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The *Teaching Reading Sourcebook* combines the best features of an academic text and a practical hands-on teacher’s guide. It is an indispensable resource for teaching reading and language arts to both beginning and older struggling readers.

**WHAT? • WHY? • WHEN? • HOW?**

- **what?**
  - A thorough but concise graphic explanation of research-based content and best practices.

- **why?**
  - A readable summary of scientifically based research, selected quotes from researchers, and a bibliography of suggested reading.

- **when?**
  - Information about instructional sequence, assessment, and intervention strategies.

- **how?**
  - Sample lesson models with suggestions for corrective feedback; providing a bridge between research and practice, and making explicit instruction easy.

- User-friendly text
- Plentiful charts and tables
- Interactive activities for the reader
- Opportunities to review and interpret content
The Teaching Reading Sourcebook can be used by...

- elementary teachers
to enhance reading instruction in core reading programs
- middle and high school teachers
to enhance language arts and content-area instruction
- college professors and students
as a textbook for pre-service teacher education
- providers of professional development
as an educational resource tool
- school or district administrators
to support and facilitate effective literacy instruction
- literacy coaches
as a resource for implementation
- teachers of English-language learners (ELLs)
to support reading acquisition
- teachers of older struggling readers
for research-based strategies tailored to individual needs
- new teachers
as a comprehensive foundation for reading instruction

Explicit READING INSTRUCTION made easy!
The Common Core State Standards do not tell teachers how to teach, but they do help teachers figure out the knowledge and skills their students should have.

—Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2012

The Teaching Reading Sourcebook has always supported educators in bridging the gap between evidence-based reading research and actionable instructional strategies. The Sourcebook also supports educators’ efforts in understanding, transitioning to, unpacking, and implementing the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts. In the Third Edition, useful features seamlessly connect and clarify the Sourcebook’s alignment to the Common Core.

How the Sourcebook can be useful for implementing the Common Core . . .

- It provides a bridge between the Standards and evidence-based instruction.
- It encompasses the Reading strand, especially Foundational Skills.
- It extensively covers Vocabulary Acquisition and Use in the Language strand.
- It enhances understanding of Common Core’s Appendix A: Research Supporting Key Elements of the Standards.
- It emphasizes reading of informational text: 8 out of 12 Sample Texts are informational.

Charts and Tables Further Elicit Understanding of the Common Core
- Organization of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts, p. xvii
- Quick Reference: Where to Find the Common Core in the Sourcebook, p. xvii
- Correlation: Sourcebook Sample Lesson Models to Common Core State Standards, pp. xviii-xix
- Common Core State Standard’s Model for Measuring Text Complexity, p. 610
- Qualitative Measures of Text Complexity: Literary and Informational Text, p. 611
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## Quick Reference: Where to Find the Common Core in the Sourcebook

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**Lesson Model Videos** corelearn.com/resource-posts/index-lesson-model-videos/

**KEY Common Core State Standards**

- **RF.1** Print Concepts
- **RF.2** Phonological Awareness
- **RF.3** Phonics & Word Recognition
- **RF.4** Fluency
- **RI** Informational Text
- **L.1,2** Conventions of Standard English
- **L.4,5,6** Vocabulary Acquisition and Use

*Note: RF stands for Reading: Foundational Skills.*
The Reading Deficit

Literacy is an essential skill needed to participate in today’s world. Whether we are reading a ballot, a map, a train schedule, a driver’s test, a job application, a text message, a label on a medicine container, or a textbook, reading is required to fully function in our society. Unfortunately, an enormous proportion of young citizens cannot read well enough to adequately function or to expand their knowledge about the world. This situation is especially distressing because we now know that the majority of students can learn to read regardless of their backgrounds (Lyon 2002).

The State of Reading Today

The focus on learning to read has never been greater. The latest National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) indicates that fourth- and eighth-grade reading scores are abysmally low. According to the achievement-level results in reading, 63 percent of fourth graders and 64 percent of eighth graders scored at or below the basic level of reading achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAEP Overall Achievement-Level Results in Reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GRADE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 4</td>
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<td>Grade 8</td>
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</table>

Common Core State Standards
The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) for English Language Arts (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers 2010) are the culmination of an extended, broad-based effort to create the next generation of K–12 standards to help ensure that all students are college and career ready in literacy no later than the end of high school. The Standards aim to be research and evidence based, aligned with college and work expectations, rigorous, and internationally benchmarked. Until now, most states have had their own set of English language arts standards, meaning public education students at the same grade level in different states have been expected to achieve at different levels. It is believed that common standards will provide more clarity about and consistency in what is expected of student learning across the country. They will allow states to share information effectively and will help provide all students with an equal opportunity for an education that will prepare them to go to college or enter the workforce, regardless of where they live.

What’s Not Working?
With all this focus on reading and education, one might wonder why scores have not dramatically changed for the better. Research suggests that using ineffective teaching methods along with instructional strategies that are without “enough research evidence” limit student mastery of essential skills and new concepts (Rosenshine 2012; Moats 2007; Sweet 2004). For example, even though extensive research clearly shows that students, regardless of their learning difficulties, reach higher and faster achievement with systematic and explicit instruction, this type of instruction is still not always used (Gill and Kozloff 2004).

Sources of Reading Failure
Neurological factors (brain metabolism)
Familial factors (environment)
Socioeconomic factors (poverty)
Instructional factors (teaching)
The Brain and Reading

Brain research is an area of scientific investigation looking for the best ways to teach students how to read. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) technology has allowed scientists to track brain activity. Researchers have discovered that the brain activation patterns of students with dyslexia and other poor readers are different from those of good readers.

Brain Geography

The brain is made up of two mirror-image sides, or hemispheres. Each hemisphere of the brain is divided into four lobes, or sections: frontal, parietal, temporal, and occipital. The left hemisphere of the brain is associated with speech, language processing, and reading. Within the left hemisphere, the frontal lobe controls speech, reasoning, planning, regulating emotions, and consciousness; the parietal lobe controls sensory perceptions as well as links spoken and written language to memory; the temporal lobe is involved in verbal memory; and the occipital lobe is important in the identification of letters (Hudson, High, and Al Otaiba 2007; Shaywitz 2005).

Within and between these lobes, there are areas that are especially important for skilled reading: Broca’s area, the parieto-temporal area, and the occipito-temporal area (Shaywitz 2005). Broca’s area is important for the organization, production, and
manipulation of language and speech (Joseph, Nobel, and Eden 2001). The parieto-temporal area analyzes words by pulling them apart and linking the letters to their sounds—conscious, effortful decoding (Shaywitz 2005). The occipito-temporal area identifies words rapidly and automatically on sight, instead of analyzing them sound by sound.

**How the Brain Reads**

In her research, Shaywitz (2005) found that the parieto-temporal and occipito-temporal areas in the back of the brain are especially important to skilled reading but have different roles. The parieto-temporal system’s slow, analytic, step-by-step decoding function seems to be relied upon more by beginning readers. In contrast, the occipito-temporal area is the “express pathway to reading.”

According to Shaywitz (2005), during brain imaging skilled readers show the highest level of activation of the occipito-temporal area. It is the hub where, for example, all the relevant incoming information about a word—how it looks, how it sounds, and what it means—is tightly bound together and stored. After a reader has analyzed and correctly read a word several times, then he or she forms a neural model of that specific word that is then stored permanently in the occipito-temporal area. After that, just seeing the word in print immediately activates the neural model and all the relevant information about that word. This all happens automatically, without the reader’s conscious thought or effort.

As they read, good readers activate the back of the brain and also, to some extent, the Broca’s area in the front of the brain, an area that helps in slowly analyzing a word. On the other hand, poor readers underutilize the areas in the back of the brain. Evidence-based reading instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics can change brain activity in struggling readers and assist in the activation and use of the areas in the back of the brain (Shaywitz et al. 2004; Aylward et al. 2003).
Scientific Approach to Reading Instruction

The term *scientifically based reading instruction* was first defined in the Reading Excellence Act of 1998 as “the application of rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge relevant to reading development, reading instruction, and reading difficulties.” According to Stanovich and Stanovich (2003), reflective teachers use scientific thinking every day—they “inquire into their own practice and . . . examine their own classrooms to find out what works best for them and their students.”

How to Recognize Effective Research

Educators can use three simple questions to distinguish between research that confirms the effectiveness of an instructional practice and research that does not: (1) Has the research been published in a peer-reviewed journal? (2) Have the research results been replicated by other scientists? (3) Is there a consensus that the research findings are supported by other studies?

INDEPENDENT PEER REVIEW Articles published in peer-reviewed journals have gone through a process of review. This process of quality control exposes ideas and experimentation to examination and criticism by other scientists in the same field.

REPLICATION OF RESULTS BY OTHER SCIENTISTS To be considered scientifically based, a research finding must be presented in a way that enables other researchers to reach the same results when they repeat the experiment. True scientific knowledge is public and open to challenge.

CONSENSUS WITHIN THE RESEARCH COMMUNITY Scientists do not simply evaluate data from a single study; they evaluate data from many studies. Research findings are most often accepted after the scientific community agrees that sufficient evidence has converged to support one finding over another.
Essential Components of Reading Instruction

Charged with conducting a rigorous and comprehensive review of reading research, the National Reading Panel (2000) produced a report for Congress focused on five essential components of reading instruction: phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. In addition to these components, the Sourcebook covers instruction in print awareness, letter knowledge, irregular words, and multisyllabic words.

Print Awareness
Print awareness is knowing about the forms and the functions of print; it is a child’s earliest introduction to literacy (Gunn, Simmons, and Kame’enui 1998). Awareness of the forms of print includes knowledge about the conventions of print—conventions that govern the physical structure of written language and text organization. Students with print awareness know how to handle a book, where on a page to begin reading, and the difference between a letter and a word. Awareness of the functions of print includes knowing that print is a communication device.

Letter Knowledge
Letters are the components of written words. They represent sounds systematically in the spelling of words. Learning letters requires becoming familiar with 26 uppercase and 26 lowercase letter shapes and associating these letter shapes to their letter names. Handwriting practice helps young students to learn and recall letter shapes (Ehri and Roberts 2006; Berninger 1999).

Phonological Awareness
Phonological awareness is an umbrella term that includes the awareness of the larger parts of spoken language, such as words, syllables, and onsets and rimes—as well as the smaller parts, phonemes. A phoneme is the smallest unit of spoken language that makes a difference in a word’s meaning. For example, the phonemes /s/ and /f/ are different; the meaning of the word sat is different from the meaning of the word fat.
According to the National Reading Panel (2000), phonemic awareness instruction is most effective when students are taught to use letters as they manipulate phonemes.

**Phonics**

Phonics is a method of instruction that teaches students the systematic relationship between the letters and letter combinations (graphemes) in written language and the individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken language and how to use these relationships to read and spell words. Phonics instruction—which is intended for beginning readers in the primary grades and for older students who are struggling to read—can help students learn how to convert the printed word into its spoken form (National Reading Panel 2000). This process, called decoding, involves looking at a word and connecting the letters and sounds and then blending those sounds together. Phonics instruction also helps students to understand the alphabetic principle—written letters represent spoken sounds. In other words, letters and sounds work together in systematic ways to allow spoken language to be written down and written language to be read.

**Irregular Word Reading**

Not all words are regular or can be read by sounding them out. An irregular word contains one or more sound/spelling correspondences that a student does not know and therefore cannot use to decode the word. Within a reading program, there are basically two types of irregular words: words that are permanently irregular and words that are temporarily irregular (Carnine et al. 2006). Some of the most common words in English are irregular. These high-frequency words appear often in printed text and therefore are crucial for comprehension.
Multisyllabic Word Reading

While phonics instruction gives students the basic tools to decode most single-syllable words, explicit instruction in recognizing syllables and morphemes gives students additional strategies for reading longer multisyllabic words. To read words in text fluently and accurately, the brain’s orthographic processor must learn to “see” common letter patterns and recurring word parts (Moats 2005). In multisyllabic words, these multi-letter patterns, or “chunks,” may be syllables, affixes, or phonograms (Ehri 2002).

Fluency

According to Hudson, Lane, and Pullen (2005), reading fluency is made up of at least three key elements: “accurate reading of connected text at a conversational rate with appropriate prosody or expression.” Each of these elements—accuracy, rate, and prosody—has a clear connection to reading comprehension. Differences in reading fluency distinguish good readers from poor; a lack of reading fluency is a good predictor of reading comprehension problems (Stanovich 1991). Teachers can think of reading fluency as a bridge between the two major components of reading—decoding and comprehension.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings. It occupies an important position both in learning to read and in comprehending text (National Reading Panel 2000). According to Michael Graves (2000), there are four components of an effective vocabulary program: (1) wide or extensive independent reading to expand word knowledge, (2) instruction in specific words to enhance comprehension of texts containing those words, (3) instruction in independent word-learning strategies, and (4) word consciousness and word-play activities to motivate and enhance learning. Not surprisingly, vocabulary development is especially important for English-language learners (ELLs).
Comprehension

Reading comprehension is the process of extracting and constructing meaning from written texts. It has three key elements—the text, the reader, and the activity and related tasks (RAND Reading Study Group 2002; Snow 2003). Good comprehension instruction requires teachers to consider all of these factors. More important, it involves showing students how these factors affect their understanding when reading. Recent innovations in comprehension instruction have been built on a foundation of what good readers do. Research has shown that the effective reading processes, or strategies, of good readers can be explicitly taught and that doing so improves comprehension (National Reading Panel 2000).

Reading Assessment

Scientifically based research studies have repeatedly demonstrated the value of regularly assessing students’ reading progress (e.g., Fuchs and Fuchs 1999; Shinn 1998). Reliable and valid assessments help monitor the effectiveness of instruction. An assessment is reliable if it provides a dependable, consistent measurement of a particular trait or ability; it is valid if it actually measures that trait or ability (Torgesen 2006).

Types of Assessment

There are basically four types of assessments—screening, progress monitoring, diagnostic, and outcome. Screening assessments identify those students who are at risk for reading difficulty. If screening results indicate a potential difficulty, the student is usually provided with additional support and increased progress monitoring. In cases where screening results indicate a severe reading problem, immediate diagnostic evaluation may be warranted. Diagnostic assessment is usually reserved for students who, according to progress monitoring, fail to respond to additional support (Hosp, Hosp, and Howell 2007).
# Reading Assessments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Screening                 | • To identify students who are at risk for reading difficulty and may benefit from additional support  
                              • To determine the most appropriate starting point for instruction | • To elementary students, three times a year (e.g., fall, winter, spring)  
                              • To secondary students, at the end of the previous school year |
| Progress Monitoring       | • To determine whether students are making adequate progress  
                              • To determine whether instruction needs to be adjusted | • To students reading at the expected level, three times a year  
                              • To students reading below the expected level, monthly or bimonthly |
| Curriculum Embedded       | • To measure the extent to which students have learned the material taught in a specific reading program | • To students reading significantly below the expected level, weekly or biweekly |
| General or External       | • To measure critical reading skills (phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, or comprehension) in general  
                              • To predict success in meeting grade-level standards by the end of the year |                                                                                     |
| Diagnostic                | • To pinpoint a student’s specific area of weakness  
                              • To provide in-depth information about students’ skills and instructional needs | Only after other forms of assessment reveal that an individual student is reading below the expected level or not making sufficient progress |
| Outcome                   | • To provide a bottom-line evaluation of the overall effectiveness of a reading program | • To all students, at the end of the school year or semester |

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Comprehensive Assessment Plan

Assessment not only directs students’ reading development, but also supports educators by helping them to make instructional decisions and monitor program implementation (Diamond 2005). According to Torgesen (2006), a comprehensive assessment plan is “a critical element of an effective school-level plan for preventing reading difficulties.” The plan has four main objectives which correspond roughly to the types of assessment: (1) to identify students at the beginning of the school year who are at risk for reading difficulties and who may need extra support or intervention, (2) to monitor students’ progress during the school year to determine whether the at-risk students are making adequate progress and to identify any other students who may be falling behind, (3) to collect student assessment data that inform instruction, and (4) to assess whether instruction is sufficient enough to ensure that all students achieve grade-level expectations.

Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM)

Curriculum-based measurement (CBM) is an assessment tool that usually includes a set of standard directions, a timing device, a set of passages, scoring rules, standards for judging performance, and record forms or charts (Hosp et al. 2007). With CBM students are tested on the curriculum they are being taught. Because CBM emphasizes repeated measurement over time, it is often used for progress monitoring. Reading CBM consists of oral reading fluency (ORF) and maze passage reading. In ORF CBM, students read aloud from a passage for one minute. In Maze CBM, students read a passage silently for one minute. In the passage, every seventh word has been replaced with a word choice. As they read, students choose the one out of three words that makes sense within the sentence context.
Early research has shown that early assessment is one of the best ways to prevent the downward spiral of reading failure; it serves to identify students who need extra help in reading before they experience serious failure—or “catch them before they fall” (Torgesen 1998). The sooner an intervention occurs, the more likely students will regain ground (Torgesen 1998, 2004). Studies show that students who are poor readers at the end of first grade almost never acquire average-level reading skills by the end of elementary school (Francis et al. 1996; Shaywitz et al. 1999; Torgesen and Burgess 1998). This delayed development of reading skills affects students’ exposure to text. Having less exposure to text prevents readers from fully developing language, vocabulary, and background knowledge, therefore adding to the downward spiral in which students have a difficult time ever catching up (Stanovich 1986, 1993). Stanovich calls this phenomenon the “Matthew effects,” in which students who learn to read early continue improving and thus get “richer.” But students who do not learn to read early continue to struggle, faced with harder and harder text, and so become “poorer” and increasingly distanced from the students “rich” in reading ability. The term refers to a Bible verse in the Book of Matthew.

### The Fourth-Grade Slump

According to Jeanne Chall’s stages of reading development (1983, 1996), reading is a process that changes as the reader becomes more able and proficient. Generally, Stages 1 and 2 (Grades 1–3) are characterized as a period when students are “learning to read,” and Stages 3–5 (Grades 4 and above) are characterized as a period of “reading to learn.” In the learning-to-read stage, students typically read simple texts containing familiar words within their oral vocabularies and knowledge base. In the reading-to-learn stage, students read increasingly more demanding academic texts containing challenging words and complex concepts beyond their oral vocabularies and knowledge base. In the critical transition period, from Stage 2 to Stage 3, from “learning to read” to “reading to learn,” teachers have often
noticed an apparently sudden drop-off in reading scores, particularly for socioeconomically disadvantaged students (Chall and Jacobs 2003). This phenomenon has been referred to as the “fourth-grade slump.” To combat the fourth-grade slump, Chall and Jacobs (2003) recommend focusing on vocabulary development to expand students’ word knowledge along with reading fluency and automaticity.

**Motivation and Interest in Reading**

There is often a decline in motivation and interest in reading in students who at first had difficulty in learning to read (Eccles et al. 1993; McKenna, Kear, and Ellsworth 1995). According to Torgesen et al. (2007), this lack of motivation has “two unfortunate consequences, both of which have a direct impact on the growth of reading proficiency in adolescents.” The first consequence is that students with low motivation and interest in reading do not read as much. The second is that students who are less motivated to read are usually less interested in fully understanding what they are reading (Guthrie et al. 2004).

Anderson (1996) suggests that “reading books may be a cause, not merely a reflection, of students’ level of reading proficiency.” In a study of fifth graders, Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988) found a positive relationship between the amount of students’ out-of-school, independent reading and measures of reading comprehension, vocabulary, and reading speed. The table on the facing page shows staggering differences in fifth graders’ reading habits; students in the 90th percentile spent more than 200 times as many minutes reading than students in the 10th percentile.

**Academic Language**

Dutro and Moran (2003) define academic language as “the language of texts, of academic discussion, and of formal writing.” It is the advanced form of language needed to communicate successfully in formal, often academic, situations. Many skills
are wrapped up in the concept of academic language. Components of academic language include vocabulary knowledge, syntax (sentence architecture), and rules of grammar. Academic vocabulary consists of both specialized, content-specific words such as phoneme or morpheme and highly utilized terms such as cognitive or diagnostic.

In terms of exposing students to new academic vocabulary, speech is far more limited than written language. According to an analysis by Hayes and Ahrens (1988), students are more likely to encounter a word outside their academic vocabularies from a printed text than from a television show or a conversation with a college-educated adult. In fact, the text of a children’s book contains more rare words than does any kind of oral language. The table on the following page shows selected statistics from Hayes and Ahrens’ analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile Rank</th>
<th>Minutes of Reading per Day</th>
<th>Words Read per Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BOOKS</td>
<td>TEXT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>16.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>13.1</td>
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<td>50</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
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<td>30</td>
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<td>4.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>2.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Differentiated Instruction

Students come to school with a wide variety of skills, abilities, and interests as well as varying proficiency in English and other languages. Some students struggle, while others are right on level or even above it. Diverse learners demand instruction that supports their special needs. This differentiated instruction meets the needs of students with reading difficulties, students with disabilities, advanced learners, and English-language learners.

Common Profiles of Reading Difficulties

Struggling readers are not all exactly alike. According to Louise Spear-Swerling (2015), research on different types of reading difficulties suggests that three broad profiles of reading problems are common to students learning to read English: specific word-recognition difficulties (SWRD), specific reading comprehension difficulties (SRCD), and mixed reading difficulties (MRD).
In general, a SWRD profile is relatively more common in k–3 beginning readers, and a SRCD profile is more common in older struggling readers. For example, according to Leach and colleagues (2003), approximately 49% of reading problems in Grades k–3 involved the SWRD profile, 6% involved the SRCD profile, and 46% involved the MRD profile. After Grade 3, the proportions of the profiles were similar with each constituting roughly one-third of the struggling readers.

**English-Language Learners (ELLs)**

The U.S. Department of Education defines ELLs as “national-origin-minority students who are limited-English proficient.” The population of ELLs in public schools continues to grow.

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**Common Profiles of Reading Difficulties**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Profile</th>
<th>Common Patterns</th>
<th>Specific Patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific Word-Recognition Difficulties (SWRD)</strong></td>
<td>Nonalphabetic word readers</td>
<td>• Limited phonological awareness&lt;br&gt;• Limited knowledge of letter sounds&lt;br&gt;• No ability to decode unknown words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average or better listening comprehension and oral vocabulary</td>
<td>Inaccurate word readers</td>
<td>• Some phonological awareness&lt;br&gt;• Some knowledge of letter sounds&lt;br&gt;• Lack fully accurate decoding skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nonautomatic word readers</td>
<td>• Lack automatic word recognition&lt;br&gt;• Poor multisyllabic word reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific Reading Comprehension Difficulties (SRCD)</strong></td>
<td>Nonstrategic comprehenders</td>
<td>• Lack comprehension strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No history of word-recognition or phonological difficulties</td>
<td>Suboptimal comprehenders</td>
<td>• Lack higher-order comprehension skills (e.g., evaluating)&lt;br&gt;• Have comprehension strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mixed Reading Difficulties (MRD)</strong></td>
<td>SWRD SRCD</td>
<td>• Nonalphabetic, inaccurate, or nonautomatic word reading&lt;br&gt;• Areas of comprehension weakness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Spear-Swerling 2015.
In school year 2014–15, 4.6 million students in the United States were ELLs, or 9.4 percent (National Center for Education Statistics 2016).

Educating English-language learners has become both a challenge and a necessity across the country. The National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth (August and Shanahan 2006) published the following findings:

- As is for native English speakers, the essential components of effective reading instruction—phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension—have a positive influence on the literacy development of ELLs.

- Instruction in the essential components of reading is necessary—but not sufficient—for teaching ELLs to read and write proficiently in English. ELL students need more work in oral language development, vocabulary, and text comprehension than native English speakers.

- ELLs enter classrooms with varying degrees of oral proficiency and literacy in their first language. Tapping into first-language literacy can confer advantages to ELLs and can be used to facilitate literacy development in English.

Francis et al. (2006) make the following recommendations for planning effective reading instruction and interventions for ELLs: (1) build decoding skills through early, explicit, and intensive instruction in phonological awareness and phonics, (2) offer additional opportunities for the development of in-depth vocabulary knowledge, (3) provide the strategies and knowledge necessary to comprehend challenging literary and informational texts, (4) focus instruction in reading fluency on vocabulary and increased exposure to print, (5) supply significant opportunities for students to engage in structured, academic talk, and (6) ensure that independent reading is structured and purposeful, with good reader–text match.
MTSS for Reading Success

behavioral intervention
multi-tiered evidence-based academic intervention
Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS) is a coordinated system of academic and behavioral supports designed to ensure that all students get off to a healthy start and achieve school success. While Response to Intervention (RtI), a first-generation service delivery model, focused initially on improving academic achievement in areas such as reading or math, MTSS addresses the interconnectedness of both academic achievement and student behavior. For adopting and organizing interventions, MTSS incorporates a tiered approach to academics as well as a tiered approach to schoolwide behavior called Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS).

Students with low academic skills are more likely to exhibit unwanted behavior in school. The connection is strongest between literacy (e.g., reading) and externalizing problem behavior such as disruption or “acting out” (Lin et al. 2013). Throughout schooling, this reciprocal connection intensifies. For example, a student who originally faced only one challenge such as a reading difficulty or a problem behavior in elementary school is at much greater risk of facing both reading and behavioral challenges in middle or high school (Fleming et al. 2004; McIntosh et al. 2008).

MTSS has four basic components:
- Multi-Tiered Levels of Prevention and Support
- Evidence-Based Programs with High-Quality Instruction
- Ongoing Assessment
- Data-Based Decision Making and Problem Solving
Multi-Tiered Levels of Prevention and Support

A multi-tiered system can be applied as a unifying framework to nearly any approach in education (McIntosh and Goodman 2016). The system incorporates three hierarchical levels, or tiers, that represent levels of prevention or support. They are Tier 1: Universal Instruction; Tier 2: Targeted Intervention; and Tier 3: Intensive Intervention. The tiers describe intensity of instruction—not specific programs, students, or staff. Each tier is layered on the previous tier’s level of support; that is, students receive additional support, not support that replaces or supplants what preceded it. Based on assessment data, a student can transition up or down within the tiers.

Tier 1 is the differentiated, evidence-based core instruction that all students receive. Core instruction should meet the needs of most students, but some students will require Tier 2 targeted, small-group interventions in addition to Tier 1 instruction. In Tier 2, there may be a few students who do not respond to the targeted interventions; they may require more individualized interventions provided in Tier 3. For students who do not respond to Tier 3 intensive interventions, referral to special education may be warranted.