about correct and incorrect answers, helping you to self-assess your learning before moving on to new concepts.

- **Separate chapters on teaching reading fluency and vocabulary** have been prepared for greater coverage of both topics.

- **Updated explanations of concepts about language** prepare teachers to teach foundational concepts for reading as called for in the Common Core State Standards, and equip teachers-in-training with what they are expected to know on professional qualifying examinations.

Carried over from the previous edition are:

- *An emphasis on the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) throughout the book*, highlighted by icons in the margins alongside content that aligns with these Standards, as well as boxed features.

- *Updated content is provided throughout the book on teaching English language learners, along with an updated chapter on teaching these students in Chapter 14*. There is an opening discussion in Chapter 2 on sociocultural and legal factors in teaching reading to English language learners, background content in Chapter 3 on the English language, and then subsequent chapters address the topic as appropriate, including those on assessing and teaching reading and writing.

- *Expanded emphasis on teaching close reading for comprehension in the primary grades*, in response to the Common Core State Standards' insistence that children from the earliest grades be guided to read repeatedly to get the message, the details, and the devices used in both fiction and nonfiction.

- *An appendix correlating chapters with Common Core State Standards* that pinpoints which chapters correspond to which Standards, and identifies what students should know and be able to do.

- *An expanded focus on Response to Intervention (RTI)* further explores this important initiative in practical ways in Chapter 2.

- *Elaborate coverage of new literacies throughout the book* that provides information about the impact of technology on the teaching of reading and writing. This content is highlighted by a margin note icon.

- *A Developmental Milestones feature* that appears in Chapters 3 and 4. The Developmental Milestones feature provides at-a-glance summaries of typical behaviors in children's development of emergent literacy and phonological awareness.

- Students from California who use *All Children Read* will find that key terms from the **Reading Instruction Competence Assessment (RICA)** are fully developed in the text and also appear in the index. In addition, major concepts related to the assessment of students are also developed to support our readers in other aspects of the RICA.

- *The Teach It! lesson plan booklet* appears as an Appendix containing a wide variety of ready-to-use, classroom-tested activities for teaching critical concepts in literacy education. Teach It! feature boxes appear throughout the text, linking content to correlated activities in Appendix B.

- *Chapter 1: Approaches to Teaching Reading* chronicles recent major changes in the field, including a trend toward integrating instruction across the curriculum, that are affecting classroom practice. Response to Intervention (RTI), the federal initiative to support readers with a range of needs, is introduced in Chapter 1.

- *Chapter 2: The Social and Cultural Contexts for Teaching All Children to Read* includes regulations and implementation guidelines about the federal Response to Intervention (RTI) initiative and insights about teaching reading and writing to children whose home language is African American Vernacular English. A classroom vignette about Getting Parents and the Community Involved is included.

- *Chapter 3: What Reading Teachers Need to Know about Language* includes careful treatments of the sounds of the English language, vocabulary, morphology or word structure, syntax (grammar), and text structure.

- *Chapter 4: Emergent Literacy* includes practices based on current research on assessing and teaching for emergent literacy, including teaching concepts about print and the language units that print represents, including phonemes.

- *Chapter 5: Phonics and Word Knowledge* treats phonics more generally as knowledge of words—knowledge that begins with teaching letter-to-sound correspondences and advances to include morphemes and derivational relationships among words.

- *Chapter 6: Helping Readers Build Fluency* is a new chapter devoted entirely to teaching students to read fluently with approaches that range from direct instruction to creative performances—voice choirs and readers' theater.

- *Chapter 7: The Importance of Vocabulary Development* is now a chapter all its own, with updated strategies for teaching many dimensions of word meanings. It connects general vocabulary and content specific vocabulary learning to the CCSS.

- *Chapter 8: Reading Comprehension, Part I: Making Sense of Literature* includes more teaching strategies to boost the comprehension of younger students, and an update of major concepts. It also includes strategies for close reading.

- *Chapter 9: Reading Comprehension, Part II: Understanding and Learning with Informational Texts* provides reliable suggestions for teaching students to comprehend and learn from informational text. It is rich with suggested Web- and computer-based resources. One section introduces teachers to the importance of helping students learn to use the basic structure of Web sites and identifying the sources of the sites.

- *Chapter 10: Critical Thinking and Critical Literacy* provides explanations of critical thinking and critical literacy and discusses their importance at all levels. The chapter explores ways of teaching students to conduct critical discussion of fictional and informational texts, and also addresses the special and urgent challenges of applying critical thinking to electronic texts.

- *Chapter 11: Teaching Children to Spell and Write* provides updates of research-supported practices for assessing and teaching spelling, including the work of Donald Bear, Robert Schlagal, Richard Gentry, and Kathy Ganske. The chapter also includes writing supports for English language learners.

- *Chapter 12: Assessing Literacy* explains the many kinds of assessments of reading and their purposes. It includes a section on administering the Informal Reading Inventory and subsections on scoring and interpreting the outcomes.

- *Chapter 13: Integrating Language and Literacy Instruction Across the Grades* provides updated information about research-based approaches to teaching students at grade levels K–8. Chapter 13 also includes information about the important relationship between oral language development and written language. References to the Common Core State Standards are made throughout the chapter.

- *Chapter 14: Models and Strategies for Teaching ESL and for Teaching Reading in the Mother Tongue* is our anchor chapter on teaching students with limited English proficiency. The chapter introduces research and information about legal policies for English language learners, as well as a section on building vocabulary with read-alouds.

Our Rationale for This Book

Teaching all children to read is a central responsibility of our elementary and middle schools. This book shares the knowledge and skills needed to do that work well. What kind of skills? Many of them could be called "traditional." There are things good

teachers of reading have done successfully for a long time: student-centered teaching, immersing children in good literature—both fiction and nonfiction, and combining reading and writing, to name a few. We will pass on the best of those practices here. Traditional teaching won't take us far enough, though, because the circumstances of teaching have changed and are still changing.

We are facing enormous pressure to educate better. Changes in society beyond the classroom are insisting that every student learn to read and think critically—every student. There are fewer and fewer places in our society and in the workplace for the undereducated. By law, children with special needs are guaranteed the right to be educated in the least restrictive environment, and all teachers are invited to team together to plan and carry out instruction that helps every child learn. All of us are educating all or nearly all of the children.

Four hundred sixty. That is the number of different languages children in our classrooms speak at home. Fourteen million is the number of English language learners in our schools. North Carolina, South Carolina, and Indiana are some of the states that have recently seen 200% to 300% increases in English language learners. But 55% is the share of Spanish-speaking children who entered Los Angeles County schools last year. Most teachers at one time or another will teach a child who doesn't have strong English ability, and a large number will teach many English language learners every year.

A few years ago, teachers could complain of working in a lonely profession: When they closed the door in the morning they were alone all day with the kids. The Response to Intervention Initiative (RTI) is asking teachers who teach reading to work in teams with fellow teachers and other educational professionals in the school, sharing data and ideas and finding solutions to learning problems together.

When teachers plan together, they often speak of ways to combine or integrate the teaching of many subjects. As long as students are reading for comprehension and writing to learn, it makes sense to focus reading and writing some of the time on social studies, science, and mathematics. Integrating curriculum makes good use of teaching time. Also, with the greater attention being paid to reading instruction, integrating curriculum buys more teaching time for social studies and science.

Not long ago, teaching students to understand what they read was the pinnacle of reading instruction. Now we must go further and teach students not only to understand what they read but also to make sure it is credible and to examine it for biases and manipulation. Critical literacy and critical thinking are taking their place alongside reading comprehension.

The technology affecting what students read, how they read it, and how we should teach has been changing so rapidly that literacy educators now refer to the "new literacies." The recognition of new literacies acknowledges that as students continue to encode and decode messages, and store and search for information, the technologies that they use to do these things will have a profound effect on the skills they need.

Finally, the Common Core State Standards for the English Language Arts have now been with us for a while, after having been adopted with dramatic suddenness a decade ago by 45 states and the District of Columbia. The CCSS call on teachers to understand and be able to teach the details of the English language, to teach children to read closely for literary details, and to read and learn from informational texts. All of these topics had been addressed for years in previous editions of *All Children Read*, and the coverage has been strengthened in this fifth edition.

Special Features

Throughout the book, special features focus on issues of recurring importance to reading teachers and extend understanding of key concepts in reading instruction.

- **Common Core State Standards (CCSS) features** illustrate chapter content that aligns with Common Core State Standards.

> **CCSS**
>
> **Common Core State Standards and Vocabulary for Literary Discussions**
>
> As part of the comprehension of literature, the Common Core State Standards include having vocabulary to discuss characters and their feelings and motives, settings, and actions (CCSS, Comprehending Literature: Key Ideas and Details, Standards 2 and 3). Students should also have control of literary terms, so that they can talk about an author's craft (CCSS, Comprehending Literature: Craft and Structure, Standard 5). Teachers should be careful to model and also explicitly teach the words students will need in order to discuss stories from the inside out (as if the characters were real people and the events actually happened) and from the outside in (as if they were writers and were interested in the way the author created the work).

Anticipation Guide

The following statements will help you begin thinking about the topics covered in this chapter. Answer *true* or *false* in response to each statement. As you read and learn more about the topics mentioned in these statements, double-check your answers. See what interests you and prompts your curiosity toward more understanding.

_____ **1.** Literacy makes you smarter because the vocabulary, the information, and the habit of learning from text make you better able to learn new things.

_____ **2.** Among adults, there is little correlation between people's reading ability and their income level.

_____ **3.** American children read fairly well. Fourth graders scored in the top eighth in the world on one recent international comparison of basic reading skill.

_____ **4.** Most reading disabilities are caused by malfunctions of the brain, and children with reading problems need a wholly different kind of teaching from that provided to normally developing readers.

_____ **5.** Research shows that 86% of the children who get a poor start in learning to read do not catch up with their peers.

_____ **6.** Differences in the amount of reading children do are not significant. What matters in teaching reading are the skills students learn.

_____ **7.** Giving parents ideas for helping their children at home with literacy experiences makes a considerable difference in the children's success in school.

_____ **8.** Reading ability develops through stages in this order: beginning reading, emergent literacy, reading to learn and for pleasure, building fluency, and mature reading.

_____ **9.** The debate between advocates of phonics instruction and advocates of whole-word instruction began in the 1980s in the United States, during the Reagan Administration.

_____ **10.** Because the U.S. Constitution leaves the governance of education up to the states, standards for education, including reading, vary widely from state to state.

- **An Anticipation Guide** at the start of each chapter provides readers with the opportunity to assess their level of understanding prior to reading the chapter.

A Classroom Story

Literacy Activities in a First-Grade Classroom

Maria Gupta plans to show her first-grade students how words are constructed by building them from consonants and vowels. On a digital overhead projector, she places cut-out consonants in one row and vowels in another. She has chosen the letters the children can recognize and name. The children are ready to study ways those letters can combine and spell words.

Poised to begin, she calls the children's attention to the screen. "Class," she says, "here is a way I think you'll find interesting to learn how words are made. Watch me make a word and take that word apart, and make another word!" Ms. Gupta moves the consonant s from the row of consonants. She thinks out loud as she does this, and she continues to think aloud as she moves through the modeled lesson.

"Okay, I'm moving the s. What sound does this letter make?" The children respond with the sssss sound, and she asks for the name of this letter as well. "Correct. I'm putting it down here where I'm going to build a word. But, I think I need more letters to make a word. Now I'm getting a vowel; I'm going to try a, hmm . . . okay, we have sa. I'm going to think of a word that begins with sa; you try, too, and I'll get another letter. I'm going to try t because I may have thought of a word spelled s a t." She moves the letter t beside s and a, and asks the class if they know this word. Many of the children respond correctly, but not all of them. Ms. Gupta says, "Yes! It's the word sat. Let's say all three sounds. We can hear them and then put them together to make sat. Sat is a word!" Ms. Gupta says, "Its nice to learn to make words."

For the next step, Ms. Gupta takes the letters away one by one beginning with the s. She then asks if they can pronounce the at that is left and guides them in deciding together if a word can be made with just two letters. In talk that ensues, Ms. Gupta makes teaching points at each opportunity. For example, she says, "Yes, we can make a word with just these two letters this time because at is a word. But we nearly always need more letters to make a real word in English because we don't have many two-letter words!" Ms. Gupta repeats word building in the same way with other consonants and vowels.

- Every chapter begins with a narrative **Classroom Story** that shares a reading teacher's experience in an active classroom. Each vignette models key concepts from the chapter and demonstrates the challenges of today's classrooms and considerations for addressing children's needs.

The World of Reading

Using Taxonomies in Questioning

As we take time to consider the role of questioning in learning, we need ways to categorize and analyze the nature of our questions. There are some commonly used frameworks that can be used to help us in this activity. The most widely used is probably one developed by Benjamin Bloom and his colleagues in the 1950s and revised in 2010. Bloom's **taxonomy** was not initially created for use by teachers, but was developed as a taxonomy of educational objectives to measure school goals and assessment. However, teachers saw its value and have used it as a tool to help them reflect on their classroom questioning patterns. The taxonomy has seven levels of questions: memory, translation, interpretation, application, analysis, evaluation, and synthesis.

In research studies of classroom talk, it is not uncommon to see analyses of the levels of teacher questions. In some descriptions of reading comprehension and reading assessment, Bloom's seven levels have been chunked into three or four levels. For example, one common way of describing reading is by thinking of literal, interpretive, applied, and critical levels of comprehension to define kinds of questions in relation to text.

Raphael (1986) has helped students to think about sources of information for questions they are to answer by creating four categories:

- *Right there:* Questions that can be answered directly from the text
- *Think and search:* Questions that require more than one piece of information from the text
- *Author and you:* Questions that go beyond the text
- *On your own:* Questions that rely on the reader

The whole strategy is called Question-Answer-Relationships (**QAR**) and provides very practical definitions that make it easy for students to become more involved in both planning their strategies for responding and becoming aware metacognitively of the range of responses they need to be able to make to the text.

Taxonomies provide a helpful language to think about questioning and the kinds of thinking we want to help stimulate in students. Some teachers keep the levels of questions in their teacher manuals or put them on the bulletin boards so that both they and students are more aware of the need to go beyond the literal or memory level. Other teachers do not like to use taxonomies to evaluate comprehension. Rather than conceiving of them as a hierarchy, these teachers see taxonomies as an array of options that are available to use as appropriate.

- **World of Reading** boxes investigate a wide array of subjects as they pertain to the field of reading.

Teach It! 39

Discussion Web

Promoting thoughtful discussion and interpretation of shared literature with peers, this activity asks students to consider both sides of an argument.

- **Teach It!** boxes link to correlating activities from the Teach It! appendix that can be used to teach the concepts discussed.

- **Differentiated Instruction** features highlight ways to differentiate instruction so that all students are engaged positively and productively, acknowledging the increasing diversity of today's students.

> **Differentiating Instruction**
>
> **English Language Learners**
>
> Measures of reading fluency count the number of words read in a period of time and subtract from that number a reader's errors in word reading. Fluency scores may be reported as words read correctly per minute (WCPM) or the reading may be characterized qualitatively on a rubric such as Rasinski and Zutell's *Multidimension Index* (Rasinski, 2003). When fluency assessment is conducted with native speakers, we assume we are testing children's speed and accuracy at reading words, whether the children read words as wholes or decode them. We are also indirectly assessing their understanding of the materials, since being able to follow the syntax of the sentences, the structure of the text, and the meaning of the ideas contribute to the rate and accuracy of reading.
>
> Be aware, though, that English language learners may score poorly on reading fluency measures, but not for the same reasons that native speakers do. English language learners' poorer performance on both rate and accuracy can be caused by difficulties in rapidly pronouncing words in an unfamiliar language (Ockey, 2010). The good news is that such readers may comprehend words that they mispronounce.
>
> The methods in this chapter that provide practice in fluent reading may be challenging for English language learners. The practice of repeated oral reading can be helpful for English language learners, but teachers should take extra care to avoid making it embarrassing. English language learners may read faster silently than they do orally, so practices like Scaffolded Silent Reading are recommended for them.

- **For Review** sections conclude each chapter and offer a convenient study tool in the form of a brief recap of the learning outcomes covered.
- **For Your Journal** sections offer ideas for using material learned in each chapter to inform development of a personal teaching journal.
- **Taking It to the World** exercises challenge readers to apply chapter material to authentic classroom situations.

This is the first edition of *All Children Read: Teaching for Literacy in Today's Diverse Classrooms* offered in REVEL™.

REVEL™ is Pearson's newest way of delivering our respected content. Fully digital and highly engaging, REVEL offers an immersive learning experience designed for the way today's students read, think, and learn. Enlivening course content with media interactives and assessments, REVEL empowers educators to increase engagement with the course, and better connect with students.

REVEL Offers:

Dynamic content matched to the way today's students read, think, and learn:

- **Videos**
  Integrated within the narrative, videos empower students to engage with concepts and take an active role in learning. REVEL's unique presentation of media as an intrinsic part of course content brings the hallmark features of Pearson's bestselling titles to life.
- **Quizzing**
  Located throughout REVEL, quizzing affords students opportunities to check their understanding at regular intervals before moving on.

Support Materials for Instructors

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

- Instructor's Resource Manual and Test Bank (0-13-451598-6)

The Instructor's Resource Manual and Test Bank includes suggestions for learning activities, additional Experiencing Firsthand exercises, supplementary lectures, case study analyses, discussion topics, group activities, and a robust collection of test items. Some items (lower-level questions) simply ask students to identify or explain concepts and principles they have learned. But many others (higher-level questions) ask students to apply those same concepts and principles to specific classroom situations—that is, to actual student behaviors and teaching strategies.

- PowerPoint Slides (0-13-451600-1)

The PowerPoint slides include key concept summarizations, diagrams, and other graphic aids to enhance learning. They are designed to help students understand, organize, and remember core concepts and theories.

- TestGen (0-13-451599-4)

TestGen is a powerful test generator that instructors install on a computer and use in conjunction with the TestGen testbank file for the text. Assessments, including equations, graphs, and scientific notation, may be created for both print or testing online.

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

The tests can be downloaded in the following formats:

TestGen file - PC

TestGen file - MAC

TestGen - Blackboard 9

TestGen - Blackboard CE/Vista (WebCT)

D2L

Moodle

Sakai Test Bank

Acknowledgments

Chapter 1
Approaches to Teaching Reading

Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter you should be able to:

1. Define literacy and its importance in students' lives
2. Summarize the current state of literacy in the United States
3. List and describe the components of reading ability
4. Name the phases of reading development
5. Outline the recent history of reading instruction

Anticipation Guide

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A Classroom Story

What Makes a Good Teacher of Reading and Writing?

Good teachers of reading and writing are multitalented people. They know a great many teaching methods, but they also have a solid background in the science of language and literacy, and they proudly keep up with new developments in their field. They are keen observers of children's learning, and inventive designers of lessons and techniques. They can connect with children, and children of all backgrounds like them, trust them, and are inspired by them. They make unusual efforts to connect with their students' families, too, and help the families feel comfortable with the school environment and practices. Good teachers of reading and writing love to read and write, and they gladly demonstrate their enthusiasm and share their knowledge with their students.

Good teachers of reading and writing work everywhere—in classrooms from Los Angeles to New York City, from the Rio Grande Valley to the fields of Saskatchewan, and all around the world. Some work in carpeted classrooms equipped with smartboards and tablets, while others make cheerful places out of storage rooms, hallways, or even tropical shelters with rattling tin roofs and open walls—always thoughtfully orchestrating the learning of an individual child or of many different children. You will find them teaching in English, Spanish, French, Tagalog, Arabic, or many languages at once. In North America, some good teachers of reading have the title of reading specialists, some are reading coaches, and some are teachers of children with special needs; many are classroom teachers at all levels, including teachers of English to speakers of other languages as well as teachers of social studies, science, and other subjects who recognize the need to help students learn to read and learn from materials in their disciplines. Many are active in their professional associations, and share their experiences and learn from others at the state, regional, and national conventions of the International Literacy Association and the National Council of Teachers of English.

The authors of this book hope that you will share with those good teachers a passion for bringing the gift of literacy to young people, that you will have a fascination for the intricacies of the task and an appreciation of the scholarship necessary to understand how reading works and how it is taught, and that you will continue to grow in your knowledge of reading and reading instruction.

Teaching every child to read and write is the most important mission of the elementary and middle school teacher. Science, mathematics, and social studies; art, physical education, and vocational preparedness; anti-drug abuse and conflict resolution education; civic education and education for self-awareness—all contribute to the making of the well-rounded child (and all of them require literacy in their own ways, too). But teaching children to read and write and to use the thinking processes that accompany literacy prepare them to learn their other school subjects and to educate themselves for the rest of their lives. The skills of literacy are centrally important for other reasons, too: Being able to read and write makes children smarter and ultimately makes their lives better.

Why Does Literacy Matter?

Literacy. Think about that word for a minute. If you describe a friend or relative as "literate," chances are you mean that person has read many important books and been affected by them. But if you say someone is "not literate," or, worse yet, "illiterate," you mean that person cannot read this sentence. There is a lot of territory in between! When we attach the word *literate* to "technological" or "financial," then literacy means to have the concepts and vocabulary that enable us to make sense of technology or financial information, and to have the skills to use that knowledge to operate successfully in the fields of technology or finance. Those uses of literacy come close to what we mean by the term *literacy* in this book. We define **literacy** *as a set of concepts and skills that enable a person to read and write: that is, to make sense of and communicate messages through the medium of written language.*

Teaching children to read and write not only gives them access to knowledge from print but also makes them better able to use that knowledge. Children who read store up background knowledge about the things they read about, whether it be nature, science, history, current events, or geography (Schwanenflugel, P. J., & Knapp, N. F., 2016; Stanovich, 1992). This knowledge helps them make better sense of the new things they read (Anderson & Pearson, 1984) and encounter in their everyday lives; in other words, it makes them smarter (Acheson, Wells, & MacDonald, 2008). Children who read gain bigger vocabularies, too (Smith, 1997), and having bigger vocabularies enables them to notice things (Brown, 1955) and to make finer distinctions in their perceptions of the world (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013).

Literacy helps children to think in more sophisticated ways. Studies have shown that reading proficiency makes profound differences in people's reasoning, their awareness of language, their understanding of themselves, and even their ability to formulate questions and learn about things they didn't know (Luria, 1976). Children who read and talk about books with others show greater self-awareness and critical thinking (Almasi, 1995), demonstrate increased empathy and social understanding (Lysaker, Tonge, Gauson, & Miller, 2011), tend to engage ideas more deeply (Eeds & Wells, 1989; Goatley, Brock, & Raphael, 1995), and are more likely to perceive themes in stories; that is, they are more likely to get the message (Lehr, 1991).

Among adults, literacy is associated with better health, greater job opportunities, and higher incomes (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015). Surveys show that people who can read and write well tend to have a wider range of options in life. But surveys also show that people need fairly sophisticated levels of literacy to benefit in terms of better jobs and other quality of life indicators (OECD and Statistics Canada, 2005).

This discussion may seem remote to anyone teaching kindergarten or third grade, but please pay attention: Students' early experiences as readers have a huge effect on their eventual success or failure to learn to read and write. Those of you who are fortunate enough to be teachers are in a privileged position to make sure your children have better choices available to them both sooner and later. You can teach them to read and write. But be aware that people with limited literacy do not usually see themselves as having a literacy problem (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015). The task of a teacher of reading, then, will not only be to teach but also to motivate. Even though reading ability is a ticket to a better future for all students, they might not know that, and their families might not know it either. Teachers have to make special efforts to encourage every child to *want* to be a reader, and for their parents to support them in their efforts to learn.

Check Your Understanding 1.1: **Gauge your understanding of the skills and concepts in this section.**

How Well Do Children in the United States Read?

For years, the media have clamored about the poor state of reading in American schools. But the critics have mostly gotten it wrong. They have missed both the considerable achievements as well as the most serious challenges in our nation's efforts to teach all children to read (Klenk & Kibby, 2000). In a nutshell, two things are true about the way children read in the United States:

1. American students in elementary schools do fairly well at basic reading compared to those in other countries. But—
2. Success in reading among American students is spread unevenly among our children.

Global Reading Scores

According to the latest international comparison of reading achievement, the **PIRLS** (Progress in International Reading Literacy), in 2011 American fourth graders scored sixth compared to children in the 45 countries around the world who participated in the test, and that rank was up from eleventh in 2006 (see Figure 1.1).

The **PISA** (Programme for International Student Assessment) test samples students' ability to solve real-world problems using a variety of realistic texts. In 2012 American 15-year-olds scored above the world's average in reading on the PISA test, but students in more than 21 countries scored better than students in the United States.

Discrepancies in Reading Achievement Among American Students

Our most successful students do well in basic literacy tasks, but there are many students who do not. For example, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (**NAEP**) defines a fourth-grade "proficient reading level" this way:

> *Fourth-grade students performing at the* Proficient *level should be able to integrate and interpret texts and apply their understanding of the text to draw conclusions and make evaluations.* (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015)

In 2015, 40% of all U.S. fourth graders could read at or above the proficient level, though that number dropped to one in five black students and Hispanic students. What about the rest? A "basic level" of reading ability on the NAEP was described this way:

> *Fourth-grade students performing at the* Basic *level should be able to locate relevant information, make simple inferences, and use their understanding of the text to identify details that support a given interpretation or conclusion. Students should be able to interpret the meaning of a word as it is used in the text.* (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015)

In 2015, 42% of all fourth graders could read at a basic level; 31% read below that level. Again, performance was different for different ethnic groups. Nearly half of all black and Hispanic students read below the basic level in 2015.

In 2015, a third of all U.S. eighth graders were at or above the proficient level, compared to 15% and 20% of black students and Hispanic students, respectively.

At the eighth grade level, NAEP defines basic reading this way:

> *Eighth-grade students performing at the* Basic *level should be able to locate information; identify statements of main idea, theme, or author's purpose; and make simple inferences from texts. They should be able to interpret the meaning of a word as it is used*

Figure 1.1 PIRLS Scores for Fourth Grades, 2011

Country	Average Scale Score	Reading Achievement Distribution
[3]Hong Kong SAR	571 (2.3) ⌃	
Russian Federation	568 (2.7) ⌃	
Finland	568 (1.9) ⌃	
[2]Singapore	567 (3.3) ⌃	
[†]Northern Ireland	558 (2.4) ⌃	
[2]United States	556 (1.5) ⌃	
[2]Denmark	554 (1.7) ⌃	
[2]Croatia	553 (1.9) ⌃	
Chinese Taipei	553 (1.9) ⌃	
Ireland	552 (2.3) ⌃	
[†]England	552 (2.6) ⌃	
[2]Canada	548 (1.6) ⌃	
[†]Netherlands	546 (1.9) ⌃	
Czech Republic	545 (2.2) ⌃	
Sweden	542 (2.1) ⌃	
Italy	541 (2.2) ⌃	
Germany	541 (2.2) ⌃	
[3]Israel	541 (2.7) ⌃	
Portugal	541 (2.6) ⌃	
Hungary	539 (2.9) ⌃	
Slovak Republic	535 (2.8) ⌃	
Bulgaria	532 (4.1) ⌃	
New Zealand	531 (1.9) ⌃	
Slovenia	530 (2.0) ⌃	
Austria	529 (2.0) ⌃	
[1][2]Lithuania	528 (2.0) ⌃	
Australia	527 (2.2) ⌃	
Poland	526 (2.1) ⌃	
France	520 (2.6) ⌃	
Spain	513 (2.3) ⌃	
[‡]Norway	507 (1.9) ⌃	
[2][†]Belgium (French)	506 (2.9) ⌃	
Romania	502 (4.3)	
PIRLS Scale Centerpoint	**500**	
[1]Georgia	488 (3.1) ⌄	
Malta	477 (1.4) ⌄	
Trinidad and Tobago	471 (3.8) ⌄	
[2]Azerbaijan	462 (3.3) ⌄	
Iran, Islamic Rep. of	457 (2.8) ⌄	
Colombia	448 (4.1) ⌄	
United Arab Emirates	439 (2.2) ⌄	
Saudi Arabia	430 (4.4) ⌄	
Indonesia	428 (4.2) ⌄	
[2]Qatar	425 (3.5) ⌄	
ΨOman	391 (2.8) ⌄	
⌗Morocco	310 (3.9) ⌄	

SOURCE: IEA's Progress International Reading Literacy Study – PIRLS 2011

⌃ Country average significantly higher than the centerpoint of the PIRLS scale

⌄ Country average significantly lower than the centerpoint of the PIRLS scale

Percentiles of Performance
5th 25th 75th 95th
95% Confidence Interval for Average (±2SE)

⌗ Average achievement not reliably measured because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 25%.
Ψ Reservations about reliability of average achievement because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation does not exceed 25% but exceeds 15%.
See Appendix C.2 for target population coverage notes 1, 2, and 3. See Appendix C5 for sampling guidelines and sampling participation notes † and ‡.
( ) Standard errors appear in parentheses. Because of rounding some results may appear inconsistent.

in the text. Students performing at this level should also be able to state judgments and give some support about content and presentation of content. (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015).

In 2015, 42% of all eighth graders read at a basic level. But it's troubling again that a fourth of all eighth graders could not do so, and that proportion rose to 42% and 35% of black and Hispanic students, respectively.

DIFFERENCES IN READING ACHIEVEMENT BY SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS Differences in reading achievement are often related to socioeconomic status. That is not good news for American children, since a third of them live in poverty, according to *The Washington Post* (Ingraham, 2015). The *Post's* definition of a person living in poverty is anyone who makes below 60% of the national average income. When that criterion is tightened to below 50% of the national average, still over 23% of children in the United States are considered to be poor. By either criterion, that is a terrible statistic. It looks even worse when compared to other developed countries. As you can see from Figure 1.2, according to UNICEF, our child poverty rate in the United States at over 23% was second highest of the world's 35 richest countries. Lowest was Iceland, with 4.7%.

Poor children now make up a slight majority of the children who attend public schools in the United States (Layton, 2014). American students' standing on at least one international comparison is pulled down by high rates of poverty, one critic claims (Martin Carnoy, in Rabinovitz, 2013). The gap between U.S. 15-year olds' scores on the PISA test, on which we

Figure 1.2 Child Poverty Rates in Developed Countries

Rate	Country
4.7	Iceland
5.3	Finland
6.1	Cyprus
6.1	Netherlands
6.1	Norway
6.3	Slovenia
6.5	Denmark
7.3	Sweden
7.3	Austria
7.4	Czech Republic
8.1	Switzerland
8.4	Ireland
8.5	Germany
8.8	France
8.9	Malta
10.2	Belgium
10.3	Hungary
10.9	Australia
11.2	Slovakia
11.7	New Zealand
11.9	Estonia
12.1	United Kingdom
12.3	Luxembourg
13.3	Canada
14.5	Poland
14.7	Portugal
14.9	Japan
15.4	Lithuania
15.9	Italy
16.0	Greece
17.1	Spain
17.8	Bulgaria
18.8	Latvia
23.1	USA
25.5	Romania

Child poverty rate
(% of children living in households with equivalent income lower than 50% of national median)

Note: Data refer to children aged 0 to 17.
Sources: Calculations based on EU-SILC 2009, HILDA 2009, SLID 2009, SHP 2009, PSID 2007. Results for New Zealand are from Perry (2011). Results for Japan are from Cabinet Office, Gender Equality Bureau (2011).

now rank behind more than 20 countries, would be cut in half if the students in U.S. schools were compared with samples of students with similar demographics in other countries.

Poverty complicates children's learning in a host of ways that we will consider in Chapter 2. It is not surprising that poor children—those from families who are eligible for free or reduced cost lunches—tend to score well below other children in reading (see Figure 1.3).

Low family income does not necessarily mean students should perform poorly in reading. **Resilient students** are those who overcome difficult circumstances and learn to read in school. Poor children living in Asia are likely to be resilient—50% to 70% of them (PISA, 2009). But they are less so in the United States, where only about 5% of children from poor family backgrounds tend to be resilient (Center on International Education Benchmarking, 2013).

DIFFERENCES IN READING ACHIEVEMENT BY STATE AND LANGUAGE BACKGROUND   There are also sizable differences in reading achievement levels among the states. In 2015, the state with the highest scores had 50% of fourth graders reading at or above the proficient level, while in the lowest scoring state only half that many read proficiently. In the lowest scoring state nearly half of the fourth graders read below the basic level, compared to 18% reading below basic in the state with the highest scores. In the highest scoring state, 14% of the children read at the advanced level, but only 4% did so in the lowest performing state (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015).

Figure 1.3 Relation Between Poverty and Reading Achievement

SOURCE: NAEP *Nation's Report Card*, 2011: http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/pdf/main2011/2012457.pdf
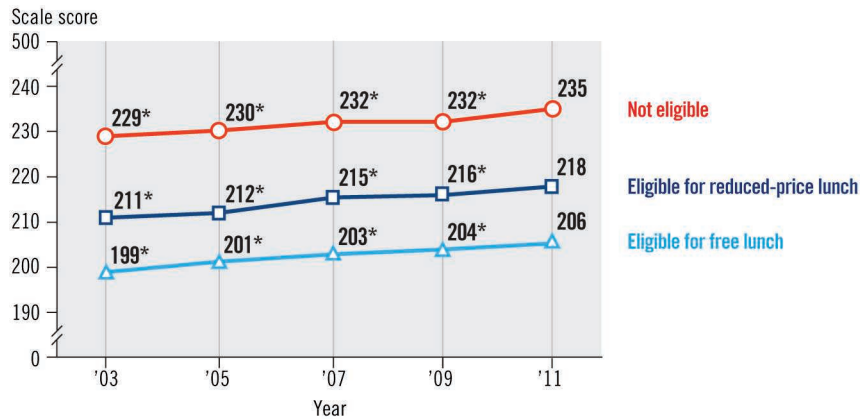
English language learners (ELLs) are defined by the NAEP as "[S]tudents who are in the process of acquiring English language skills and knowledge" (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015). English Language Learners score well below native English speakers (see Figure 1.4).

Who Are the Struggling Readers?

If success in reading in the United States is spread unevenly, how many of our children have "reading disabilities"? A reading disability is said to be present when a child who can see and hear well, has normal intelligence, and who has had adequate instruction fails to learn to read. Or to be more specific, the federal Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) defines a Specific Learning Disability, of which a reading disability is a subcategory, as "a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may manifest itself in the imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. Such term includes such conditions as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. Such term does not include a learning problem that is primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor disabilities, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage" (National Center for Learning Disabilities, 2014, p. 2).

By this definition, perhaps 5% of all school children—2.4 million of them—have Specific Learning Disabilities (National Center for Learning Disabilities, 2014). The majority of those disabilities affect reading. The percentage of children with learning disabilities has shrunk in recent years, but whether the decline is due to earlier and more effective reading interventions or because of refinements in identifying children with learning disabilities is a subject of debate.

Early Reading Experiences Matter

Why are early reading experiences important? The value of a good beginning in reading—and the damage that can be done by a poor beginning—was underscored by Connie Juel (1988). Juel surveyed a group of first graders in a Texas public school, found the 20% who read least well, and carefully tracked the reading progress of 54 of these students for three years. At the end of the study, 86% of those children were still in the bottom half of the class. Although reading problems had not been severe in first grade, they were serious by fourth grade. Juel worried that these children would not close the gap in later years.

Why?

"MATTHEW EFFECTS" IN READING   In a famous essay, Keith Stanovich (1986) showed that in learning to read, "The rich get richer and the poor get poorer." He called this phenomenon the "**Matthew Effect**," after the Bible verse, "For unto every one that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance: but from him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath" (Matthew 25:29). Stanovich meant that students who get off to a good start in reading are likely to practice reading and get better and better. But for others, relatively small reading problems in the early years can discourage students from practicing their reading; and if they don't practice, their reading ability won't grow, so those small problems are compounded and grow into severe reading disabilities after three or four years. Watch this video in which Dr. Stanovich explains the Matthew Effect and answer the question that follows.

FIGURE 1.4 Reading Scores of English Language Learners Compared to Others

SOURCE: National Assessment of Education Progress, *Nation's Report Card Reading and Mathematics Assessment 2015*. http://www.nationsreportcard.gov/reading_math_2015/#reading/acl?grade=4

English language learners

Year	below *Basic*	*Basic*	*Proficient*	*Advanced*	Percentage and or above *Proficient*
2015	68	24	7	1	8
2013	69	24	6	1	7
2011	69	24	6	1	7
2009	71	23	6	#	6*
2007	70	23	7	1	7
2005	73*	21*	6	1	7
2003	72*	20*	6	1	7
2002	76*	19	5*#		5*
2000	82*	16*	3*#		3*
1998	79*	15*	5	1	6

100 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
PERCENT

Not English language learners

Year					Percentage and or above *Proficient*
2015	27	34	30	10	39
2013	28	34	29	9	38
2011	28*	35*	28*	9*	37*
2009	30*	35*	27*	8*	36*
2007	29*	35*	27*	9*	35*
2005	33*	34	26*	8*	34*
2003	34*	33	25*	8*	33*
2002	33*	33	26*	8*	33*
2000	38*	31*	24*	7*	31*
1998	39*	31*	23*	7*	30*

100 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
PERCENT

▶ **Video Exploration 1.1:** Watch the video (www.youtube.com/watch?v=lF6VKmMVWEc) and answer questions that reflect the content you have read.

Children learn to read by reading. The amount of reading children do closely correlates with reading achievement at all levels (Garan & DeVoogd, 2008), since children who read more tend to read better (Allington, 2014). That is why teachers need to consider the Matthew Effect as they plan instruction. Watch this video and think about the ways that the Matthew Effect might influence a teacher's daily classroom routine. Then, answer the question that follows.

▶ **Video Exploration 1.2:** Watch the video and answer questions that reflect the content you have read.

Family and Community Involvement

Families make a difference in children's preparation to learn to read and write. On the average, children from poor families have more difficulty learning to be literate than children from middle-class homes do (Vernon-Feagans, Hammer, Miccio, & Manlove, 2001). But the exact reasons for this can be difficult to tease out. If a family is poor, then poverty itself presents a complex set of stress factors (Ehrenreich, 2001). If you are poor, it is hard to raise a healthy and competent child.

It is hard to buy and prepare nutritious food. It is hard to afford good-quality childcare. It is hard to find the time and energy between jobs to spend time with your child.

Nonetheless, researchers have identified family literacy practices related to children's success in learning to read and write. Many of these may be influenced by the school or by the school working in concert with community partners. The National Research Council (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998) found that families help children become readers in four ways: by showing children that they (the family members) place value on literacy, by expecting children to work hard to achieve goals and motivating and encouraging them to do so, by making sure there are accessible reading materials in the home, and by reading with the children. Family literacy projects that encourage families to read to children and talk with them can have success (Vernon-Feagans et al., 2001). But helping families nurture their children's literacy is not a simple matter. Communication patterns within families are hard to change—even if we agreed that educators had any business trying to change them! A famous study showed that poor families offer children less verbal interaction than middle-class families do, and the shortage of interaction has a strong effect on the children's vocabulary size (Hart & Risley, 1995), which in turn shortchanges the store of meanings available to them as they try to learn to read and write.

GIVING ALL FAMILIES ACCESS TO READING MATERIALS   It is known that children's preschool experiences with books and print also contribute to their success in learning to read once they arrive in school (Snow et al., 1998; Teale & Sulzby, 1987). But families who live in low-income areas have far less access to books than middle-class families do—fewer libraries, open fewer hours (Bornstein, 2011, unpaged; Neuman & Celano, 2012).

Nearly all families in the United States have some contact with literacy materials, but many low-literacy families really do not seriously engage with print enough to provide experiences for children that teach them (Purcell-Gates, 1996). Even when low-income families visit libraries, the visits don't necessarily result in their finding materials to read (Neuman & Celano, 2010). Family literacy work is not always easy, but the title of Purcell-Gates' book about the illiterate mother and the semi-literate son—*The Cycle of Low Literacy*—underscores how important it is for educators to include families in their plans for promoting literacy.

Check Your Understanding 1.2: **Gauge your understanding of the skills and concepts in this section.**

Components of Reading Ability

What exactly are you teaching when you teach a child to read? Reading ability can be broken down into several different sets of concepts and skills. The most widely recognized ones are outlined below.

Concepts About Print

Imagine a child who had never watched someone read. If that child were in your kindergarten or first-grade class, you would need to show her what a book is, how to hold it, what is print and what is a picture, the direction of the print across from left to right and down the page, that print contains letters and the identities of those letters, that letters combine into words and that words are groups of letters with a space on either end, that the same words are spoken each time someone reads the same page, and—above all!—that those words add up to interesting information or a good story. Taken together, all of these facts are called **concepts about print**. Most children enter kindergarten with at least some concepts about print intact. But children vary widely in their exposure to print, so assessing and teaching concepts about print should be part of the repertoire of every teacher of preschool, kindergarten, and first grade—and just about every teacher of special education in the primary grades.

Word Recognition and Phonics

Recognizing the words on the page is the next important reading skill. This skill has two parts. One is recognizing words instantly, as you would recognize the face of a friend. This is called **sight word** *recognition*, or recognizing words *at sight*. A word that has been seen many times, particularly if it refers to something interesting and its meaning is familiar, becomes a word a reader can recognize instantly. A good reader has many thousands of sight words in memory.

The other aspect of word recognition is puzzling out the identity of words readers can't yet recognize, and this is called **decoding**. When you read nonsense words like *glatz, charl, splane,* and *clorption,* you are decoding. A young reader uses decoding to figure out how to read the unfamiliar word *stripe* when he already knows how to read *stop* and *ripe;* or *dot* when

he can read hardly any words at all, but knows the sounds represented by the consonants *D* and *T*, and the vowel *O* when it comes right before a consonant. The sort of knowledge a reader applies when he decodes is called **phonics.** Phonics is knowledge of the relations between letters or groups of letters and speech sounds.

Phonics knowledge, in turn, has two parts. One is knowing the relationship between letters and clusters of letters called **graphemes** (a grapheme is a small unit of written language) and the speech sounds they represent. The other is awareness of those speech sounds, called **phonemes** (a phoneme is the smallest unit of speech that differentiates meanings). This latter sort of awareness is known as **phonological awareness** (which is the awareness of speech sounds in general, including syllables) and **phonemic awareness** (awareness of phonemes specifically).

Reading Fluency

Reading fluency has four aspects:

- recognizing words *automatically and accurately,*
- reading text *with appropriate speed,*
- reading *with meaningful inflection* (the voice goes higher and lower, louder and softer, depending on the meaning or the emotions evoked by what is read), and
- *grouping words meaningfully* (for example, "Austin, [pause] the capital of Texas, [pause] is the home of the University of Texas.").

Reading fluency is closely related to comprehension. First, reading fluently *contributes to* comprehension because having the ability to read strings of words smoothly and accurately leaves the mind plenty of capacity to think about the meaning of the text (Perfetti, 1992; Pressley, 2000). Second, reading fluency *benefits from* comprehension because a reader can only read with good voice inflection and meaningful pauses if she understands what she is reading. Bear in mind that fluent reading can be silent as well as oral—we just can't hear the inflection and the word grouping when students are reading silently.

Like any other skill that we want to be able to perform automatically—be it tying a shoe, driving an automobile, sailing a boat, or hitting a tennis ball—reading fluency improves with practice. That is why thoughtful teachers provide children plenty of opportunities to read texts that are fairly easy for them, even as they sometimes assign more challenging texts, too. It's not surprising that our best readers are the ones who read often for pleasure (see Figure 1.5).

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the store of words and their meanings in memory. Having an adequate vocabulary helps reading in several ways. First, when you encounter words such as *epithalamion, ecclesiastical, primogeniture, dodecahedron,* or *unicameral,* you may struggle to decide what the letters are adding up to, only to discover you don't know the word they spell anyway. On the other hand, when you come across words like *muthuh, sista,* and *solja,* you can easily work through the unfamiliar street spellings because you do know the words they spell. Vocabulary helps us read by facilitating word recognition in just that way: You may more successfully puzzle through the spelling of a word you don't immediately recognize in written form if you already have the word in your vocabulary.

FIGURE 1.5 Children Who Read for Pleasure Score Higher on Reading Tests.

SOURCE: NAEP *Nation's Report Card*, 2011: http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/pdf/main2011/2012457.pdf

Average Fourth Grade Reading Scores on the National Assessment of Reading Progress Sorted by Self-Reported Reading for Pleasure.

How often do you read for fun on your own time?

	Scale score
Never or hardly ever	210
Once or twice a month	214
Once or twice a week	221
Almost every day	228