

## The Critical Components of Effective Reading Instruction

by Martha C. Hougen

*“Oh no, not more to do,” the first-year teacher groaned as she was told she had to test all her students, again. “I don’t have time for one more thing. I am going to have to teach less, I guess, and test more.”*

It is true that teachers are asked to do more—more testing, more counseling, more parent conferences, more supervision, and on and on. Your day can be filled with activities other than teaching. Because of these high demands, it is important that you are cognizant of the most important things to teach so that you make efficient use of the time available.

This chapter will help you make instructional decisions by providing an overview of what research has determined are the most critical components of reading you must teach young students. Without these skills, students are unlikely to learn to read well. The components will be defined and briefly discussed; subsequent chapters in the book delve into more detail about how to teach and assess each component.

The chapter concludes with a discussion of the features of effective instruction, or how to teach the critical components. Examples are provided, illustrating the integration of the critical components of reading and the features of effective instruction.

**Objectives:** After studying this chapter, you will be able to do the following:

1. Define and describe the critical components of reading instruction.
2. Define and describe the features of effective instruction.
3. Explain the research base for the components of reading instruction.
4. Explain what is meant by scaffolding instruction and provide three examples.
5. Explain the model of teaching: I do, you do, we do, and provide an example.
6. Explain the differences among phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, and phonics.
7. Discuss the relevant Common Core State Standards (or the Texas College & Career Readiness Standards).
8. Explain the Reading Rope figure.
9. Explain the background and major findings of the National Reading Panel Report.
10. Share your plans for your first tutoring session.

## WHAT THE RESEARCH SAYS

Over the years, several seminal reports have been published and all reached similar conclusions. Marilyn Adams wrote *Beginning to Read: Thinking and Learning about Print* in 1994.<sup>1</sup> She stated that young students needed to be taught to read in a systematic way that included the critical components of reading instruction. In 1995, Jeanne Chall wrote *Learning to Read: the Great Debate* emphasizing the importance of instruction in phonics.<sup>2</sup> In 1998, Catherine Snow and colleagues, supported by the National Research Council, wrote *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children*.<sup>3</sup> Shortly after, the federal government commissioned a panel to study relevant research in reading and to provide recommendations. This resulted in the Report of the National Reading Panel Report, published in 2000.<sup>4</sup> Since then, others have continued researching how children learn to read, and their conclusions have supported the recommendations of the National Reading Panel.<sup>5</sup> The Panel concluded that there are five essential components that students must master to be able to read efficiently. These five components are phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

It is important to note that the Panel did not review the research nor provide recommendations on several topics crucial to literacy development, including early childhood education (birth to age 5), oral language and listening skill development, English language learners, writing instruction, and how to motivate students to read. However, these topics are addressed in this text, and supporting research is provided for the recommendations cited.<sup>6</sup>

Throughout the text, these components will be revisited, deepening your understanding about how to assess student progress and how to design instruction so that all students become capable readers.

## THE CRITICAL COMPONENTS OF READING INSTRUCTION

Developing oral language and listening skills are important precursors to learning to read. In Chapter 3, you will learn how to support the development of these skills in young children in preschool (Pre-K) and kindergarten. Of course, students in all grades need to be encouraged to continuously develop their oral language and listening skills. However, it is essential that very young children develop a sound foundation so that they have the linguistic basis to learn to read.

### I. Phonemic Awareness

Phonemic awareness is an awareness of the individual sounds in words, the phonemes. Phonemes are the smallest unit of sound. The sounds of phonemes are indicated with slashes, such as /a/ and /t/. The letter name is indicated by the italicized letter, such as *t*. Whole words and parts of words used as examples are italicized. For example, in the word *sit*, there are three phonemes: /s/ /i/ /t/. In the word *ship*, there are also three phonemes: /sh/ /i/ /p/. The word *ball* has three phonemes: /b/ /a/ /l/. The word *fox* has four: /f/ /o/ /k/ /s/ (the letter *x* makes two sounds, /k/ and /s/). Phonemes are not the same as letters, though the sound of a phoneme can be matched to one or more letters. There are 44 phonemes in the English language.

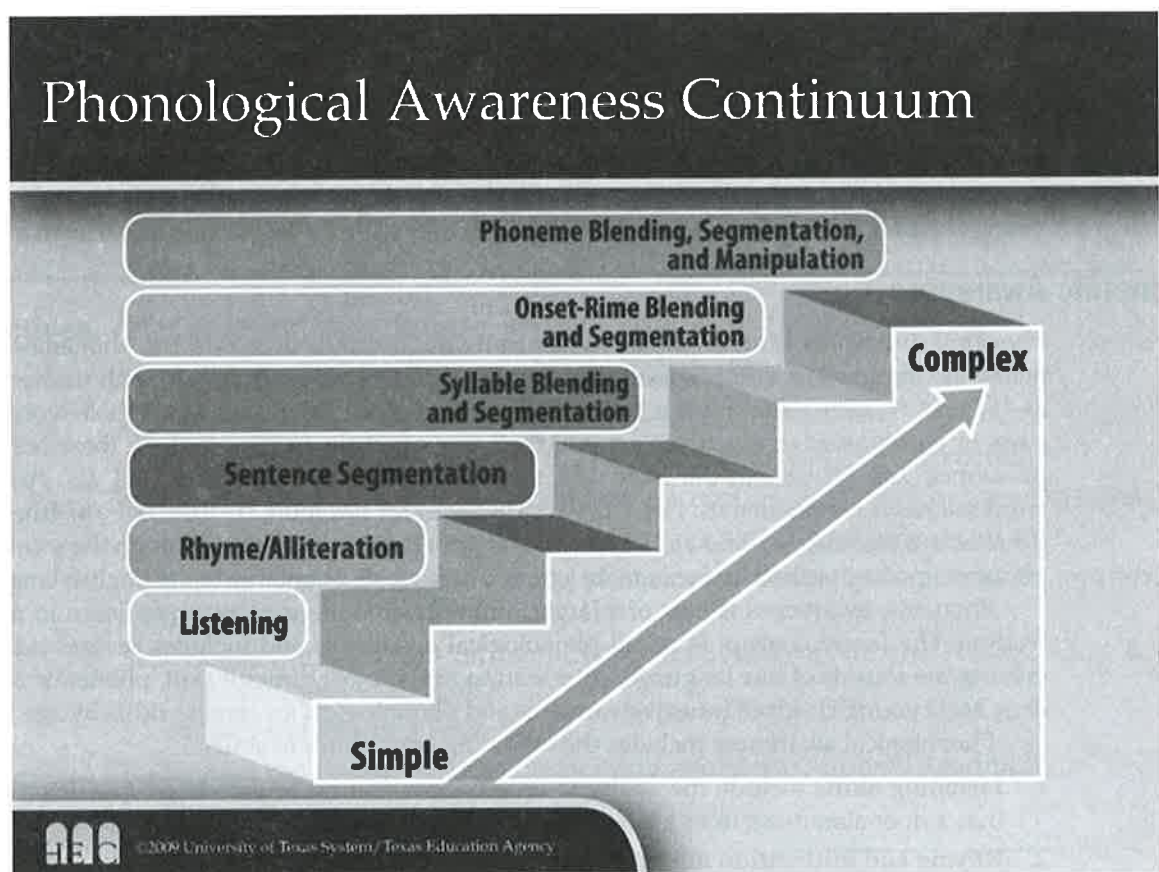
Phonemic awareness is part of a larger umbrella of skills students must learn to master reading. The larger concept is called phonological awareness and includes several skills involving the sounds of our language, culminating in the most difficult skill, phonemic awareness. Most young children intuitively understand phonological awareness skills by age 3 or 4.

Phonological awareness includes the following continuum of skills:

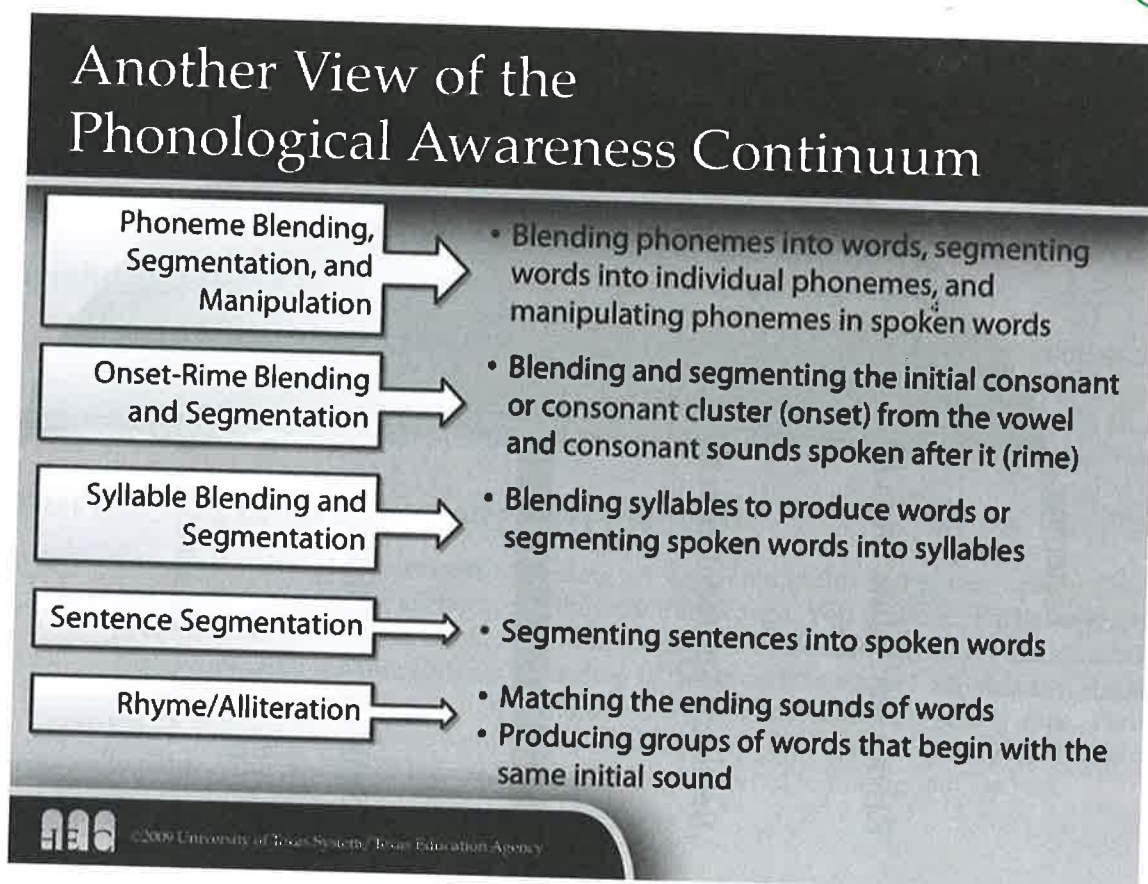
1. **Listening skills** include the ability to differentiate natural sounds from speech sounds (i.e., a door slamming from a bell ringing from a spoken word).
2. **Rhyme and alliteration** are the ability to tell when words rhyme (cake, lake) and which words start with the same sound (busy bees buzz).
3. **Sentence segmentation** is the ability to tell when one word stops and another begins. Students should be able to count the words in a spoken sentence and determine that the

sentence, "The school bus came early," consists of five separate words. If you have learned a foreign language, you know that differentiating individual words in a sentence can be difficult as words tend to run together when spoken.

4. **Syllable blending and segmenting** is the ability to blend and segment syllables into words. A syllable is a word or part of a word made with one opening of your mouth. A syllable makes one vowel sound. Every syllable has a vowel sound. Examples of blending syllables are taking "home" and "work" and forming "homework" or "ta" and "ble" into "table." Segmenting words into syllables means breaking the word apart into syllables, such as "cowboy" into "cow" and "boy," or "reading" into "read" and "ing."
5. **Onset rime blending and segmenting** is the ability to differentiate the beginning consonant of a one-syllable word (the onset) and the vowel and letters that come after the vowel (the rime). The onset in the word *cat* is *c* and the rime is *at*. The rime of a word always contains a vowel.
6. **Phonemic awareness** is the ability to segment, blend, and manipulate phonemes in one-syllable words. Students should be able to hear *cat* and segment it into /k/ /a/ /t/, and to hear /c/ /a/ /t/ and blend the sounds together to say *cat*. Manipulating phonemes is even more difficult and involves such activities as saying *man*, then substituting the /m/ for a /p/, and saying *pan*, changing the /n/ to /t/ and saying *pat*, or changing the medial sound /a/ to /i/ and saying *pit*. Another exercise is removing some sounds, such as taking away /s/ from *slip* and saying the word *lip*. Note that when doing this exercise, you say the sounds of the letters, not the name of the letters (Figures 2.1 and 2.2).



**Figure 2.1.** Phonological awareness continuum. (From Vaughn Gross Center at The University of Texas at Austin. [2009]. Module 4: Phonological awareness. In *Foundations of reading instruction presentations and print files*. Austin, TX: Vaughn Gross Center [Texas Reading First Higher Education Collaborative]; reprinted by permission.)



**Figure 2.2.** Another view of the phonological awareness continuum. (From Vaughn Gross Center at The University of Texas at Austin. [2009]. Module 4: Phonological awareness. In *Foundations of reading instruction presentations and print files*. Austin, TX: Vaughn Gross Center [Texas Reading First Higher Education Collaborative]; reprinted by permission.)

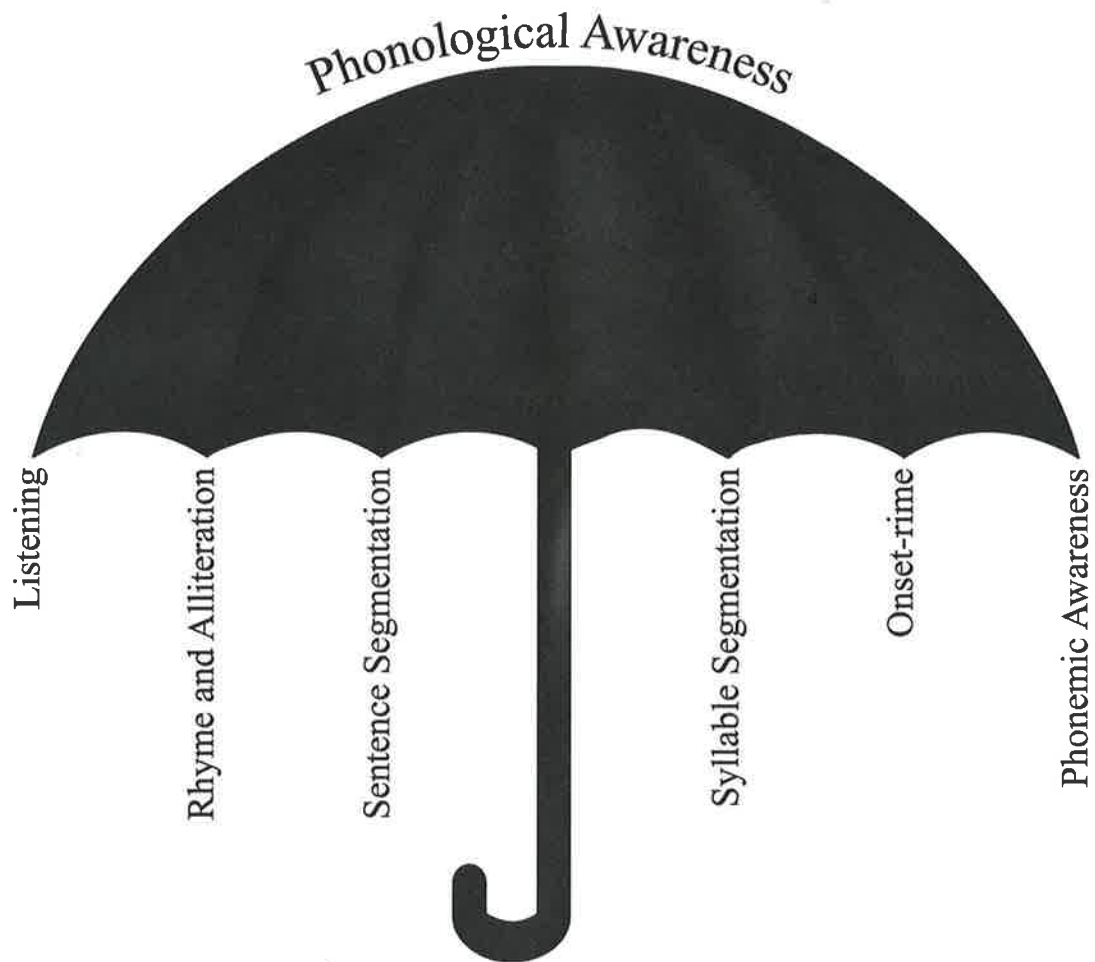
Try this exercise to help you remember the components of phonological awareness. Hold up your hand. Bend it at the wrist. You are making an umbrella with your hand. Each finger represents a stay in that umbrella. The back of your hand is phonological awareness and listening skills, or the all-encompassing concept. Each stay represents one aspect of phonological awareness. Your thumb is the biggest component, rhyming and alliteration. Each finger is another one of the components, with your little finger representing phonemic awareness (Figure 2.3).

Phonemic awareness is essential for learning to read and is one skill that predicts whether a young student will learn to read. The good news is that phonemic awareness can be taught, usually with minimal instruction. Proficiency in phonemic awareness also helps students with spelling as they become aware of the sounds in words.

Phonemic awareness is typically taught with no print; it is a listening skill. Students can close their eyes and practice phonemic awareness skills. Some teachers wear rabbit ears when they teach phonemic awareness to remind students to listen carefully. As students become aware of the sounds, the sounds are quickly mapped to print letters. This will be explained in depth in Chapter 4.

## II. Phonics (Decoding, Word Study)

The next essential element of reading is phonics. Phonics is teaching students that the squiggles on a page actually mean something and represent a sound or sounds. Phonics is the relationship between the letters (graphemes) of written language and the sounds (phonemes) of spoken language. Phonics instruction teaches students these letter-sound relationships.



**Figure 2.3.** Phonological awareness umbrella. (From Vaughn Gross Center at The University of Texas at Austin. [2009]. Module 4: Phonological awareness. In *Foundations of reading instruction presentations and print files*. Austin, TX: Vaughn Gross Center [Texas Reading First Higher Education Collaborative]; adapted by permission.)

Phonics is sometimes referred to as decoding words (reading the words), but phonics is actually more than that. When taught well, phonics teaches students the relationship of letters, sounds, patterns of letters, even the origin of words. In Chapter 5, you will learn how best to teach phonics, suggestions about which letters to teach when, and how spelling supports phonics and vice versa.

### III. Fluency

Fluency means being able to read text effortlessly so that you can concentrate on the meaning. It means reading accurately and quickly, but it also entails using appropriate phrasing, reading with expression, and attending to punctuation (called prosody). It does *not* mean reading as quickly as you can, ignoring prosody and reading without comprehension. Fluent reading is highly related to early reading comprehension. In Chapter 8, you will learn how to assess and support your students' ability to read with fluency.

### IV. Vocabulary

Vocabulary refers to the words that one must know to communicate effectively by listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Often, students learn to decode well and to read fluently,

but they do not understand what they are reading. The problem may be because they do not understand what the words mean. English language learners must learn the complex English vocabulary. All students must focus on increasing their vocabulary.

In Chapter 10, you will learn how to select words to directly teach students, specific strategies to ensure in-depth learning of selected words, and how to create a language-rich environment that motivates students to learn new words.

## V. Comprehension

The goal of reading is comprehension, making meaning of the text. Teachers often confuse *assessing* comprehension (asking questions after a reading) and *teaching* comprehension skills. In Chapter 11, you will learn how to teach comprehension skills to young students, in grades K–2, and in Chapter 12, comprehension strategies appropriate for grades 3–6 will be presented.

## THE COMPONENTS OF READING ARE INTERWOVEN

Though the critical components of reading are separated in this text to teach you the elements of each component, in the classroom they are interwoven. You may emphasize selected components in certain lessons, but to read well, the components work together. Hollis Scarborough (2001) compared the components of reading to the strands of a rope. Individually, the strands are weak, but when woven tightly together, the strands become a strong rope. Figure 2.4 below displays the separate components of reading and illustrates how they need to be woven together.<sup>7</sup> The concept of the reading rope will be referred to throughout the text.

**The Many Strands that Are Woven into Skilled Reading**  
(Scarborough, 2001)

### LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE  
(facts, concepts, etc.)

VOCABULARY  
(breadth, precision, links, etc.)

LANGUAGE STRUCTURES  
(syntax, semantics, etc.)

VERBAL REASONING  
(inference, metaphor, etc.)

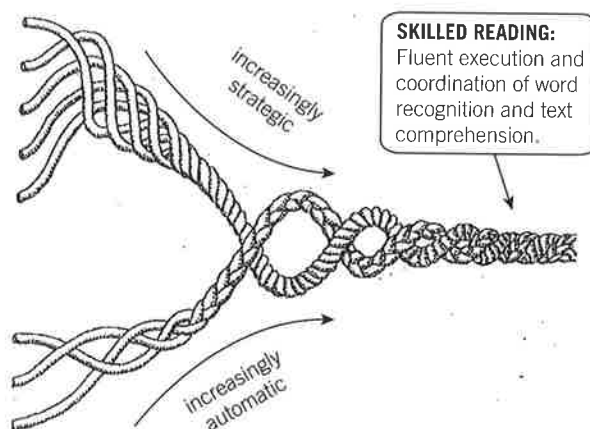
LITERACY KNOWLEDGE  
(print concepts, genres, etc.)

### WORD RECOGNITION

PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS  
(syllables, phonemes, etc.)

DECODING (alphabetic principle,  
spelling-sound correspondences)

SIGHT RECOGNITION  
(of familiar words)



**Figure 2.4.** Scarborough rope. (Republished by permission of Guilford Press, from Scarborough, H. [2001]. Connecting early language and literacy to later reading disabilities: Evidence, theory, and practice. In S.B. Neiman & D.K. Dickinson [Eds.], *Handbook of early literacy research* [pp. 97–110]; permission conveyed through Copyright Clearance Center, Inc.)

## FEATURES OF EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION

When you are teaching, you will often wonder why students did not learn a concept because you know you taught it to them. “Why didn’t they do better on the test? I taught them that!” are comments often heard in faculty lounges. Obviously, you thought you taught the students the concepts, but the teaching did not “stick”—the students did not learn the concept well enough to remember it and generalize it to other contexts, such as tests. The following five features of effective instruction provide a guide to improve your teaching. If you include these features in every lesson you teach, your students will retain more. These features will be referred to throughout this text.<sup>8</sup>

### I. Explicit Instruction with Modeling

When teaching, instructors must be clear about what they are sharing with their students so that the students understand exactly what the instructors are saying and what they expect of the students. Think about a time when you were learning something new. Were you ever confused? Have you ever given up on a new task out of frustration?

When instructors teach in a confusing way, students often give up in frustration. It is not their fault that they do not “get it”—it is the instructor’s responsibility, as the teacher, to present the material in a way students can understand.

Explicit instruction involves modeling exactly what is required of your students. They are shown how to do it, whether it is differentiating sounds or decoding words. Each step is modeled, checking frequently to determine if the students understand what is being modeled.

Concepts are explained in ways that are concrete and visible; this has been referred to as “making the invisible, visible.” Many examples and consistent directions and wording are necessary.

This part of instruction is sometimes referred to as “I do it”—meaning you, the teacher, are doing the task you expect students to do. During this part of the instruction, teachers use clear language, visual aids, and concrete objects that help make the point. Students are actively engaged. Note examples of explicit instruction with modeling throughout this text.

### II. Systematic Instruction with Scaffolding

This feature of effective instruction refers to the organization of the instruction, the sequence in which you present the new content. The goal is to clarify the instruction and to provide the necessary prerequisite skills so that the students can learn the new information. To do this, teachers are thoughtful in their planning and move from easier, more concrete skills to more difficult, more abstract skills. Each task is broken down into a series of little tasks, called task analysis. Think about brushing your teeth! There are 25 small skills to learn that lead up to finally being able to brush your teeth!<sup>9</sup>

When reading is taught, it is required to first teach letter names and sounds, then small decodable words, and finally multisyllabic words. Students are not expected to pick up a book and start reading as soon as they turn 5 years old! While some students do seem to learn to read “on their own,” the majority of students need excellent instruction from a knowledgeable teacher to learn to read.

Scaffolding is an important concept in teaching. Think of a scaffold that surrounds a building being painted. It is a series of wooden platforms that are removed once the painting is done. Those platforms provide temporary support for the painters to stand on while they paint the building.

An instructional scaffold is temporary support to help a student until the student can complete the task independently. You, the teacher, provide enough instructional support to

permit the student to make progress toward the academic goal, but only when the student needs the support. Once the student can perform independently, the scaffold is removed.

Examples of instructional scaffolds that you will note in this text are additional modeling, providing more examples, breaking the task down into smaller parts, providing part of the answer, reinforcing an easier skill, using physical movements to reinforce a skill, providing additional practice, and providing instruction in a small group or one-on-one. There are many other ways to scaffold instruction.

This part of the lesson is often referred to as “we do” as you, the teacher, are modeling the skill and the students are following your model, working with you.

### III. Frequent Opportunities for Practice

To truly learn something well enough to use the information, students need to practice the new skill. This part of the lesson is often referred to as “you do,” or the time students practice the skill independently. Some students need more practice than others. Providing sufficient opportunities for practice that students require is a challenging task for the teacher.

Throughout this text, you will note numerous examples of how to provide additional practice for students. You will *not* see the use of rote worksheets. Rather, students will engage in active, engaging, and meaningful activities to practice their new skills.

Two ways to increase opportunities for practice are to maximize student participation and to increase the number of student responses.

#### *Maximize Student Participation*

When a teacher maximizes student participation, there are more opportunities for the student to practice the new skill. Incidentally, when students are participating, there are fewer behavior problems. When students participate and are reinforced for participating, they tend to continue to participate, especially when you have scaffolded the instruction so that the students are confident they will succeed.

Envision a typical classroom. The teacher asks a question and hands go up. One student answers the question. What are the other students doing? They typically tune out the answer, are disappointed they were not called on, or are relieved that they were not called on because they had no idea of the answer. The teacher does not know which students know the information. Contrast that scene with this scenario. All students have a wipe-off white board. The teacher poses a question: “Write the beginning sound of the word moon. Mmmmoon.” All students write the letter *m* on their white board and hold it up. The teacher can glance around the room and immediately see who knew the answer and who needs more help.

Another technique is to have the students use a pinch paper. A piece of paper is folded in two. The students write the numbers 1 and 2 on the paper. The teacher reviews vocabulary words, asking the students to pinch the 1 if the word is used correctly in the first sentence and to pinch the 2 if the word is used correctly in the second sentence. For example, the word is hubris, and the sentences are

1. Mother Theresa exhibited much hubris when she worked with the poor.
2. Politicians have a lot of hubris when they say they can save the world.

The students pick #2, the correct use of the word hubris (hubris refers to overly excessive pride, arrogance, something Mother Theresa did not exhibit but some politicians may). Again, all students are involved and responding.

#### *Increase the Number of Student Responses*

There are many ways to increase student responses. One thought to keep in mind is the 3:1 rule: For every three statements a teacher makes, the students respond at least once.<sup>10</sup> For

example, the teacher says, "Today we are going to learn about the letter *m*. What letter?" Students: "M!" Teacher: "Yes, *m*. The letter *m* makes the sound /m/. What sound?" Students: "/m/." Teacher, "Yes, /m/. If I say some words that start with /m/, you say /m/. If the word does not start with /m/, shake your head no. First word: moon." Students: "/m/." Next word: tree. Students shake their heads no. The lesson continues. This example is for young students learning their letter sounds. The same principle can be applied to all instruction. As you read this text, look for ways to increase student participation. You will find many examples!

#### IV. Immediate Corrective Feedback

Providing feedback to students is essential for efficient and accurate learning. You do not want students guessing or practicing incorrect responses. It does not hurt students' feelings or inhibit their learning when they are corrected objectively and kindly. It is worse for the students to be allowed to continue making mistakes and then be embarrassed by those mistakes. Imagine the frustration of a sixth-grade student still writing *wen* for *when* or *sed* for *said* merely because a teacher, probably with good intentions, did not want to "inhibit his or her writing" by correcting his or her spelling mistakes. However, it is important to know when and how to provide corrective feedback and when you can expect students to know certain skills.

Teachers need to inform students if they are correct or not and explain why. This can be done indirectly, such as providing a minilesson to several students on how to spell irregular words, such as *was* and *said*. The targeted student may be provided more opportunities to practice.

Another way is to have the entire class repeat the correct answer. In the example used earlier, when students were asked to identify the beginning sound of *moon*, pretend a couple of students said /n/ instead of /m/. The teacher can state the correct answer very explicitly, demonstrating to all students how her lips form to say /m/. All students repeat the sound. The teacher calls on a few students to say the sound aloud while the others whisper the sound. The targeted students receive extra practice.

It is important to correct errors before the student repeats the errors, making learning the correct responses even more difficult for students.

In addition to correcting students' mistakes, accurate performance must be acknowledged and praised. The more specific the feedback, the more likely the student will continue with that practice. For example, when a student has learned the sounds for /i/ and /ě/, the teacher may say, "You know how to read words with the vowel sounds /i/ as in *bit* and /ě/ as in *met*. Knowing the most common sounds for *e* and *i* will enable you to read more and more words. Good job!"

#### V. Ongoing Progress Monitoring

Teachers must be aware of where their students are in the learning process. It is easy to assume students are learning what you present, and sometimes students can fool us! For example, some students memorize a story after hearing it read aloud just once and can "read" it verbatim while not actually decoding any of the words.

It is crucial that teachers determine when a student is struggling to learn a new skill so that the student can receive additional, more targeted instruction immediately. It is important not to wait until the student fails before intervention instruction is provided. Therefore, teachers must check their students' understanding often.

The best way to do this is by administering quick, short assessments, frequently. When students are struggling, their progress should be assessed every week or two. Typically, these assessments take about 1 minute. You can use standardized, published assessments such as those provided by DIBELS,<sup>11</sup> AIMSweb,<sup>12</sup> TPRI, or Tejas LEE.<sup>13</sup> You can also create informal assessments based upon what you are teaching (curriculum-based assessments). For example,

you can present a short list of words in a certain pattern and ask the student to read the words. Let us pretend that you noticed a student confuses short /i/ and /e/. You reteach both sounds (separate the teaching of the different sounds by 2–3 weeks), then you assess whether or not the student can correctly read words with /i/ and /e/. On a note card, you write *met, mit, bet, bif* (the words do not have to be real words because you are assessing whether or not the student understands the patterns). If the student does well, check again in a couple of days. If the student continues to demonstrate mastery of the targeted sounds, you do not have to do the progress monitoring again, though you continue to observe the student to ensure he or she does indeed know those sounds in various contexts.

One of the easiest, most effective, and most reliable ways to assess progress in reading instruction is to conduct a fluency assessment. Typically, during the second semester of first grade, you can start assessing students by asking them to read a first grade passage for 1 minute. Compute how many words per minute the student reads correctly. By the end of first grade, students should be reading 50 to 60 words correctly per minute. First grade students gain about two or three words per week, so you can compute how many words your targeted students should be reading each week to read 60 words per minute by the end of first grade. This process will be explained in detail in Chapter 7 on fluency instruction.

Each chapter in this text presents methods to assess the progress of your students in each of the essential components of literacy instruction. You will be expected to administer progress monitoring assessments while tutoring your student. You will learn how to set goals, chart progress, and work with your student to ensure the goals are met. You will be surprised by how assessing and charting student progress helps you plan your instruction while motivating students to work hard to reach their goals.

Let us look at how the critical components of reading instruction and features of effective instruction can be integrated. Table 2.1 gives brief examples of each critical component and how it can be taught, applying the features of effective instruction. More examples are provided throughout the text.

### **Tutoring Component**

By now, working with an instructor, you have selected a student with whom to work this semester. You have gathered the required materials for your tutoring toolbox.

At your first meeting with your student, it is important to establish rapport. Explain that you are learning to teach and appreciate that he or she is willing to help you learn to be a good teacher. Ask about the student's interests, what he or she enjoys reading, and what he or she enjoys doing when not in school.

From a selection of fiction and expository books you bring to the tutoring session or that the student's teacher recommends, ask the student to select one for you to read aloud. You proceed to read the book (or part of it) with prosody. Quickly explain vocabulary words the student may not know. At this point, you are modeling how to enjoy the book while getting to know the student.

Ask the student to select a book to read to you. Provide assistance as necessary. If the student is reluctant to read or clearly struggles, do not insist that the student continue. Rather, you can finish that part of the text.

If your instructor has taught you how to administer a basic reading assessment, you may administer it with your student. One research-based assessment that is available to download at no cost is the DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills) in English and the IDEL (Indicadores Dinámicos del Éxito en la Lectura) in Spanish, grades K–6. Be sure to study the administration guide and watch the videos provided online. The DIBELS is available at <https://dibels.uoregon.edu/>. Another assessment available at no cost is the San Diego Quick Assessment found at <http://www.homeschooling.gomilpitas.com/articles/060899.htm>.

**Table 2.1.** Features of effective instruction and the critical components of reading instruction: A powerful combination

	Phonemic awareness	Phonics	Fluency
Systematic instruction with scaffolding	Listen: The word is <i>cat</i> . The first sound is /c/. What sound?	The sound /c/ is written like this (write letter). The letter name is <i>c</i> . The sound is /c/.	This is a period. It is like a stop sign. When you see a period, you stop reading as it is the end of the sentence. Let us find all the periods on this page and mark them with the highlighter.
Explicit instruction with modeling	Let us substitute the first sound with another sound. My turn. The word is <i>cat</i> . Take away /c/ and put /s/ at the beginning. The new word is <i>sat</i> . Your turn.	I am going to read this word as I know all the sounds. /c/ /a/ /t/. <i>Cat</i> . Let us read it together.	Listen while I read this story two ways. Tell me which one you like better? (Read dysfluently and then fluently, using expression. Discuss why one was more interesting.)
Opportunities for practice: active engagement	Let us sing "My Bonnie." When you hear /b/, stand up!	Here is a list of words you know. With a partner, practice reading them.	I will read a sentence fluently. Then, you read the same sentence. Go practice with your partner.
Feedback	The sound is /b/. What sound? Say "Bonnie." What sound does Bonnie start with? Yes, /b/. Stand up!	The sound of this letter is /c/. You said the name, <i>c</i> . What letter? Yes, <i>c</i> . What sound? Yes, /c/. You have got it!	Yes! You read with expression. You paused at the periods. You did not read too fast or too slowly. You read just right!
Progress monitoring	(In small groups of two to three students, assess their ability to identify the initial sounds of words.)	(Given a list of letters taught, have students read the name and provide the sounds.)	(Have students read for 1 minute, aloud. Count the number of words read correctly and graph.)
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	
Systematic instruction with scaffolding	The word is <i>timid</i> . What word? It means to be shy and tentative. (Look timid.) I am timid when I enter a room where I do not know anyone. A kitten is timid around dogs.	Listen while I read an article. I am going to determine who or what the article is about. (Usually, the who or what is the person or object that is mentioned most often.)	
Explicit instruction with modeling	Think of a time when you felt timid. I was timid the first day I taught. Complete this sentence: I was timid.... (Elicit examples.)	When I read, I ask myself questions to help me understand. Listen while I "think aloud" and share my thoughts with you. (Proceed to model, asking questions such as, "I wonder why the character did that?" "I think I missed something—I am going to reread that paragraph.")	
Opportunities for practice—student engagement	I am going to give you examples and nonexamples of timid. When you hear an example of timid, say "timid"! When it is a nonexample, shake your head no.  Listen: The new student was timid the first day of school. Yes! Timid! The big dog was timid when he jumped all over me. No, not timid. The dog was not shy or tentative.	With a partner, read this article and think aloud your thoughts as you read. Take turns.	
Feedback	Some of you thought the dog was timid. Imagine a dog running up to you and licking your face. Is that dog afraid of you? Is he uncomfortable? No, he is not timid.	Let us share some of your think alouds. (Rephrase the comments if necessary. Note which students were able to apply the strategy and which need more instruction and practice.)	
Progress monitoring	(Ask students to use the new vocabulary words while speaking and writing. Create a "Word Wizards" board, and put student names under the word when they use it correctly.)	(In small groups, ask students to think aloud while reading aloud. Note their comments. Give them a short quiz on the content to determine if they comprehend the reading selection.)	

Many districts use the Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI), Tejas LEE (Spanish version), or AIMS Web. You will need to ask someone at your student's school to obtain these and to teach you how to use the assessments.<sup>13</sup>

Some districts use assessments they have designed to reflect what their students are being taught. These are called curriculum-based assessments or benchmark assessments. These may be available for you to administer or to analyze if already administered.

The Quick Phonics Screener<sup>14</sup> can be used with students who have begun to learn how to read to determine exactly what skills they need to learn.

You will learn more about how to assess each critical component of reading when you study that component. You will learn how accurate and frequent assessment data are used to help design instruction, making you an efficient and effective teacher while motivating your students to achieve.

## APPLICATION ASSIGNMENTS

### In-Class Assignments

1. With your classmates, discuss what you noted while observing a reading class. Make a list of the activities observed and the presumed objectives of each. Discuss how the teacher differentiated instruction for students.
2. Form expert groups for each of the five components, and discuss the main ideas of what you read in Chapter 2 and in *Put Reading First*<sup>15</sup> (i.e., phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension). Then, separate into groups that contain an expert for each component. Share your new learning, and create a list of questions, comments, and concerns to share with the entire class.
3. Reflect upon the lesson format of "I do, we do, you do." Did the teacher you observed follow this format? What did the teacher do for the "I do" component, the "we do" component, and the "you do" component?

### Tutoring Assignments

1. Meet with your student to establish rapport and ascertain interests.
2. As suggested in this chapter, read a book to your student, and ask the student to read to you.
3. If you have the permission of the school and you have been trained in its administration, give an early reading assessment (as described earlier in this chapter).

### Homework Assignments

1. Explore one of the following web sites, and read about the critical components of reading instruction: Reading Rockets: <http://www.readingrockets.org>; Florida Center for Reading Research: <http://www.fcrr.org>; The University of Oregon, Big Ideas in Beginning Reading: <http://reading.uoregon.edu/>
2. Read Chapter 3 in this text and one additional reading from the resources provided.

## ENDNOTES

1. Adams (1994).
2. Chall (1996).
3. Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998).
4. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000).
5. Brady 2011.
6. Denton and Mathes (2003); Mathes, Denton, Fletcher, Anthony, Francis, and Schatschneider (2005); Burns, Griffin, and Snow (1999).
7. Scarborough (2001).
8. Meadows Center for Preventing Education Risk (2007).