SUBAREA I. FOUNDATIONS OF LITERACY

COMPETENCY 1.0 UNDERSTAND THEORIES OF LITERACY ACQUISITION AND DEVELOPMENT

KNOWLEDGE OF THE SIGNIFICANT THEORIES, APPROACHES, PRACTICES, AND PROGRAMS FOR DEVELOPING READING SKILLS AND READING COMPREHENSION[tac91]

Decoding

In the late l960s and the l970s, many reading specialists, most prominently Fries[TAR2] (l962), believed that successful decoding resulted in reading comprehension. This meant that if children could sound out the words, they would then automatically be able to comprehend them. Many teachers of reading and many reading texts still subscribe to this theory.

Asking Questions

Another theory or approach to the teaching of reading that gained currency in the late 1960s and the early 1970s was the importance of asking inferential and critical thinking questions of the reader, which would challenge and engage the children in the text. This approach to reading went beyond the literal level of what was stated in the text to an inferential level of using text clues to make predictions and to a critical level of involving the child in evaluating the text. While asking engaging and thought-provoking questions is still viewed as part of the teaching of reading, it is only viewed currently as a component of the teaching of reading.

Comprehension “Skills”

As various reading theories, practices, and approaches percolated during the l970s and l980s, many educators and researchers in the field came to believe that the teacher of reading had to teach a set of discrete “Comprehension Skills” (Otto et al. l977[TAR3]). Therefore the reading teacher became the teacher of each individual comprehension skill. Children in such classrooms came away with the main idea, sequence, cause and effect, and other concepts that were supposed to make them better able to comprehend. However, did it make them lifelong readers?

Transactional Approach

During the late l970s and early l980s, researchers in the field of education, psychology, and linguistics began to examine how the reader comprehends. Among them was Louise Rosenblatt, who posited that reading is a transaction between the reader and the text. It is Rosenblatt (l978) who explained successful reading as the reader constructing a meaning from the text that reflected both the reader and the text. She described two general purposes for reading: *efferent* and *aesthetic*. Efferent reading is looking for and remembering information to use functionally. Examples would be filling out a job application, reading a story in preparation for a test, or reading a newspaper article to find out who won the state basketball championship. Aesthetic reading is done to connect one's own life to the text, to be swept away by the beauty of a poem, or to respond emotionally to a book such as *Bridge to Terabithia.*

These differing purposes call for somewhat different reading strategies: one might skim the newspaper article for basketball information but read a poem closely 10 times and create mental images of different passages. Lastly, when children are asked to read all fiction efferently (What's the setting? What's the main conflict in the plot? There will be a test on this on Thursday!), it can thwart a child's joy in the written word and work against the student's desire to be a lifelong reader.

BOTTOM-UP, TOP-DOWN, INTERACTIONAL THEORIES OF READING

Bottom-up theories of reading assume that children learn from part to whole, starting with the smallest segments possible. Instruction begins with a strong phonics approach, learning letter-sound relationships, and often using basal readers or *decodable books*. Decodable books are vocabulary-controlled using language from word families with high predictability. Thus we get sentences like "Nan has a tan fan." Reading is seen as skills-based, and the skills are taught one at a time.

Top-down theories of reading suggest that reading begins with the reader's knowledge, not the print. Children are seen as having a drive to construct meaning. This stance views reading as moving from the whole to the parts. An early top-down theory was the *whole word* approach. Children memorized high-frequency words to assist them in reading the Dick and Jane books of the 1930s. Then teachers helped children discover letter-sound correspondences in what they read. A more recent top-down theory is the *whole language* approach. This approach was influenced by research on how young children learned language. It was thought that children could learn to read as naturally as they learned to talk. Children were surrounded by print in their classrooms, using quality literature often printed in Big Books, and were viewed as writers from the start. For example, kindergarten children were asked to keep journals. Advocates of whole language viewed the "skill'em-drill'em-and kill'em" approach based on bottom-up theories as a deadly dull introduction to the world of reading.

Interactive theories of reading combine the strengths of both bottom-up and top-down approaches. Teachers need to be able to teach decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension skills to support children's drive for meaning and desire for a stimulating exchange with high-quality literary texts from their earliest days in school. Strategies include shared, guided, and independent reading, Big Books, reading and writing workshops, and the like. Today this approach is called the *balanced literacy approach.* It is considered to be a synthesis of the best from bottom-up and top-down methods.

LITERACY AND LITERACY LEARNING

To be literate in the 21st century means more than being able to read and write. To live well and happily in today's society, an individual has to be able to read, not only newspapers and books, but also e-mails, blogs, directions for how to use one's cell phone, and the like. There has evolved a disconnect between the isolated reading comprehension skills the schools were teaching and the literacy skills, including listening and speaking, that are crucial for employment and personal and academic success. Thornburg[TAR4] (l992, 2003) has also noted that technology capacities and the ability to communicate online are now integral parts of our sense of literacy.

J. David Cooper (2004) views literacy as reading, writing, thinking, listening, viewing, and discussing. These are not viewed as separate activities or components of instruction, but rather as developing and being nurtured simultaneously and interactively. Children learn these abilities by engaging in authentic explorations, readings, projects, and experiences.

Just as in learning how to ride a bike, where one goes through various approximations before learning how to actually ride the bike, so too does the reader, with the scaffold (support) of the teacher, go through various approximations before developing his/her own independent literacy skills and capacities.

Emergent literacy is the concept that young children are emerging into reading and writing with no real beginning or ending point. Children are introduced into the word of print as soon as their parents read board books to them at the age of 1 or 2. When children scribble write or use invented spelling during the preschool years, they reveal themselves as detectives of the written word, having watched parents and teachers make lists, write thank-you notes, or leave messages. This view of the reader assumes that all children have a drive to make meaning in print and will begin doing it almost on their own if surrounded by a print-rich environment.

Reading readiness is an approach that is antithetical to emergent literacy in that it assumes all children must have mastered a sequence of reading skills *before* they can begin to read. This approach stands in contrast to emergent literacy.

Language acquisition is continuous and never-ending. From the perspective of this theory and research, all children come to school with a language base that the school must build on. As a consequence of the connection between oral language and reading, it is important that schools build literacy experiences around the language the child brings to the school.

PRIOR KNOWLEDGE, SCHEMATA, BACKGROUND, AND COMPREHENSION

Schemata are structures that represent generic concepts stored in our memory (Rumelhart l980[TAR5]). Young children develop their schemata through experiences. Prior knowledge and the lack of experiences in some cases influence comprehension. The more closely the reader's experiences and schemata approximate those of the writer, the more likely the reader is to comprehend the text. It is obvious that for many children from non-native English language speaking backgrounds and perhaps for those from struggling socioeconomic family structures, schemata deficits indicate the need for intense teacher support as these children become emergent and early readers.

Often the teacher will have to model and scaffold for the child the steps to form a schemata from the information provided in a text.

Comprehension

Cooper defines comprehension as “a strategic process by which readers construct or assign meaning to a text by using the clues in the text and their own prior knowledge.” We view comprehension as a process where the reader transacts with the text to construct or assign meaning. Reading and writing are both interconnected and mutually supportive. Comprehension is a strategic process in which readers adjust their reading to suit their purpose and the type or genre of text they are reading. Narrative and expository texts require different reading approaches because of their different text structures.

Strategic readers also call into play their metacognitive capacities as they analyze texts so that they are self-aware of the skills needed to construct meaning from the text structure.

THE ROLE OF LITERATURE IN DEVELOPING LITERACY

The balanced literacy approach advocates the use of “real literature”—recognized works of the best of children’s fiction and nonfiction trade books and winners of such awards as the Newbery and Caldecott medals for helping children develop literacy. Balanced literacy advocates argue the following:

- Real literature engages young readers and assures that they will become lifelong readers.
- Real literature also offers readers a language base that can help them expand their expressiveness as readers and as writers.
- Real literature is easier to read and understand than grade-level texts

There are districts in the United States where the phonics-only approach is heavily embedded. However, the majority of school districts would describe their approach to reading as the balanced literacy approach, which includes phonics work as well as the use of real literature texts. To contrast the phonics and balanced literacy approaches as opposite is inaccurate, since a balanced approach includes both.

It is important to go online and to visit the key resources of the NCTE (National Council of Teachers of English) and the IRA (International Reading Association) to keep abreast of the latest research in the field.

COMPETENCY 2.0 UNDERSTAND THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG READING, WRITING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING

Reading, writing, listening, and speaking are the four main components of language arts at any grade level. They are interrelated and complement each other. By ensuring that all four of these strands are woven into your language arts classes, you can ensure that you provide a balance of experiences to give students the instruction and support that they need. With such a balance, the students are able to integrate all of the English language processes and build on their prior knowledge and experiences.

Speaking and listening may be viewed as separate from reading and writing, but all four form the main communication system of the English language. They are interdependent and all other forms of communication depend on the ability to speak and listen. They are also the foundation for many other language skills, which is why teachers should provide ample opportunities for students to speak and listen in class as part of the daily routine. Classrooms are places where talk flows freely, and by taking advantage of this talk to find out where students are in their thinking about topics, themes, and responses to literature, teachers can easily assess this component of language arts. When students can express ideas in their own words, it helps them to make meaning of their experiences with reading.

Although students don’t have particular problems with speaking in class, listening is something that has to be nurtured and taught. Good listeners will respond emotionally, imaginatively, and intellectually to what they hear. Students need to be taught how to respond to presentations by their classmates in ways that are not harmful or derogatory in any way. There are also different types of listening that the teacher can develop in the students:

- Appreciative listening to enjoy an experience;
- Attentive listening to gain knowledge; and
- Critical listening to evaluate arguments and ideas.

COMPETENCY 3.0 UNDERSTAND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

Sociologically, schools have faced many unique challenges. As schools are charged with educating all students within the neighborhood, changes in demographics and economics have impacted schools. While laws have been set up to eliminate segregation in schools, many inner-city children attend highly segregated schools based on the demographic compositions of their neighborhoods. For some time, districts instituted bussing policies to combat this. This is where a student in one neighborhood might be put on a bus and sent to a school in another neighborhood with a different ethnic or racial mixture. Many districts did find that this was impractical, as it caused some students to have to spend hours per day on busses when they could have been doing other more productive things.

Many districts around the country are just learning how to deal with larger immigrant populations, as more immigrants leave the historically popular entry points such as Texas and California. Those districts must learn how to develop appropriate English language programs to assist their children in learning English; they must also learn to work with parents who may be scared about involvement with schools.

In reading, this is a particular challenge. Diversity increases the difficulty in teaching vocabulary and contextual information. It is important for teachers to keep cultural differences in mind so they can help provide additional background knowledge if necessary. Also, they can include a variety of texts, which different cultures may better relate to, encouraging greater comprehension.

Some of the most prominent learning theories in education today include brain-based learning and multiple intelligence theory. Supported by recent brain research, brain-based learning suggests that knowledge about the way the brain retains information enables educators to design the most effective learning environments. As a result, researchers have developed the following 12 principles that relate knowledge about the brain to teaching practices:

- The brain is a complex adaptive system.
- The brain is social.
- The search for meaning is innate.
- We use patterns to learn more effectively.
- Emotions are crucial to developing patterns.
- Each brain perceives and creates parts and the whole simultaneously.
- Learning involves focused and peripheral attention.
- Learning involves conscious and unconscious processes.
- We have at least two ways of organizing memory.
- Learning is developmental.
- Complex learning is enhanced by challenge (and inhibited by threat).

- Every brain is unique.

Educators can use these principles to help design methods and environments in their classrooms to maximize student learning in the area of reading.

Multiple intelligence theory, developed by Howard Gardner, suggests that students learn in (at least) eight different ways. These include visually/spatially, musically, verbally, logically/mathematically, interpersonally, intrapersonally, bodily/kinesthetically, and naturalistically.

The most current learning theory of constructivist learning promotes allowing students to build their own understanding of concepts through interactions with materials, ideas, and one another. For constructivist teachers, the belief is that students create their own knowledge through processing, observing, and reflecting on the world around them. Students are constantly constructing new ideas or schema, which serve as frameworks for learning and teaching. Researchers have shown that the constructivist model is comprised of the following four components:

1. The learner creates knowledge.
2. The learner constructs and makes meaningful new knowledge into existing knowledge.
3. The learner shapes and constructs knowledge by life experiences and social interactions.
4. In constructivist learning communities, the student, teacher, and classmates establish knowledge cooperatively on a daily basis.

Constructivist learning for students is dynamic and ongoing. For constructivist teachers, the classroom becomes a place where students are encouraged to interact with the instructional process by asking questions and posing new answers to old theories. The use of cooperative learning, which encourages students to work in supportive learning environments using their own ideas to stimulate questions and propose outcomes, is a major aspect of a constructivist classroom.

Metacognitive learning theory deals with "the study of how to help the learner gain understanding about how knowledge is constructed and about the conscious tools for constructing that knowledge" (Joyce and Weil 1996[TAR6]). The cognitive approach to learning involves the teacher's understanding that teaching the student to process his/her own learning and mastery of skill provides the greatest learning and retention opportunities in the classroom. Students are taught to develop concepts and teach themselves skills in problem solving and critical thinking. The student becomes an active participant in the learning process, and the teacher facilitates that conceptual and cognitive learning process.

Social and behavioral theories look at the social interactions of students in the classroom that instruct or impact learning opportunities. The psychological approaches behind both theories are subject to individual variables that are learned and applied either proactively or negatively in the classroom. The stimulus of the classroom can promote situations conducive to learning or evoke behavior that is counterproductive for both students and teachers. Students are social beings that normally gravitate toward action in the classroom, so teachers must be cognizant in planning classroom environments that provide both focus and engagement in maximizing learning opportunities.

Designing classrooms that provide optimal academic and behavioral support for a diversity of students in the classroom can be challenging for teachers. The ultimate goal for both students and teachers is creating a safe and productive learning environment.

COMPETENCY 4.0 UNDERSTAND FORMAL AND INFORMAL TECHNIQUES FOR ASSESSING LITERACY SKILLS

Assessment is the practice of collecting information about children's progress, and evaluation is the process of judging the children's responses to determine how well they are achieving particular goals or demonstrating reading skills.

Assessment and evaluation are intricately connected in the literacy classroom. Assessment is necessary because teachers need ways to determine what students are learning and how they are progressing. In addition, assessment can be a tool that can also help students take ownership of their own learning and become partners in their ongoing development as readers and writers. In this day of public accountability, clear, definite, and reliable assessment creates confidence in public education.

There are two broad categories of assessment: *Informal* assessment utilizes observations and other non-standardized procedures to compile anecdotal and observational data/evidence of children's progress. It includes but is not limited to checklists, observations, and performance tasks. *Formal* assessment is composed of standardized tests and procedures carried out under circumscribed conditions. Formal assessments include state tests, standardized achievement tests, NAEP (National Assessment of Educational Progress) tests, and the like.

To be effective, assessment should have the following characteristics:

1. It should be an ongoing process with the teacher making informal or formal assessments on an ongoing basis. The assessment should be a natural part of the instruction and not intrusive.
2. The most effective assessment is integrated into ongoing instruction. Throughout the teaching and learning day, the child's written, spoken, and reading contributions to the class can be continually noted.
3. Assessment should reflect the child's actual reading and writing experiences. The child should be able to show that he or she can read and explain or react to a similar literary or expository work.
4. Assessment needs to be a collaborative and reflective process. Teachers can learn from what the children reveal about their own individual assessments. Children, even as early as grade 2, should be supported by their teacher to continually and routinely ask themselves questions assessing their reading. They might ask, "Am I understanding what the author wanted to say?" "What can I do to improve my reading?" and "How can I use what I have read to learn more about this topic?" Teachers need to be informed by their own professional observation *and* by children's comments as they assess and customize instruction for children.

5. Quality assessment is multidimensional and may include but not be limited to samples of writings, student retellings, running records, anecdotal teacher observations, self-evaluations, and records of independent reading. From this multidimensional data, the teacher can derive a consistent level of performance and design additional instruction that will enhance the child's reading performance.
6. Assessment must take into account children's age and ethnic/cultural patterns of learning.
7. Assessment should lead to teaching children from their strengths, not their weaknesses. Find out what reading behaviors children demonstrate well and then design instruction to support those behaviors.
8. Assessment should be part of children's learning process and not done *to* them, but rather done *with* them.

CHARACTERISTICS AND USES OF CRITERION-REFERENCED AND NORM-REFERENCED TESTS TO ASSESS READING DEVELOPMENT AND IDENTIFY READING DIFFICULTIES

Criterion-referenced are tests where the children are measured against criteria or guidelines that are uniform for all the test takers. Therefore, by definition, no special questions, formats, or considerations are made for the test taker who is either from a different linguistic/cultural background or is already identified as a struggling reader/writer. On a criterion-referenced test, it is possible that a child test taker can score 100% because the child may have actually been exposed to all of the concepts taught and mastered them. A child's score on such a test would indicate which of the concepts have already been taught and what he or she needs additional review or support to master.

Two criterion-referenced tests that are commonly used to assess children's reading achievement are the Diagnostic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) and the Stanford Achievement Test. DIBELS measures progress in literacy from kindergarten to grade 3. It can be downloaded from the Internet free at dibels.uoregon.edu. The Stanford is designed to measure individual children's achievement in key school subjects, including reading skills. Both DIBELS and the Stanford are group-administered.

Degrees of Reading Power (DRP)

This test is targeted to assess how well children understand the meaning of written text in real-life situations. It is supposed to measure the process of children's reading, not the products of reading, such as identifying the main idea and author's purpose.

CTPIII

This is a criterion-referenced test that measures verbal and quantitative ability in grades 3–12. It is targeted to help differentiate among the most capable students (those who rank above the 80th percentile on other standardized tests). This is a test that emphasizes higher-order thinking skills and process-related reading comprehension questions.

Norm-Referenced

This is a test in which the children are measured against one another. Scores on this test are reported in percentiles. Each percentile indicates the percent of the testing population whose scores were the same as or lower than a particular child's score. A percentile is defined as a score on a scale of 100 showing the percentage of a distribution that is equal to or below it. This type of state standardized norm-referenced test is being used in most districts today in response to the No Child Left Behind Act. While this type of test does not help track the individual reader's progress in his/her ongoing reading development, it does permit comparisons across groups.

There are many more standardized norm-referenced tests to assess children's reading than there are criterion-referenced. In the norm-referenced tests, scores are based on how well a child does compared to others, usually on the local, state, and national level. *If* the norming groups on the tests are reflective of the children being tested (for example, the same spread of minority, low income, and gifted students), the results are more trustworthy.

One of the best known norm-referenced test is the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. It assesses student achievement in various school subjects and has several subtests in reading. Other examples of norm-referenced tests used around the country are the Metropolitan Achievement Tests, the Terra Nova-2, and the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test-4. These are all group tests. An individual test reading specialists use with students is the Woodcock Reading Mastery Test.

CONCEPTS OF VALIDITY, RELIABILITY, AND BIAS IN TESTING

Validity is how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure. Teacher-made tests are therefore not generally extremely valid, although they may be an appropriate measure for the validity of the concept the teacher wants to assess for his/her own children's achievement.

Reliability is the consistency of the test. This is measured by whether the test will indicate the same score for the child who takes it more than once.

Bias in testing occurs when the information within the test or the information required to respond to a multiple choice question or constructed response (essay question on the test) is information that is not available to some test takers who come from a different cultural, ethnic, linguistic, or socioeconomic background than do the majority of the test takers. Since they have not had the same prior linguistic, social, or cultural experiences that the majority of test takers have had, these test takers are at a disadvantage in taking the test, and no matter what their actual mastery of the material taught by the teacher, they cannot address the biased questions. Generally, other non-biased questions are given to them and eventually the biased questions are removed from the examination.

To solidify what might be abstract to the reader, on a recent reading test in one school system, the grade 4 reading comprehension multiple choice had questions about the well-known fairy tale of the gingerbread boy. These questions were simple and accessible for most of the children in the class, but two children who recently arrived from the Dominican Republic did not learn English in the United States. They were reading on a grade 4 level, but in their Dominican grade school, the story of the gingerbread boy was not a major one. Therefore, a question about this story on the standardized reading test did demonstrate examiner bias and was not fair to these test takers.

THE CHARACTERISTICS AND USES OF FORMAL[tac97] AND INFORMAL ASSESSMENTS

Informal Assessments

A running record of children's oral reading progress in the early grades (kindergarten through third) is a pivotal informal assessment. It supports the teacher in deciding whether a book a child is reading is matched to his/her stage of reading development. In addition, this assessment allows the teacher to analyze a child's miscues to see which cueing systems and strategies the child uses and to determine which other systems the child might use more effectively. Finally, the running record offers a graphic account of a child's oral reading.

Generally, a teacher should maintain an annotated class notebook with pages set aside for all the children, or individual notebooks for each child. One of the benefits of using running records as an informal assessment is that they can be used with any text and can serve as a tool for teaching, rather than an instrument to report on children's status in class.

Another point about using running records is that they can be taken repeatedly and frequently by the teacher, so that patterns of error can be truly observed. This in turn provides the educator with sufficient information to analyze the child's reading over time. As any mathematician or scientist knows, the more samples of a process you gather over time, the more likely the teacher is to get an accurate picture of the child's reading needs.

Using the notations that Marie Clay developed and shared in her *An Observation Study of Early Literacy Achievement*, Sharon Taberski offers in her book *On Solid Ground* a lengthy walk-through keeping a running record of children's reading. She writes in the child's miscue on the top line of her running record above the text word. Taberski advises the teacher to make all the miscue notations as the child reads, since this allows the teacher to get additional information about how and why the child makes miscue choices. Additionally, the teacher should note self-corrections (coded SC) when the child is monitoring his/her own reading, crosschecks information, and uses additional information.

As part of the informal assessment of primary grade reading, it is important to record the child's word insertions, omissions, requests for help, and attempts to get the word. In informal assessment, the rate of accuracy can be estimated by dividing the child's errors by the total words read.

Results of a running record assessment can be used to select the best setting for the child's reading. If a child reads from 95% to 100% correct, he or she is ready for independent reading. If the child reads from 92% to 97% right, he or she is ready for guided reading. Below 92%, the child needs a read-aloud or shared reading activity. Note that these percentages are slightly different from those one would use to match books to readers

One of the increasingly popular and meaningful forms of informal assessment is the compilation of the literacy portfolio. What is particularly compelling about this type of informal portfolio is that artists, television directors, authors, architects, and photographers use portfolios in their careers and jobs. This is a most authentic format for documenting children's literacy growth over time. The portfolio is not only a significant professional informal assessment tool for the teacher, but a vehicle and format for the child reader to take ownership of his or her progress over time. It models a way of compiling one's reading and writing products as a lifelong learner, which is the ultimate goal of reading instruction.

Portfolios can include the following four categories of materials:

1. Work samples: These can include children's story maps, webs, K-W-L charts, pictures, illustrations, storyboards, and writings about the stories that they have read.
2. Records of independent reading and writing: These can include the children's journals, notebooks, or logs of books read with the names of the authors, titles of the books, date completed, and pieces related to books completed or in progress.
3. Checklists and surveys: These include checklists designed by the teacher for reading development, writing development, ownership checklists, and general interest surveys.
4. Self-evaluation forms: These are the children's own evaluations of their reading and writing process framed in their own words. They can be simple templates with starting sentences such as the following:

    a. I am really proud of the way I . . .
    b. I feel one of my strengths as a reader is . . .
    c. To improve the way I read aloud I need to . . .
    d. To improve my reading I should . . .

Generally at the beginning of a child's portfolio in grade 3 or above there is a letter to the reader explaining the work that will be found in the portfolio, and from the fourth-grade level up, children write a brief reflection detailing their feelings and judgments about their growth as readers and writers.

When teachers are maintaining the portfolios for mandated school administrative review, district review, or even for their own research, they often prepare summary sheets. These provide identifying data on the children, a timeline of the teacher's review of the portfolio, plus professional comments on the extent to which the portfolio documents satisfactory and ongoing growth in reading.

Portfolios can be used beneficially for child/teacher and, of course, parent/teacher conversations to review the child's progress, discuss areas of strength, set future goals, make plans for future learning activities, and evaluate what should remain in the portfolio and what needs to be cleared out for new materials.

Rubrics

Holistic scoring involves assessing a child's ability to construct meaning through writing. It uses a scale called a rubric, which can range from 0 to 4.

0– This indicates the piece cannot be scored because it does not respond to the topic or is illegible.
1– The writing does respond to the topic but does not cover it accurately.
2- This piece of writing does respond to the topic but lacks sufficient details or elaboration.
3– This piece fulfills the purpose of the writing assignment and has sufficient development (which refers to details, examples, and elaboration of ideas).
4– This response has the most details, best organization, and presents a well-expressed reaction to the original writer's piece.

Miscue analysis

This is a procedure that allows the teacher a look at the reading process. By definition, the miscue is an oral response different from the text being read. Sometimes miscues are also called unexpected responses or errors. By studying a student's miscues from an oral reading sample, the teacher can determine which cues and strategies the student is correctly using or not using in constructing meaning. Of course, the teacher can customize instruction to meet the needs of this particular student.

Informal reading inventories (IRI)

These are a series of samples of texts prearranged in stages of increasing difficulty. Listening to children read through these inventories, the teacher can pinpoint their skill level and the additional concepts they need to work on.