

# Systematic, Explicit Beginning Reading Instruction Inventory of Essential Knowledge and Skills

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The *Inventory* compiles some of the most important scientifically-based research on reading. Sources are at the end. The *Inventory* can be used by states, districts, schools, colleges of education, organizations offering alternative certification, and individual teachers--to plan and evaluate professional development in reading. Items address either (1) **cognitive knowledge** (definitions, principles, reasoning) revealed by teachers' descriptions, discussions, or explanations; or (2) **practical knowledge** revealed in teaching and assessment activities. Persons using the *Inventory* need to develop questions to ask and activities to observe relevant to the items.

The scale on the right-hand column, below, provides four choices for rating a teacher's knowledge on each item. These four choices are as follows—using phonemic awareness as an example.

- (4) Highly competent/Highly satisfactory. *Cognitive knowledge is comprehensive, detailed, and accurate; practical knowledge is highly technically proficient. Virtually no improvement is needed.*

For example, regarding **cognitive** knowledge, a teacher (a) states a definition of phonemic awareness that includes all important features; (b) states how phonemic awareness predicts future reading achievement and explains how this is so; (c) describes fully six or more forms of phonemic awareness (e.g., sound and word discrimination, segmenting, blending, rhyming, phoneme deletion) and compares and contrasts these by identifying the elementary knowledge required by children to use each one.

Regarding **practical** knowledge, a teacher (a) states several concrete and valid objectives regarding instruction in phonemic awareness; (b) presents steps in a general strategy for teaching (for example) onset-rime and justifies each step; (c) enacts the strategy, revealing fluent skill at clearly communicating information and instructions, modeling, prompting, error correction, timely reinforcement, and group and individual tests of acquisition.

- (3) Competent/Satisfactory. *Cognitive knowledge is broad, somewhat detailed, and generally accurate, but has some gaps and/or important details are needed. Practical knowledge is technically proficient but some weaknesses need to be remedied.*

For example, regarding **cognitive** knowledge, a teacher (a) states a definition of phonemic awareness that includes some main features but leaves out several other features to complete the definition; (b) states that phonemic awareness predicts future reading achievement but provides little information on how this is so; (c) describes two or three forms of phonemic awareness (e.g., sound and word discrimination, segmenting), but not in full detail; and (d) compares and contrasts these by identifying the elementary knowledge required by children to use each one.

Regarding **practical** knowledge, a teacher (a) states several concrete objectives regarding instruction in phonemic awareness, but these are not sufficiently concrete or clear; (b) presents most steps in a general strategy for teaching (for example) onset-rime and justifies each step; (c) enacts the strategy, revealing skill at clearly communicating information and instructions, modeling, prompting, error correction, timely reinforcement, and group and individual tests of acquisition, but the teacher's performance is not quite fluent and involves more than a few minor errors.

- (2) Marginally competent/Unsatisfactory. *Cognitive knowledge contains some main ideas but has many gaps and is superficial. Practical knowledge is barely technically proficient; it contains several of the right elements but has many weaknesses and/or errors.*

For example, regarding **cognitive** knowledge, a teacher (a) states a definition of phonemic awareness that includes a only few main features and leaves out most features needed to complete the definition; (b) states that phonemic awareness predicts future reading achievement but gives an erroneous explanation of how this is so; (c) describes two or three forms of phonemic awareness that are incorrect in important details.

Regarding **practical** knowledge, a teacher (a) states an objective regarding instruction in phonemic awareness, but the objective is not sufficiently concrete; (b) presents few steps in a general strategy for teaching (for example) onset-rime and does not justify the steps; (c) enacts the strategy, but often fails to communicate information and instructions clearly or adequately to provide modeling, prompting, error correction, timely reinforcement, and group and individual tests of acquisition.

(1) Not competent/Highly Unsatisfactory. *Cognitive knowledge is narrow, superficial, and/or contains many errors. Practical knowledge is virtually absent.*

For example, regarding **cognitive** knowledge, a teacher (a) states a definition of phonemic awareness that is either wrong or identifies almost no features; (b) does not state that phonemic awareness predicts future reading achievement; (c) describes two or three forms of phonemic awareness but the descriptions are incorrect in important details.

Regarding **practical** knowledge, the teacher (a) states an objective regarding instruction in phonemic awareness but the objective is really not relevant to that skill; (b) presents few steps in a general strategy for teaching (for example) onset-rime but these steps generally are improper; (c) enacts the strategy, but generally fails to communicate information and instructions clearly or adequately to provide modeling, prompting, error correction, timely reinforcement, and group and individual tests of acquisition

The Inventory is divided into sections. These are (A) The reading problem in America; (B) Language; (C) Curriculum design; (D) Systematic, explicit reading instruction; and (E) Classroom techniques of systematic, explicit instruction.

Each item below completes the statement, "**The teacher...**" [Brackets identify essential features of the knowledge or performance relevant to an item, and sometimes resources relevant to and/or the authors of an item.]

## A. The Reading Problem in America

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| A1. Cites major findings regarding:<br>(1) The relationship between social class and reading achievement.<br>(2) The relationship between early reading achievement and later reading achievement.<br>(3) The likelihood that reading difficulties will be remedied depending on children's grade level. [See Felton & Pepper, 1995; Foorman <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Good, Simmons, and Smith, 1998; IDEA, 2002-2003; Juel, 1988; Torgesen, 1998] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| A2. Identifies and discusses the implications for instruction of research findings on factors affecting reading achievement and reading difficulties. [See Felton & Pepper, 1995; Foorman <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Good, Simmons, & Smith, 1998; Torgesen, 1998; <a href="http://reading.uoregon.edu/instructional/trial_instruc_index.php">http://reading.uoregon.edu/instructional/trial_instruc_index.php</a> ]                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| A3. Identifies main features of scientifically based reading research. Discusses how these features increase the effectiveness and validity of reading curricula and reading assessments and why these features should be used in selecting reading curricula and reading assessments.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## B. Language

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| B1. Defines and gives examples of the linguistic units within words. [These units include syllables, phonemes, phones, grammatical endings, vowels, consonants. See Learning First Alliance, 2000; Moats, 1999, 2000]                                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B2. Defines, gives examples, and identifies the differences between (1) phones, phonemes, morphemes, and orthography; and (2) phonology, semantics, grammar, syntax, pragmatics, and text structure. [See Learning First Alliance, 200; Moats, 1999, 2000] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| B3. States the number of consonant phonemes and vowel phonemes there are in English. [25 and 15. See Moats, 1999, 2000]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B4. Recognizes speech substitutions in children’s speech, reading, and spelling. [See Moats, 1999, 2000]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B5. Identifies, matches, and selects examples of words containing specific phonemes. [See Moats, 1999, 2000]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B6. Identifies morphemes in words. For example, the teacher can identify the three morphemes in “extracted.” [See Moats, 1999, 2000]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B7. Selects morphologically related words to teach reading, spelling, and vocabulary. [For example, deceive, receive, conceive; contract, retract, traction, intractable. See Moats, 1999, 2000]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B8. Explains how children’s knowledge of the linguistic units within words assists spelling, vocabulary development, and comprehension. [See Learning First Alliance, 2000; Moats, 1999, 2000]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B9. Defines and identifies in a text (1) concepts; (2) statements that are definitions; (3) statements that are propositions, or rule relationships (categorical relationships and causal relationships); (4) series of propositions that constitute an argument (deductive and inductive) [See Kozloff, 2002; Moats, 1999, 2000] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B10. Defines, gives examples, and identifies in a text antonyms, synonyms, analogies, denotative and connotative meanings. [See Moats, 1999, 2000]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| B11. Maps or outlines and discusses the logical flow of texts of different kinds. [See Moats, 1999, 2000]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## C. Curriculum Design

C1. Describes the three-tiered model of reading, and especially the main features and the uses of core (Tier I) vs. supplementary (Tier II) vs. intervention/intensive (Tier III) curricula and instruction. [See Wanzek & Rodriguez]

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- C2. a. States principles for the logical-progressive sequencing of tasks within a reading skill strand (big idea).  
 b. Identifies examples of a logical-progressive sequencing of reading tasks along a strand or track (big idea) in a **specific** reading curriculum.  
 c. Creates examples of a logical-progressive sequencing of tasks along a reading skill strand or track (big idea).

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[The principles for sequencing tasks are:

- (1) Teach elements before teaching compounds; e.g., teach new sounds before teaching words that contain those new sounds.
- (2) Progress from skills/tasks taught separately (e.g., new vocabulary words on a list) to skills/tasks taught as part of more complex tasks (e.g., students read text containing the new vocabulary words).
- (3) Progress from skills/tasks that have **more general** application (e.g., the sounding out strategy) to skills/tasks that have **less general** application (e.g., memorizing words or using syntax as a cue).
- (4) Progress from tasks that have more immediate utility (e.g., letter-sound correspondence for a, m, s, e, d) to tasks that are useful later and in other contexts (e.g., letter-sound correspondence for g and ing.) See IDEA, 2002-2003; Simmons & Kame'enui, 2003]

C3. Writes instructional objectives in the form of **do-statements**; i.e., what students actually do--not what they “know,” “appreciate,” “understand,” or “demonstrate.” The instructional objectives specify both the task situation and student’s behavior. For example,

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| <p>[Task situation] When the teacher models how to rhyme mmm/at, hhh/at, fff/at, and the teacher says, “Your turn. Make a rhyme with at. Start with fff...”</p> <p>[Students do] Say fff/at within 5 seconds of the teacher’s signal (e.g., ”Go.”).</p>  |                |
| <p>C4. Explains why it is important to have several objectives (in the form of do-statements) for each unit of knowledge that is taught.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>C5. Creates a set of objectives (in the form of do-statements) for the same unit of knowledge. [For example, when the teacher gives a verbal definition of metaphor, followed by examples and nonexamples of metaphors, students: (1) say the definition; (2) label examples and nonexamples of metaphors; (3) identify examples of metaphors in a text; (4) distinguish between metaphors and (previously taught) similes in a text; and finally (5) create metaphors.]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>C6. Explains and gives examples of how a set of objectives for a unit of knowledge (e.g., onsets and rimes as part of instruction on phonemic awareness) is used both to (1) plan the instruction, and (2) determine how to assess students’ learning.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>C7. Describes the different phases of skill mastery: (1) acquisition, or initial instruction; (2) fluency-building; (3) generalization; (4) retention; (5) independence). Cites: (1) the main objectives of each phase and (2) the major instructional methods for achieving the objectives. [See Kame’enui &amp; Simmons, 1990]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>C8. Examines a core reading curriculum and discusses its strengths and weaknesses (and suggests specific improvements) with respect to the following features:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Big ideas around which instruction is organized. For example, “We always try <b>first</b> to sound out new words.”</li> <li>b. Inclusion of all of the important knowledge/skill strands.</li> <li>c. Logical-progressive sequencing of knowledge units worked on; e.g., there are no gaps; earlier lessons provide all of the skills needed to achieve the objectives in later lessons; the more general and higher-utility skills and concepts are taught prior to less general and low-utility ones (e.g., letter-sound relationships for a, m, s, and d are taught before</li> </ul> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

g, p, ing.); elements or parts of complex skills (e.g., pronunciation, sound-symbol relationships) are taught before the complex skills (e.g., sounding out words) are introduced.

- d. Exercises in lessons present a range of examples that covers the range of likely applications. For example, when sound-symbol relationships are taught, the same letter is presented in different fonts, colors, positions on the page and positions in words.
- e. Skills taught in earlier exercises or tasks in a lesson are strategically integrated into larger wholes later in the same lesson.
- f. Skills taught in earlier lessons are strategically integrated into larger wholes in later lessons. For example, the curriculum introduces reading of passages soon after students can accurately read a sufficient number of words.
- g. In scripted lessons, the teacher's communications to students are to the point (focused solely on the objectives and do not contain excess information) and use words whose meanings have already been taught.
- h. Initial instruction on a new unit of knowledge (e.g., how to sound out words) is explicit; i.e., the teacher clearly models the behavior, states the rules she is using, uses signals (e.g., pointing to ensure student attention to the letters the teacher is saying).
- i. Students' acquisition of new knowledge (e.g., after the reading group has worked on sounding out four words) is immediately tested.
- j. The curriculum provides sufficient guided practice on new knowledge units to firm skills and to foster fluency, or automaticity.
- k. The curriculum systematically introduces new examples and opportunities to apply previously taught knowledge units to foster and to assess generalization. For example, after students can sound out words using the letters a, s, m, r, d, e, f (sam, man, am, red), the curriculum introduces mad, fad, fed, and ram. And the teacher provides multiple opportunities for students to use the new vocabulary.
- l. The curriculum systematically works on fluency (accuracy plus speed).
- m. The curriculum is organized around cumulative review to foster retention, and around cumulative testing to assess retention.
- n. The curriculum introduces a learnable amount of new material each lesson—not so much that the lesson cannot be completed in the allotted time or that students are not firm on what was taught. [See Oregon Reading First Center, 2003; Simmons & Kame'enui, 2003]

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| <p>C9. States the rationale for using signals (e.g., hand gestures, pointing) during instruction; e.g., to communicate “look here” and “your turn.”<br/> [ Signals:<br/> (1) Sustain group and individual focus.<br/> (2) Ensure that students are focused on the right events; e.g., letters on a page, the teacher’s mouth.<br/> (3) Ensure a quick transition from information presented by the teacher (“This sound is mmm.”) to students applying the knowledge (“What sound?...”).<br/> (4) Help students to follow directions.<br/> (5) Help students to respond together, and to think of an answer by themselves and not follow a leader.<br/> (6) Provide a familiar routine that builds security.<br/> (7) Enable the teacher to sustain a brisk pace so that more is learned.]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>C10. States the rationale for using prompts that are added to examples; e.g., the difference between b and d is highlighted by a different shape in the oval segment.<br/> [Prompts help make relevant features more obvious.]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;"><b>D. Systematic, Explicit Reading Instruction</b></p> <p>Important resources are listed at the end of the document. Especially important resources include the following.</p> <p>Adams, M.J. (1990). <i>Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print</i>. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.</p> <p>Beck, I.L., &amp; Juel, C. (1995). The role of decoding in learning to read. <i>American Educator</i>, 19, 2, 21-42.</p> <p>Carnine, D.W., Silbert, J., &amp; Kame’enui, E.J. (1997). <i>Direct instruction reading</i> (Third edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.</p> <p>Ehri, L. (2002). Phases of acquisition in learning to read words and implications for teaching. In R. Stainthorp and P. Tomlinson (Eds.) <i>Learning and teaching reading</i>. London: British Journal of Educational Psychology Monograph Series II.</p> |                |

Ellis, E.S., & Worthington, L.A. (1994). *Research Synthesis on Effective Teaching Principles and the Design of Quality Tools for Educators*.  
 On-line at <http://idea.uoregon.edu/~ncite/documents/techrep/tech05.pdf>

Høien, T., Lundberg, I., Stanovich, K.E., & Bjaalid, I-K. (1995). Components of phonological awareness. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 2, 127-160.

Institute for the Development of Educational Achievement (IDEA) (2002-2003). *Big ideas in beginning reading*. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon. <http://reading.uoregon.edu/>

Kame'enui et al., (2002). *Analysis of reading assessment instrument K-3; Summary of assessment committee decisions Grade level by type of measure*.  
[http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/analysis\\_results/assess\\_results\\_grade.html](http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/analysis_results/assess_results_grade.html)

Kame'enui et al. (2002). *Four kinds of reading assessments*.  
[http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/assessment\\_pres.pdf](http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/assessment_pres.pdf)

Kame'enui et al., (2002). *Analysis of reading assessment instrument K-3: Analysis of individual reading assessment instruments*.  
[http://idea.uoregon.edu/assessment/analysis\\_results/assess\\_results\\_by\\_test.html](http://idea.uoregon.edu/assessment/analysis_results/assess_results_by_test.html)

Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1992). The use of scaffolds for teaching higher-order cognitive strategies. *Educational Leadership*, 49 (7), 26-33.

Rosenshine, B., & Stevens, R. (1986). Teaching functions. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (Third edition) (pp. 376-391). New York: McMillan.

Torgesen, J.K., & Bryant, B.R. (1994). *Phonological awareness training for reading*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Wolf, M., Miller, L., & Donnelly, K. (2000). Retrieval, automaticity, vocabulary elaboration, orthography (Rave-O): A comprehensive fluency-based reading intervention program. *Journal Learning Disabilities*, 33, 375-397.

### Scientifically-based Conception of Reading

- D1. Defines and gives examples of the five big ideas, or skills, in beginning reading.
- D2. Discusses how the five big ideas, or skills, in beginning reading work together and in a cumulative way to yield competent reading (accurate, fast, and with comprehension and enjoyment).

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| <p>D3. Explains the connection between (1) basic reading skills (e.g., phonemic awareness, sound-symbol relationships, decoding, fluency) taught (well or poorly) in early elementary school; and (2) reading fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension in later grades. [From Moats, 1999, 2000. Early reading skills are part of the set of tools used to comprehend text. If students read accurately and quickly, they are able to work on the meaning of a text. If they read inaccurately (say the wrong words) and slowly, their attention is focused on what words say rather than what they mean; they acquire less vocabulary; and, with continued frustration, students pay less attention.]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D4. Identifies the main features of systematic, explicit instruction. Discusses how these features increase the effectiveness of instruction generally and especially for students with diverse learning needs.</p> <p>[<i>Systematic</i> means that instruction involves (1) a planned, logically progressive sequence of knowledge units (e.g., certain sounds are taught before other sounds); (2) clearly defined objectives (stated in terms of what students will do) for each knowledge unit; (3) focusing instruction (communication) on the knowledge units; (4) planned distribution of practice to build fluency and retention; (5) planned work on new examples (e.g., words, text) to foster application or generalization of previously taught knowledge; (6) assessments designed and used in a timely fashion to monitor acquisition, fluency, generalization, retention, and independence.</p> <p><i>Explicit</i> means that the teacher (1) reveals the concepts and rules she is using through modeling and running commentary to students. For example, “I’ll show you how to sound out this word. Listen. I do NOT stop between the sounds.”; (2) ensures student attention to important features of an example or presentation. “Look [points to the word ate] there is a vowel, then a consonant, and then an e at the end [name]. So, we do NOT say the e at the end.”]</p> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D5. Discusses the features of scientific reading research—features that must be considered when selecting curricula, assessment instruments, and teaching methods.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

## Big Idea 1. Phonemic Awareness

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| <p>D6. Defines and gives examples of phone, phonemic awareness, phonics, phonological awareness, continuous sound, onset-rime, segmentation.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D7. Describes the features of effective phonemic awareness instruction; for example, which sorts of phonemic awareness tasks are best worked on first and which later? Which should be worked on first: continuous or stop sounds; larger vs. smaller linguistic units; initial, medial, or final sounds? When should work on letter-sound correspondence be added to phonemic awareness instruction? [See Armbruster, Lehr, &amp; Osborn, 2001; Learning First Alliance, 2000; Smith, Simmons, &amp; Kame’enui, 1988]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D8. Gives examples of at least five phonemic awareness skills.<br/>[For example, (1) sound and word discrimination (“What word doesn’t belong with the others?”); (2) rhyming (“What word rhymes with mat?”); (3) syllable splitting (The onset of mat is /m/ and the rime is /at); (4) blending (“What word is made up of /m/ /a/ /t/?”); (5) phonemic segmentation (“What are the sounds in man?”); (6) phoneme deletion (“What is sit without the /s/?”); (7) phoneme manipulation (“what word would you have if you changed the /k/ in cat to /r/?”) See <a href="http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_sequence_2.php">http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_sequence_2.php</a>]</p> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D9. Describes a developmental continuum for sequencing phonemic awareness skills for kindergarten and first grade.<br/>[See <a href="http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_sequence.php">http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_sequence.php</a>;<br/><a href="http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_cm_k.php">http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_cm_k.php</a>;<br/><a href="http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_cm_1.php">http://reading.uoregon.edu/pa/pa_cm_1.php</a>]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D10. Discusses how skill at segmenting and blending facilitates children learning the strategy for decoding words.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D11. Explains why it is better for teachers to focus on two or three phonemic awareness skills than to focus on many.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

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| D12. Discusses how much time in a reading lesson should focus on phonemic awareness skills.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D13. Teaches phonemic awareness skills: (1) proficiently using the formats specified in the school’s curriculum; (2) testing immediately whether students are learning the phonemic awareness skill being taught (“Your turn to rhyme with at.”); (3) using an effective correction format, and immediately correcting students’ errors in the phonemic awareness skill being taught (“Listen. rrrrat. Say it with me....”).   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D14. Selects core (tier 1), supplemental (tier 2), and intervention (tier 3) phonemic awareness materials and gives a rationale for the selection using principles of sbrr.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D15. Assesses students’ phonemic awareness: (1) using validated assessment instruments for screening, diagnosis, progress monitoring, and outcome; (2) using proper assessment protocols and methods; (3) stating the implications of assessment data for judging the curriculum used, the quality of instruction provided by the teacher, and students’ strengths and needs; (4) planning improvements in curriculum, in the quality of teaching, and/or in phonemic awareness instruction provided to students based on assessment data. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| <b>Big Idea 2. Alphabetic Principle: Letter-sound Correspondence and Decoding</b>  |   |   |   |   |
| <b>Scientifically-based Reading</b>  |   |   |   |   |
| D16. Lists major findings from scientifically based reading research on the benefits of teaching letter-sound correspondence and decoding (phonics) vs. the disadvantages of not doing so (e.g., findings cited in the report of the National Reading Panel).  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D17. Explains why decoding, in contrast to memorization or guessing from context cues, is an essential and primary means of recognizing words. [See IDEA, 2002-2003]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D18. Defines decodable text, decoding, nonsense or pseudowords, phonological recoding, regular word, irregular word, grapheme, letter combination, letter-sound correspondence, orthography, sight word reading, sounding out, continuous sound, stop sound, VCe pattern.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| [See Moats, 1999, 2000; IDEA, 2002-2003]  |   |   |   |   |
| D19. Lists the features of <i>systematic</i> instruction. Explains how systematic instruction is a more effective way to teach letter-sound correspondence and decoding (phonics) than unsystematic or no phonics instruction.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D20. Lists the features of <i>explicit</i> instruction. Explains how explicit instruction is a more effective way to teach letter-sound correspondence and decoding (phonics), in terms of student achievement and teacher assessment of student achievement (e.g., how quickly children acquire the skills, how many and what kinds of errors students make, how readily students generalize skill to new examples). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D21. Explains how systematic, explicit instruction on letter-sound correspondence and decoding begun in kindergarten or first grade is more effective than when it is begun later.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D22. Explains how systematic, explicit instruction on letter-sound correspondence and decoding (phonics) is significantly more effective than less systematic or less explicit instruction in helping to remedy reading difficulties in struggling or disabled readers. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D23. Explains how the skills learned through systematic, explicit instruction on letter-sound correspondence and decoding also help kindergarteners and first graders to spell words.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D24. Explains how certain features of phonics (letter-sound correspondence and decoding) instruction can be more difficult for children who are language learners.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D25. Identifies differences between phonemic awareness and phonics.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D26. Identifies implicit vs. explicit, and synthetic vs. analytic phonics instruction presented (1) in a video or live instruction, and (2) in a curriculum. Explains the differences.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D27. Lists each of the major phonics skills in the order they should be taught k-3, and cites the principles of sequencing. [See IDEA, 2002-2003]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| D28. Describes how teaching phonics would be coordinated effectively with instruction in other reading skills in a lesson.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D29. Listening to a speaker, determines whether the pronunciation of the most common sound associated with a specific vowel or consonant letter is correct.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D30. Listening to a speaker, determines whether the pronunciation of the sound of a common affix is correct.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D31. Listening to a speaker, determines whether the pronunciation of the sound of a common letter combination is correct.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D32. Identifies letters as making continuous sounds vs. stop sounds.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D33. Describes how to design or modify certain features of phonics instruction that are difficult for students who are English language learners.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D34. Describes major steps in remedial decoding instruction for students in second grade or above who struggle with basic decoding skills.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| <b>Letter-sound Correspondence</b>   |   |   |   |   |
| D35. Identifies and discusses principles for designing instruction on letter sound correspondences.<br>[Principles include (1) the use of explicit or conspicuous strategies; (2) separating instruction on letters that are similar auditorily and visually; (3) introducing continuous sounds early; (4) introducing letters with high utility early. See IDEA, 2002-2003] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D36. Describes common errors that children make when learning letter-sound correspondences.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D37. Describes how to correct common errors that children make when learning letter-sound correspondences.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| <p>D38. Teaches letter-sound correspondence: (1) proficiently using the formats specified in the school’s curriculum; (2) testing immediately whether students are learning the phonics skill being taught (“Is this /m/?” Or, “What sound?” [points to letter]); (3) using an effective correction format, and immediately correcting student errors in the phonics skill being taught (“This sound is /m/. What sound?”)</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D39. Selects core (tier 1), supplemental (tier 2), and intervention (tier 3) letter-sound correspondence materials and gives a rationale for selection using principles of sbrr.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D40. Assesses students’ knowledge of letter-sound correspondence: (1) using validated assessment instruments for screening, diagnosis, progress monitoring, and outcome; (2) using proper assessment protocols and methods; (3) stating the implications of assessment data for judging the curriculum used, the quality of instruction provided by the teacher, and students’ strengths and needs; (4) planning improvements in curriculum, in the quality of teaching, and/or in letter-sound correspondence instruction provided to students based on assessment data.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p><b>Sounding Out Words</b></p>   |                |
| <p>D41. Explains why a sounding out strategy (in contrast to “predicting” what a word says from context) is an essential skill and is the highest priority word recognition skill to teach students.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D42. Identifies and discusses principles for designing instruction on sounding out words. [Design principles include: (1) students have the pre-skills of producing each sound in a word and sustaining that sound; (2) students sound out the letter-sound correspondences in their head or silently, and then say the whole word; (3) the teacher models and then has students practice each step; (4) start with short vowel-consonant and consonant-vowel words in which letters represent the most common sounds; (5) progress from 2-3 letter words to longer words; (6) introduce continuous sounds before stop sounds; (7) initially use stop sounds in the final position of words; (8) start with words representing familiar concepts and vocabulary. See IDEA, 2002-2003]</p> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

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| D43. Determines whether a one-syllable word is decodable based on the sound/symbol relationships that the student knows. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D44. Identifies the skill elements students will use in the strategy for sounding out words. [Skill elements include: (1) sounds pronunciation; (2) knowledge of letter-sound correspondence; (3) rules about starting on the left, saying the first sound, scanning to the right and saying the next sound, not stopping between sounds; (4) short term memory of the string of sounds so that the student can say the word the fast way.]                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D45. Identifies the elements of instruction for teaching students the sounding out strategy. [Elements include: (1) principles for sequencing instruction on the elementary skills in the strategy; (2) explicit instruction of the rules and concepts; (3) prompting; (4) modeling; (5) immediate testing; (7) error correction; (8) application/generalization to new words; (9) distributed practice. From BIA RF proposal, 2003. See IDEA, 2002-2003)] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D46. Explains why it is useful for a teacher to know if a student can read nonsense or pseudowords such as gert, plimdork, and nerpaloof. [See Moats, 1999, 2000]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D47. Identifies the kinds of errors students may make when learning how to decode one-syllable regular words, and gives possible reasons for these errors.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D48. Explains why a first-grade reading program should provide familiarity with spelling-sound correspondences and common spelling conventions and their use in identifying printed words. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D49. Discusses why and how phonics instruction can be coordinated with spelling instruction.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D50. Describes how to help beginning readers make the transition from sounding out words vocally to reading words on sight. [See Ehri, 2002]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D51. Teaches the sounding out strategy for one-syllable words: (1) proficiently using the formats specified in the school's curriculum; (2) testing immediately whether students are learning  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| the sounding out strategy (“Your turn. Sound it sound.” [points to word]); (3) using an effective format, and immediately correcting students’ errors in the sounding out strategy (“This sound is /r/. What sound?... Let’s read that word again...”)  |         |
| D52. Describes an effective strategy for teaching irregular words.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| D53. Identifies the prerequisite skills for learning two- and three-syllable words. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]  | 1 2 3 4 |
| D54. Teaches the sounding out strategy for two- and three-syllable words: (1) proficiently using the formats specified in the school’s curriculum; (2) testing immediately whether students are learning the strategy; (3) using an effective format, and immediately correcting students’ errors in the strategy.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| D55. Selects core (tier 1), supplemental (tier 2), and intervention (tier 3) materials for teaching the sounding out strategy, and gives a rationale using principles of sbrr.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| D56. Assesses students’ knowledge of the sounding out strategy: (1) using validated assessment instruments for screening, diagnosis, progress monitoring, and outcome; (2) using proper assessment protocols and methods; (3) stating the implications of assessment data for judging the curriculum used, the quality of instruction provided by the teacher, and students’ strengths and needs; (4) planning improvements in curriculum, in the quality of teaching, and/or in sounding out strategy instruction provided to students based on assessment data. | 1 2 3 4 |
| <b>Reading Connected Text</b>   |         |
| D57. Discusses principles for designing instruction on reading connected text. [Design principles include (1) introducing short, highly controlled passages once students accurately decode CVC and VC word types; (2) providing models and prompts to help students move from reading words in lists to words in passages; (3) providing more think time for each word at first. See IDEA, 2002-2003]  | 1 2 3 4 |

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| D58. Discusses principles and methods for moving from reading isolated words to word reading in texts. [See IDEA, 2002-2003; Carnine, Silbert, & Kame'enui, 1997]  | 1 2 3 4 |
| D59. Teaches passage reading so that students read orally, are actively engaged, and receive immediate feedback, (1) proficiently using the formats specified in the school's curriculum; (2) testing immediately whether students are learning to read connected text; (3) using an effective format, and immediately correcting student errors in reading connected text.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| D60. Determines a student's instructional and independent reading level and determines if text passages are suitable for that level.   | 1 2 3 4 |
| D61. Explains how to provide adequate practice (i.e., what sorts of tasks, how to distribute practice) for children to develop fluency in reading words in isolation, in sentences, and in selected passages.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| D62. Selects core (tier 1), supplemental (tier 2), and intervention (tier 3) materials for teaching students to read connected text, and gives a rationale using principles of sbrr.   | 1 2 3 4 |
| D63. Assesses students' reading connected text: (1) using validated assessment instruments for screening, diagnosis, progress monitoring, and outcome; (2) using proper assessment protocols and methods; (3) stating the implications of assessment data for judging the curriculum used, the quality of instruction provided by the teacher, and students' strengths and needs; (4) planning improvements in curriculum, in the quality of teaching, and/or in letter-sound correspondence and decoding instruction provided to students based on assessment data. | 1 2 3 4 |

### Big Idea 3. Oral Reading Fluency

Especially important resources include the following.

Binder, C. (1996). Behavioral fluency: Evolution of a new paradigm. *The Behavior Analyst*, 19, 163-197.

Carnine, D.W., Silbert, J., & Kame'enui, E.J. (1997). *Direct instruction reading* (Third edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

Institute for the Development of Educational Achievement (IDEA) (2002-2003). *Big ideas in beginning reading*. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon. <http://reading.uoregon.edu/>

Kame'enui et al., (2002). *Analysis of reading assessment instrument K-3; Summary of assessment committee decisions Grade level by type of measure*.

[http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/analysis\\_results/assess\\_results\\_grade.html](http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/analysis_results/assess_results_grade.html)

Kame'enui et al. (2002). *Four kinds of reading assessments*.

[http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/assessment\\_pres.pdf](http://idea.uoregon.edu:16080/assessment/assessment_pres.pdf)

Kame'enui et al., (2002). *Analysis of reading assessment instrument K-3: Analysis of individual reading assessment instruments*.

[http://idea.uoregon.edu/assessment/analysis\\_results/assess\\_results\\_by\\_test.html](http://idea.uoregon.edu/assessment/analysis_results/assess_results_by_test.html)

D64. Defines and gives examples of fluency and automaticity in passage reading.

1 2 3 4

D65. Describes methods that build oral reading fluency, and explains their effects.

1 2 3 4

[Teacher (1) models more rapid reading; (2) provides cadence (e.g., clapping for each word); (3) provides repeated readings of text; (4) provides alternate reading or paired peer practice; (5) provides group reading of easy material; (6) provides short, timed speed drills (1-minute dash). See Moats, 1999]

D66. Describes different sorts of fluency; i.e., letter-sound, word (especially irregular word), oral reading.

1 2 3 4

D67. Explains why reading fluency is essential to reading comprehension.

1 2 3 4

D68. Cites appropriate fluency targets or ranges (correct words per minute and number of errors) for each grade level.

1 2 3 4

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| D69. States fluency targets for phoneme segmentation, nonsense word reading, and oral reading for kindergarten through grade three.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D70. Increases students' fluency at reading letters, words, sentences, and passages by using guided oral reading with monitoring and corrective feedback.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D71. Increases students' reading fluency by providing signals (e.g., clapping) to help students pace their reading.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D72. Increases students' reading fluency by managing short-timed speed drills.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D73. Increases students' fluency by managing alternate reading or paired peer practice.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D74. Increases students' fluency by modeling more rapid reading.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D75. Increases students' fluency at reading words, sentences, and passages by using incentive systems to help students keep track of errors and to reduce errors.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D76. Selects core (tier 1), supplemental (tier 2), and intervention (tier 3) materials for increasing fluency, and gives a rationale using principles of sbrr.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D77. Assesses students' fluency: (1) using validated assessment instruments for screening, diagnosis, progress monitoring, and outcome; (2) using proper assessment protocols and methods; (3) stating the implications of assessment data for judging the curriculum used, the quality of instruction provided by the teacher, and students' strengths and needs; (4) planning improvements in curriculum, in the quality of teaching, and/or in fluency instruction provided to students based on assessment data. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

## Big Idea 4. Vocabulary

Especially important resources include

Baker, S.K., Simmons, D.C., & Kame'enui, E.J. (1995b). *Vocabulary acquisition: Curricular and Instructional implications for diverse learners*. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon, National Center to Improve the Tools of Educators.

Hart, B, & Risley, T.R. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

Institute for the Development of Educational Achievement (IDEA) (2002-2003). *Big ideas in beginning reading*. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon. <http://reading.uoregon.edu/>

Moats, L.C. (1999). *Teaching reading is rocket science*. Washington, DC: American Federation of Teachers. On line at <http://people.uncw.edu/kozloffm/rocketsci.pdf>

Moats, L/C. (2000). *Speech to print: Language essentials for teachers*. Baltimore: Paul Brookes.

Moats, L.C. (1995). The missing foundation in teacher education. *American Educator*, 19(2), 43-51. On-line at <http://www.greenwoodinstitute.org/resources/resmiss.html>.

D78. Discusses the differences in children's vocabularies as a function of social class and outside reading. States implications of these differences for instruction. [See Hart & Risley, 1995; IDEA, 2000-2003]

1 2 3 4

D79. Defines expressive vocabulary and receptive vocabulary; contextual analysis and morphemic analysis; synonyms, antonyms, homophones, and homographs.

1 2 3 4

D80. Matches morphographs with their meaning, and explains why knowledge of common morphographs promotes generalized use of vocabulary. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]

1 2 3 4

D81. Identifies and defines common affixes and uses that knowledge to determine the meanings of the words. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]

1 2 3 4

D82. Identifies adages, idioms, metaphors, and other forms of figurative language, and describes a format or strategy for teaching students their meanings. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]

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| D83. Explains how preteaching critical vocabulary words facilitates vocabulary acquisition and comprehension during subsequent passage reading.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D84. Discusses a sequence of concept/vocabulary instruction from kindergarten through grade 3. That is, describes what is worked on, when.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D85. Selects vocabulary items to be taught explicitly before students read a selection of expository text.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D86. Discusses the importance of teaching some vocabulary through direct instruction and describes the method for doing this. [Methods include modeling with examples and nonexamples; synonyms; verbal definition. See Carnine, Silbert, & Kame'enui, 1997; IDEA, 2002-2003] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D87. Designs exercises for directly teaching vocabulary concepts using modeling and examples/nonexamples; verbal definitions; and synonyms. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003. See IDEA, 2002-2003]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D88. Designs exercises for teaching vocabulary concepts through storybooks. [See IDEA, 2002-2003]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D89. Explains why morphemic analysis and contextual analysis are appropriate strategies for proficient readers to use to determine the meaning of a word, but inappropriate strategies for beginning readers. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D90. Explains why repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary are important to student mastery of vocabulary.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D91. Discusses what is meant by active engagement in vocabulary learning tasks and explains why this is important. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D92. Identifies two uses for computer technology to increase student vocabulary. [from BIA RF proposal, 2003]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| <p>D93. Teaches vocabulary, (1) proficiently using the formats specified in the school’s curriculum; (2) testing immediately whether students are learning the words/concepts being taught; (3) using an effective format, and immediately correcting student errors in the words/concepts being taught.<br/>[For example, “Boys and girls. Here’s a new word. Metaphor. A metaphor is a figure of speech that involves a comparison of unlike things, but without using the words ‘like’ or ‘as.’ Say that definition with me.... Here’s an example of a metaphor...”]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D94. Selects core (tier 1), supplemental (tier 2), and intervention (tier 3) materials for teaching vocabulary, and gives a rationale using principles of sbrr.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D95. Assesses students’ vocabulary: (1) using validated assessment instruments for screening, diagnosis, progress monitoring, and outcome; (2) using proper assessment protocols and methods; (3) stating the implications of assessment data for judging the curriculum used, the quality of instruction provided by the teacher, and students’ strengths and needs; (4) planning improvements in curriculum, in the quality of teaching, and/or in vocabulary instruction provided to students based on assessment data.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p><b>Big Idea 5. Reading Comprehension</b></p>   |                |
| <p>Especially important sources include<br/> Carnine, D.W., Silbert, J., &amp; Kame’enui, E.J. (1997). <i>Direct instruction reading</i> (Third edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.<br/> Institute for the Development of Educational Achievement (IDEA) (2002-2003). <i>Big ideas in beginning reading</i>. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon. <a href="http://reading.uoregon.edu/">http://reading.uoregon.edu/</a><br/> Kame’enui, E.J., &amp; Simmons, D.C. (1990). <i>Designing instructional strategies</i>. Columbia, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.<br/> Langenberg, D. <i>et al.</i> (2000). <i>Report of the National Reading Panel</i>. Bethesda, MD: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. NIH Pub. No. 00-4769.<br/> Rosenshine, B., &amp; Meister, C. (1992). The use of scaffolds for teaching higher-order cognitive</p> |                |

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| strategies. <i>Educational Leadership</i> , 49 (7), 26-33.   |   |   |   |   |
| D96. Identifies and discusses the main causes of reading comprehension failure. [See Kame'enui & Simmons, 1990.]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D97. Defines reading comprehension as an active process of constructing meaning. [From BIA RF proposal.]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D98. Defines types of comprehension instruction that have verified effectiveness. [Direct instruction, comprehension monitoring; cooperative learning; multiple strategies; mental imagery; graphic organizers; summarization; semantic organizers, including story maps, question answering, question generation. See Report of the National Reading Panel, and IDEA, 2002-2003.] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D99. Lists, in order of increasing complexity, the major comprehension skills to be taught in kindergarten through grade three. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D100. Compares and contrasts literal comprehension tasks and inferential comprehension tasks. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D101. Teaches students to answer simple literal questions that begin with who, what, when, and where.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D102. Identifies the kinds of errors students commonly make during literal comprehension tasks. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D103. Describes procedures for correcting literal comprehension errors (e.g., a teacher asks a "where" question, and the student responds with a phrase that tells "when"). [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D104. Describes an instructional procedure for teaching students to predict what is likely to occur in a text selection based on what has happened and been described so far in the text. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| D105. Describes an instructional procedure for teaching summarization of main ideas and differentiating main ideas from details. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D106. Discusses how graphic and semantic organizers contribute to student's comprehension. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D107. Identifies the basic features of comprehension monitoring. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D108. Identifies errors that students commonly make when doing inferential comprehension tasks. [From BIA RF proposal.]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D109. Describes procedures for correcting inferential comprehension errors. (For example, a teacher asks the students to tell a word that describes how a person probably felt in a given situation, and the student's response that is incorrect.) [From BIA RF proposal.]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D110. Identifies text structures in narrative and expository text.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D111. Discusses how the syntax of sentences changes the difficulty of comprehension. [From BIA RF proposal.]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D112. Describes an instructional procedure for teaching students how to compare and contrast.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D113. Describes the main methods for teaching comprehension before, during, and after reading. [See IDEA, 2002-2003.]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| D114. Teaches reading comprehension, (1) proficiently using the formats specified in the school's curriculum; (2) testing immediately whether students are learning the comprehension questions or strategies being taught; (3) using an effective format, and immediately correcting student errors in the comprehension questions or strategies being taught. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| <p>D115. Selects core (tier 1), supplemental (tier 2), and intervention (tier 3) materials for teaching reading comprehension, and gives a rationale using principles of sbrr.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>D116. Assesses students' reading comprehension: (1) using validated assessment instruments for screening, diagnosis, progress monitoring, and outcome; (2) using proper assessment protocols and methods; (3) stating the implications of assessment data for judging the curriculum used, the quality of instruction provided by the teacher, and students' strengths and needs; (4) planning improvements in curriculum, in the quality of teaching, and/or in comprehension instruction provided to students based on assessment data.</p> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p><b>E. Classroom Techniques of Systematic, Explicit Instruction</b></p>  |                |
| <p>Important resources include</p>   |                |
| <p>Brophy, J.E., &amp; Good, T.L. (1986). Teacher behavior and student achievement. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), <i>Third handbook of research on teaching</i> (pp. 328-375). New York: McMillan.</p>   |                |
| <p>Carnine, D.W., Silbert, J., &amp; Kame'enui, E.J. (1997). <i>Direct instruction reading</i> (Third edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.</p>   |                |
| <p>Ellis, E.S., &amp; Worthington, L.A. (1994). <i>Research Synthesis on Effective Teaching Principles and the Design of Quality Tools for Educators</i>.</p>  |                |
| <p>On-line at <a href="http://idea.uoregon.edu/~ncite/documents/techrep/tech05.pd">http://idea.uoregon.edu/~ncite/documents/techrep/tech05.pd</a></p>  |                |
| <p>Engelmann, S. &amp; Carnine, D. (1991). <i>Theory of instruction</i>. Eugene, OR: ADI Press.</p>  |                |
| <p>Kame'enui, E.J., &amp; Simmons, D.C. (1990). <i>Designing instructional strategies</i>. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.</p>   |                |
| <p>Rosenshine, B., &amp; Stevens, R. (1986). Teaching functions. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), <i>Handbook of research on teaching</i> (Third edition) (pp. 376-391). New York: McMillan.</p>  |                |
| <p>Sprick, R.S. (1998). <i>CHAMPS: A proactive and positive approach to classroom discipline</i>. Longmont, CO: Sopriswest.</p>  |                |

### Placement Testing and Grouping

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| E1. Gives placement tests (if applicable) in at least one of the major sbrr-validated reading curricula; e.g., <i>Open Court</i> , <i>Reading Mastery</i> , <i>Success for All</i> , <i>Voyager</i> .   | 1 2 3 4 |
| E2. Uses placement test information (if applicable) from one of the major sbrr-validated reading curricula to group children at different levels of the curricula.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| E3. Adjusts the size of instructional groups in light of learners' current skills.<br>[Approximately five is the optimum for very young children and for children who have difficulty learning. The larger the group, the more time and effort it takes to teach basic participation skills and skill at working independently, and to reduce difficult behaviors. However, the more skillful and engaged students are, the larger the group may be.] | 1 2 3 4 |
| E4. Uses progress data to regroup children; e.g., faster-moving student might be placed in a more advanced group.   | 1 2 3 4 |

### Time and Materials

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| E5. Follows the daily schedule; for example, starts and ends lessons on time.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| E6. Keeps teaching materials organized and readily available.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| E7. Maintains accurate records (such as rate and accuracy checkouts and error data sheets), and has these readily available. | 1 2 3 4 |
| E8. Keeps student materials (practice sheets, books, writing materials) readily available for student use.                   | 1 2 3 4 |
| E9. Ensures that all students have their relevant materials (e.g., reading book) before the lesson begins.                   | 1 2 3 4 |

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| <p>E10. Reads and practices a script or lesson ahead of time. [Practice enables the teacher to speak faster and without gaps between exercises; i.e., to communicate fluently. This sustains the momentum of the lesson and therefore sustains students’ attention, energy, and involvement.]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p><b>Rules for Participation</b></p>  |                |
| <p>E11. Establishes and directly teaches ground rules for productive participation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Establishes ground rules from the beginning.<br/>“We sit tall. We put our feet on the floor. We look at the teacher or book. We take our turn when Teacher gives the signal.”</li> <li>b. Posts rules clearly where students can see them.</li> <li>c. Directly teaches students to use the rules; e.g., via modeling and practicing until students are firm.</li> <li>d. States the rules, and has students repeat the rules at the start of early lessons or when needed.</li> <li>e. Adds a few rules if needed. “We do not make fun if a person makes a mistake.”</li> <li>f. Reminds students of rules just before transitions; e.g., entering the room and taking assigned seat, moving from group lesson to independent work, changing from independent work to putting away materials, lining up to return to home class.</li> </ul> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p><b>Independent Activity</b></p>   |                |
| <p>E12. Explains the steps and appropriate behavior during independent group activities, such as working on practice sheets.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E13. Efficiently distributes and collects supplies, materials, and seatwork.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E14. Provides appropriate extra activities and materials for students to work on after students have completed assigned independent work.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

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| E15. Plans and reviews with students procedures for how students may ask questions during independent work  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| <b>Maintaining Student Attention</b>  |   |   |   |   |
| E16. Adjusts the length of lessons in relation to students' skills and attention.<br>[Lessons are for about 30 minutes with young children and children who have difficulty learning. The teacher marks in the lesson plan at the end of the exercise where he or she finished, and begins at that spot the next time.] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E17. Arranges seating so all students can easily see and hear (e.g., in a semi-circle) and so the teacher can easily see and hear and touch each student (e.g., to reinforce).  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E18. Seats in direct line of vision those students who have a harder time learning.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E19. Seats students with behavior problems close to the teacher and apart from each other.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E20. Focuses exactly and directly on the instructional objective, and does not give extraneous information.<br>[Lessons should be a sequence of tightly connected logical units. The teacher does not present material extraneous to the concrete learning objectives, for this could be confusing.]                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E21. Scans the group frequently while presenting a task to see that all students are attending and performing relevant actions, such as following the written text with their finger.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E22. Reminds students to engage in relevant behavior, and addresses the reminder to the whole group.<br>["I need to see <b>everyone</b> tracking with their finger."]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E23. Gives behavior-specific praise in a timely fashion (e.g., as it is happening, right after a task, and before the next task).<br>a. For specific behavior: "I love the way you're all sitting big!" "Look at Jackie.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| <p>She's got her feet on the floor. She's ready to learn." "Great! Only two mistakes. Let's read the story again and make only one mistake."<br/> b. For long-term changes in behavior: "You read a whole book! Now you can read books on your own!" "You know how to get ready to start. That is going to help you to learn."</p>          |                |
| <p>E24. Gives at least four positives statements for every correction--to keep the atmosphere pleasant.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E25. Praises the students in all activities: group instruction, individual work, and cooperative learning groups, and for following rules during transitions.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E26. Uses tangible rewards (for awhile) if young children do not respond well to verbal praise. [Uses crackers, raisins, stars—something that will get young children energized and willing to make the effort to succeed. Always tells the children why they are receiving them. Pairs the verbal praise with the tangible reward.]</p> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E27. Uses a "change -up."<br/> [When students become fatigued, the teacher stops the lesson and starts a short sequence of physical activities. "Stand up...Put your hands in the air...Shake your hands...Hop up and down...Okay. Let's start again." This re-strengthens cooperation and attention and helps discharge energy.]</p>    | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E28. Responds to disruptive behavior in a matter-of-fact way. The teacher states the proper behavior and points out and praises a student who is modeling desirable behavior. ["We sit up in our chair, feet on the floor...Jackie is sitting up in his seat. He knows how to sit the right way."]</p>                                   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E29. Uses a two-part method for handling continued disruptive behavior.<br/> a. The teacher gives a matter-of-fact warning followed by praise for appropriate behavior.<br/> b. The teacher removes a student from the group, but gives the student an opportunity to return within 3-5 minutes.</p>                                     | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

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| E30. Varies the presentation style (voice, movement) during lessons—animated, vivacious.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| <b>Pacing</b>   |   |   |   |   |
| E31. Moves through the lesson at a brisk pace.<br>[For example, the teacher begins the next task as soon as praise or a correction is given for the last task.]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E32. Pauses for a longer time on difficult tasks before giving the signal.<br>[“This is a tough one. All by yourselves...Get ready.....” (signal to respond).]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E33. Provides transition statements between tasks.<br>[“That was <b>excellent</b> saying those sounds. Nancy, I loved your indoor voice. Jose you read the words perfectly.”]   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| <b>Lesson Management</b>  |   |   |   |   |
| E34. Gets into the lesson quickly without hesitation.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E35. Makes sure all the children can see book, board work, and the teacher’s movement (e.g., pointing).   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E36. Follows a script or lesson plan exactly.<br>[Effective curricula are carefully planned and tested. It is important to do all the exercises specified and to use the wording, examples, and review as given. A teacher may add certain elements as needed; e.g., additional examples or practice or short acquisition tests.] | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| E37. Checks to make sure students are on task, and praises desirable behavior.<br>[“Jan is looking right at the picture. She’s learning!”]  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

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| <p>E38. Gains student attention before presenting a task.<br/> [a. To make clear and explicit statements of knowledge objectives for every exercise, lesson, and series of lessons. Objectives are defined by what students will be able to <b>do</b>.<br/> “My turn. I’ll show you how to say these sounds without stopping between the sounds.”<br/> b. To use an attention signal. “Everybody, look.”]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E39. Uses signals whenever and how they are specified in curriculum guides or lesson scripts.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E40. Uses proper pause and punch.<br/> [a. “This word rhymes with (pause) <b>sick</b> (punch).”<br/> b. “Now you get to read these words the <b>fast</b> way. Get ready.” (pause) (audible signal)]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E41. Asks a question first and then to calls on the group or individual students.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E42. Gives individual turns towards the end of most tasks.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E43. Gives the most turns to students who take the longer time to catch on—the students seated directly in front.<br/> [By watching these children during the group practice of the exercise, the teacher can tell when they are ready to respond individually. When they can do the exercise without further correction, the teacher can assume that the other students will be able to do it as well.]</p> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E44. Gives only 2-4 individual turns.<br/> [More turns will slow the lesson.]</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E45. Repeats the original group task when individual turns indicate that the group is not firm.</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E46. Challenges the children.<br/> [A challenge often motivates a disinterested child to become an eager participant. For</p>  | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

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| example, if two children in a group perform particularly well, praise them and challenge the other children. “Wow! Henry and Myrna really can do it. Aren’t they sharp! Just listen to how well they do.”]  |         |
| E47. Signals (e.g., indicating that it is the students’ turn) are clear and crisp.  | 1 2 3 4 |
| E48. Calls on students in a sequence that they cannot predict (e.g., instead of going down a row of students). [This way, students need to be pay attention all the time, and not just when it is their turn.]  | 1 2 3 4 |
| E49. If a rule is broken during the lesson, reminds the group.<br>[“I need to hear EVERYONE say the whole thing.” Later, “I love the way you’re saying the WHOLE thing.”]   | 1 2 3 4 |
| E50. Does the task again If one student or the group makes a weak response. The teacher makes sure the group is firm before going on.<br>[Firmness is checked by questions and problems addressed to the whole group and to individuals. These “tests” enable teachers to determine whether the class is moving too quickly or too slowly, whether re-teaching is needed, and whether certain students need extra and/or more individualized assistance.] | 1 2 3 4 |
| E51. Tests individual children only after the group’s responses are firm.<br>[If the teacher waits until the children are firm on group responses, the chances are much better that each child will be able to give a firm response when answering alone.]  | 1 2 3 4 |
| E52. Uses delayed tests to check on and to firm up items that were weak earlier.<br>[“Let’s read those words again. They’re hard. But we can do it.”]   | 1 2 3 4 |
| E53. States the rational for immediate error correction.<br>[Uncorrected errors are likely to be repeated and then to become large skill gaps that will increasingly hinder further learning, requiring costly remediation.]  | 1 2 3 4 |

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| <p>E54. Notices and identifies students' response errors in a reading activity.<br/> [Students' response errors in a reading activity include (1) omitting a sound or word; (2) adding a sound or word; (3) misidentifying a sound or word; (4) making a mistake and self-correcting; (5) sounding out a word but not saying it fast.]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E55. Stops students when errors are made and immediately gives the correction. Does the corrections quickly and directs corrections to the group.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E56. Uses the appropriate correction procedure; for example, model/lead/test/start over/retest.<br/> [(A student misidentifies a word.) Teacher models the correct response, "That word is noses."<br/> Teacher re-presents the task. "What word?"<br/> Teacher back up a few steps (e.g., in a word list) and presents the activities (e.g., words) in order. "Starting over." Or, "Let's go back to 'lean.'"<br/> Teacher completes the task and then returns to the missed word.<br/> Teacher repeats the whole task if more than a few errors were made.]</p> | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E57. Uses other students to model a correct response for the rest of the group.<br/> ["Next word...Rudy...( 'stepped' ).... Yes, stepped.... Everybody, what word?..."]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E58. Uses pre-corrections before tasks that are likely to give the group or individuals difficulty.<br/> ["Remember, this (points to letters) says, 'ed.' Say it with me... 'ed.'<br/> Your turn. (points to letters) Get ready...(points)... 'ed.' Yes, ed. Now, let's read these words with no mistakes. Get ready..."]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E59. When individuals or the group make repeated errors on the same task, the teacher breaks down the task into smaller steps or components so that these may be worked on during the lesson and/or in later lessons.<br/> [For example, students may not be firm on adding "ed." So, the teacher firms this part.]</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |
| <p>E60. The teacher is enthusiastic when teaching.</p>   | <p>1 2 3 4</p> |

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