Gateways

Pedagogical Research Report **Table of Contents**

Introduction	2
Strand 1: Instructional Approaches	3
Strand 2: Instructional Content	9
Strand 3: Universal Access	. 21
Strand 4: Assessment	. 29
Works Cited	. 32
Professional Development	. 37

Introduction

On January 8, 2002, President George W. Bush signed into law the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. This law contains the most comprehensive reforms of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act since it was enacted in 1965. One fundamental principle of the law is that schools and teachers implement teaching methods that have been proven to work – effective teaching methods that have been identified through sound research.

The purpose of this document is to demonstrate clearly and explicitly the scientific research upon which *Gateways* is based. The document is organized by the four major elements of effective instruction that underpin the program: using effective instructional approaches, teaching content that is important for student success in reading and language arts, providing universal access to instruction, and utilizing assessment effectively to guide instruction. These strands represent the key components of effective literature and reading instruction as identified by research.

To show how the strands are connected to research and the content of *Gateways*, we have organized this booklet by the following sections within each strand:

Defining the Strand

This section summarizes the terminology and findings of the research.

Excerpts from the Research that Guided the Development of *Gateways*

This section identifies subtopics within each strand and provides excerpts from relevant research on each subtopic within the strand.

From Research to Practice

This section explains how the research data is exemplified in *Gateways*. For each subtopic, you will find a chart identifying page numbers of illustrative examples of the research-based instructional methodology.

A list of all works cited is included at the end of this booklet.

What Does Scientifically-Based Research Tell Us About Effective Instructional Approaches in the Language Arts Intervention Classroom?

DEFINING THE STRAND INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

Effective elementary and middle school literature, reading, and language arts programs use instructional approaches that have been proven effective by research. A program that includes appropriate instruction for all students will include the following approaches: direct and explicit instruction, the use of predictable instructional routines, the integration of skills, connections with other content areas, and an emphasis on increasing student motivation and ownership of the work.

EXCERPTS FROM THE RESEARCH THAT GUIDED THE DEVELOPMENT OF **GATEWAYS**

Direct Instruction

"The term *direct instruction* has been used by researchers to refer to a pattern of teaching that consists of the teacher's explaining a new concept or skill to a large group of students, having them test their understanding by practicing under teacher direction (that is, controlled practice), and encouraging them to continue to practice under teacher guidance (guided practice)." (Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun 2000)

"The results of this study show the significant impact of direct instruction and cooperative learning on teaching students specific reading-comprehension strategies. Clearly, direct instruction on comprehension strategies, a component of both experimental treatments, is an important aspect of effective teaching. Direct instruction involves teachers presenting comprehension and metacomprehension strategies, and students practicing the strategies with teachers guiding them and giving them corrective feedback. In this study, the two experimental treatments that incorporated direct instruction yielded significant and substantial effects

on students' achievement. This evidence replicates the findings in a number of previous studies. . . . " (Stevens, Slavin, and Farnish 1991)

"The rationale for the explicit teaching of comprehension skills is that comprehension can be improved by teaching students to use specific cognitive strategies or to reason strategically when they encounter barriers to understanding what they are reading. Readers acquire these strategies informally to some extent, but explicit or formal instruction in the application of comprehension strategies has been shown to be highly effective in enhancing understanding. The teacher generally demonstrates such strategies for students until the students are able to carry them out independently." (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development 2000)

"Teachers should also demonstrate how to apply each strategy successfully – what it is, how it is carried out, and when and why it should be used. . . . Instead of just talking about a strategy, teachers need to illustrate the processes they use by thinking aloud, or modeling mental processes, while they read." (Fielding and Pearson 1994)

Predictable Routines

"Routines and arrangements, then, are things that the teacher does to make it more likely that the rules can and will be followed. We can think of these teacherbased pieces as the structures of effective instruction (grouping, curricula, interaction, etc.). When considered as instruction, consistency is a crucial component." (Scott, Park, Swain-Bradway, and Landers 2007)

"In general, researchers found that when effective teachers teach well-structured subjects, they

- begin a lesson with a short review of previous, prerequisite learning.
- begin a lesson with a short statement of goals.

- present new material in small steps, with student practice after each step.
- give clear and detailed instructions and explanations.
- provide a high level of active practice for all students.
- ask a large number of questions, check for student understanding, and obtain responses from all students.
- guide students during initial practice.
- provide systematic feedback and corrections.
- provide explicit instruction and practice for seatwork exercises and, where necessary, monitor students during seatwork." (Rosenshine and Stevens 1986)

Integrated Skills

"Research supports the idea that writing instruction also improves reading comprehension. For example, students who are given the opportunity to write in conjunction with reading show more evidence of critical thinking about reading. Likewise, many of the skills involved in writing—such as grammar and spelling—reinforce reading skills." (Biancarosa and Snow 2006)

"These studies show that reading and writing depend upon a common base of cognitive processes and knowledge, and that we have a particularly fertile understanding of what kinds of linguistic knowledge are shared between reading and writing, how the patterns of this knowledge sharing change with development, and how reading and writing influence each other. These studies have revealed even closer relations between reading and writing than those previously found and have extended our understanding of the bidirectionality of these relations (e.g., the sharing of knowledge between reading and writing can go either way, from reading to writing, or from writing to reading)[. . .]." (Shanahan 2006)

"This study also lends support to the hypothesis that strong links between the reading and writing systems exist at the word level (word recognition – spelling) and at the text level (comprehension – composition)." (Berninger, Abbott, Abbott, Graham, and Richards 2002)

Content-Area Connections

"There are several reasons why interdisciplinary teaching is important:

- 1. The brain searches for common patterns and connections. Thus history, properly enlivened by relevant literature, becomes a way of making meaning out of other content.
- 2. Every experience actually contains with it the seeds of many, and possibly all, disciplines. Thus recent developments in Eastern Europe involve history, geography, politics, comparative religion, economics, and social science[...].
- 3. One of the keys to understanding is what is technically called redundancy. In other words, if the same message can be packed in several ways, the receiver has a much better chance of grasping what is actually happening." (Caine and Caine 1991)

"Integrated instruction works best when there are clearly specified outcomes that take advantage of the best and most rigorous thinking of the disciplinary fields, but that go beyond this base to outcomes that would only be possible from integration. Integrated instruction works best when it makes children conscious of the connections being made and when it focuses their attention on the cultural differences that exist across disciplines and how to translate across these boundaries. Integrated instruction works best when, within the context of meaning, students are still given opportunities for enough instruction, guidance, and practice to allow them to become accomplished." (Shanahan 1997)

Student Motivation and Ownership

"Cooperative learning methods are instructional techniques in which students work in small groups to help one another master academic content or carry out group projects[. . .]. Motivational theories emphasize the idea that in groups working toward a common goal, students support one another's academic efforts, because each group member's success helps the group to succeed. Cognitive theories emphasize opportunities

for collaborating students to model higher order solutions for one another, and to provide immediate, context-appropriate explanations and feedback to one another." (Slavin 2002)

"[I]nstruction in metacognitive reading strategies and techniques can be conducted utilizing group instruction in a regular classroom by a classroom teacher. In addition, children can be convinced to use such strategies on their own and, therefore, assume control of their own learning." (Payne and Manning 1992)

"The results of these two studies show that providing students with a goal of learning to solve problems enhances their self-efficacy, skill, motivation, and task goal orientation and that these achievement outcomes also are promoted by allowing students to evaluate their performance capabilities or progress in skill acquisition." (Schunk 1996)

"Research has demonstrated that interest is one of the motivational variables that has a powerful positive effect on individuals' cognitive performance and affective experience. . . . " (Hidi and Boscolo 2006)

"The review of previous material helps prepare students for new learning and creates an initial sense of selfefficacy for learning. Students are apt to believe that if they understand prerequisite material, they will be able to learn the new material. Presenting new material, especially in small steps, allows them to be successful, and successful performances constitute an important means for sustaining student motivation[...]." (Schunk, Pintrich, and Meece 2008)

"Periodic reviews in which students perform well convey that students have learned and retained the information, which enhances motivation for further learning[...]." (Schunk, Pintrich, and Meece 2008)

GATEWAYS FROM RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Direct Instruction

Asking students to read a text or explaining to them what is happening in a text may help them gain knowledge of that particular example. However, these activities do not teach students how to read and comprehend on their own. To be effective, comprehension instruction must show students, directly and explicitly, how to use strategies to comprehend a text. Gateways provides direct instruction in numerous strategies that students can use independently to understand texts. This focused and fast-paced instruction clearly articulates learning goals while motivating and engaging the students. Teachers use fully-modeled lessons with clear protocols and structured discussions that continuously monitor each student's understanding of the strategies. Such strategies enable both struggling/dependent readers and independent readers to read and comprehend texts that are difficult for them. For examples of direct/ explicit strategy instruction, see the following pages in Gateways.

Level	Fully-Modeled Instruction	Teacher Modeling of Skill	Corrective Feedback	Structured Student Interaction	Explicit Instructional Time	Clear Instructional Goals
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 262	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 268	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 415	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 464	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 5	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. 6, 33 Practice Book Volume 2: p. 214
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 271	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 23	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 375	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 293	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 5	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 6-7, 30-32 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 1
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 28	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 182	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 46	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 566	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 112	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 6-7, 39-41 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 1
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. 49-50	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 552	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 200	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 286	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 401	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 6-7, 38-41 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 1
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 112	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 354	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 21	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 642	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 2-3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 6-7, 39-42 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 1

Predictable Routines

Providing predictable routines for students sets the stage for increased learning and achievement. Students behave better, and therefore learn better, when they can predict the instructional routines in a classroom. **Gateways** embeds Unit, Chapter, and Lesson routines into its instructional framework. Predictability in the classroom maximizes instructional time and fosters instructional consistency. However, it is also important to keep the activities and interactive opportunities varied, and *Gateways* is careful to make the lessons diverse even as their structure remains predictable. This helps to minimize students' anxiety, which builds their confidence and facilitates their learning. For examples of how *Gateways* provides guidance in setting predictable instructional routines, see pages 22-27 in the Program Overview and the following pages in each Level's Implementation Guide for Teachers.

Level	Predictable Routines
1A	Implementation Guide for Teachers: 34-69
1B	Implementation Guide for Teachers: 34-59
2	Implementation Guide for Teachers: 34-59
3	Implementation Guide for Teachers: 36-61
4	Implementation Guide for Teachers: 36-61

Integrated Skills

Integrating skills is particularly important in reading and language arts classrooms because of the interconnectedness of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Students more readily learn and retain instruction when it integrates skills, which allows students to create new cognitive pathways for learning and retention. *Gateways* supplies the framework for teachers to integrate the various linguistic strategies and skills effectively. For examples of integrated skills, see pages 28-31 in Gateways Program Overview.

Content-Area Connections

Making content-area connections is essential in reading and language arts classrooms because of the fundamental nature of the skills and strategies being taught. Students need to read, write, listen, speak, view, and create media presentations across the disciplines. **Gateways** suggests content-area connections throughout the program that teachers and students can use to bridge learning across the disciplines. Each unit's instruction, for example, is designed around a science or social studies theme-based topic. For examples of content-area connections, see the tabs that denote the beginnings of new chapters in the Teacher's Guide and following pages.

Level	Content-Area Connections
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. ii–iii, 2–4
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. ii–iii, 2–4
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. ii–iii, 2–4
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. ii–iii, 2–4
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. ii–iii, 2–4

Student Motivation and Ownership

Motivation is an internal process that allows a person to initiate work, to continue with that work, and to see it through to completion. Ownership of learning is the feeling of individual satisfaction students get when their motivation leads to academic success. Increasing student motivation and ownership is essential because these influence how and what students learn. *Gateways* provides specific strategies and instructional approaches that are designed to develop these crucial factors. Daily agendas are shown at the beginning of every lesson to encourage students to take responsibility for each learning objective. At the end of each lesson, students return to this agenda to check off each objective accomplished, giving them the opportunity to visually track their own progress. Structured Student Interactions compel students to actively participate in their learning. Rubrics and charts promote self-evaluation and ownership. Utilizing scaffolded lessons and graphic organizers, Gateways keeps the instructional path focused on the gradual release from teacher responsibility to student responsibility. For examples of instructional approaches designed to increase student motivation and ownership, see the following pages.

Level	Reader's Workshop	Writer's Workshop	Structured Student Interaction	Daily Agenda of Learning Objectives	Self- Evaluation Writing Rubric	Fluency Progress Chart	Analyzing Skills Assessment Results
1A	Students discretely practice and apply each strategy.	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 413	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 104	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 61	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 214-216 Writer's Notebook: p. 85	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 430	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 219
1B	Students discretely practice and apply each strategy.	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 399	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 484	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 1	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 212-213 Writer's Notebook: p. 94	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 372	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 197
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 92-93	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 194	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 92	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 1	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 254-256 Writer's Notebook: p. 10	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 504	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 257-259
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 86-87	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 309	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 254	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 326	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 250-252 Writer's Notebook: p. 10	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 465	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 253-255
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. 240-241	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 309	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 268	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 45	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 262-264 Writer's Notebook: p. 10	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 465	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 265-267

What Does Scientifically-Based Research Tell Us About **Effective Instructional Content?**

DEFINING THE STRAND INSTRUCTIONAL CONTENT IN **ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS**

The goals of English language arts are: to develop the student's ability to read independently—to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate a wide range of texts; to read for enjoyment as well as for information; to make inferences, interpret, and apply what they have read; and to build on the student's ability to communicate effectively in a variety of contexts. An effective English language arts curriculum requires that students be taught strategies for comprehension and ensures that struggling readers have time to develop the comprehension skills they lack. There must also be explicit instruction in vocabulary and word study to allow students to grow as readers and writers. In addition, all students benefit from instruction designed to improve the logic and correctness of their written communications, and this necessitates instruction in writing, spelling, and conventions.

EXCERPTS FROM THE RESEARCH THAT GUIDED THE DEVELOPMENT OF **GATEWAYS**

Vocabulary

"The findings on vocabulary yielded several specific implications for teaching reading. First, vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly. Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important. Learning in rich contexts, incidental learning, and use of computer technology all enhance the acquisition of vocabulary. Direct instruction should include task restructuring as necessary and should actively engage the student." (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development 2000)

"Effective instruction with word meanings 1) relates what students know to the word receiving attention; 2) shows the relationship of the word targeted for

instruction to other words; 3) provides opportunities for students to use the word they are learning in thoughtful ways." (Durkin 2003)

"One of the strongest findings about vocabulary instruction, whether direct instruction or learning words from context, is that multiple encounters are required before a word is really known[...]." (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2002)

"Over the course of our vocabulary research, we compared a group of students who had received rich instruction to two other groups of students: one group who had not been instructed, and another group who had received traditional, definition-based instruction. . . . the pattern of results was that students who received rich, frequent instruction did better on a variety of measures." (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2002)

"Based on these trends in the data, the Panel offers the following implications for practice:

- 1. Vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly.
- 2. Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important.
- 3. Learning in rich contexts is valuable for vocabulary learning.
- 4. Vocabulary tasks should be restructured when necessary.
- 5. Vocabulary learning should entail active engagement in learning tasks.
- 6. Computer technology can be used to help teach vocabulary.
- 7. Vocabulary can be acquired through incidental learning.
- 8. How vocabulary is assessed and evaluated can have differential effects on instruction.

 Dependence on a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning." (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development 2000)

"Effective vocabulary instruction for adolescent newcomers [English learners who are currently enrolled in Grades 6 through 12 who have attended an Englishspeaking school for fewer than two years] is *explicit*, systematic, extensive, and intensive. To be explicit, it must include not only direct teachings of the meanings of specific key words but also include direct instruction in effective word-learning strategies, such as breaking words down into parts, using contextual clues, and using glossaries and dictionaries as references. To be systematic, teachers must thoughtfully choose words that are not specific to any one particular text, and create multiple opportunities for meaningful exposure to the words and their meanings. To be extensive, vocabulary instruction should be incorporated into virtually every lesson, every day, and across the curriculum[...]. Finally, to be intensive, vocabulary instruction should teach for depth of knowledge, giving students an understanding of multiple meanings of words, relations with other words, and different forms of words." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006b)

"Direct instruction in vocabulary can be an effective way to enrich students' language abilities. To make instruction most effective, it should focus on words that students are likely to meet often and that are useful to them. Both formal and informal opportunities should be used to create vocabulary learning that engages students' thinking and offers a variety of ways to apply the words learned. Words introduced to students should remain part of the vocabulary program so that students continue to reinforce and enrich their understanding of them. Attention given to context clues can be most beneficial if variations in contexts are discussed and students are exposed to models of how to integrate information from context to derive word meanings." (McKeown and Beck 2004)

"Academic English builds on and extends the learners' developing competence in the sociolinguistic component. It involves knowing an increased number of language functions. The functions include the

general ones of everyday English, such as apologizing, complaining, and making requests, as well as the more academic ones, such as signaling cause and effect, hypothesizing, generalizing, comparing, contrasting, explaining, describing, defining, justifying, giving examples, sequencing, and evaluating." (Scarcella 2003a)

"Equally important to note is that many of the ELs [English learners] who struggle academically have well-developed conversational English skills. By the middle school years, ELs rarely need instruction in basic conversational English, but they lack the academic English vocabulary to support learning from texts. Much of the language of academic texts is language that students only begin to encounter in middle school years, and have never otherwise been exposed to." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006a)

Fluency

"The model indicates clearly that accuracy in recognition is not sufficient for fluent reading. As teachers of reading, our goal should be to move beyond accuracy to automaticity—and automaticity is achieved only with practice." (Samuels, Schermer, and Reinking 1992)

"Other research evidence also shows that repeated exposure to the same words leads to improvements in fluency (Jenkins et al. 1984, Topping and Paul 1999). Increasing the amount of reading students do is important, because as words are encountered repeatedly, there are a number of beneficial outcomes, such as improvements in word recognition, speed, ease of reading, and comprehension." (Samuels 2002)

"Repeated reading is a technique that has students read and reread a text many times to improve reading fluency on indicators such as word recognition accuracy, reading speed, and oral reading expression. The NRP (2000) came out strongly in favor of repeated reading and similar techniques for promoting reading fluency, concluding that repeated reading procedures had a clear and positive effect on fluency at a variety of grade levels. This positive effect was found on variables such as word recognition, reading speed, and comprehension. The repeated reading studies reviewed

by the Panel were conducted in a variety of classrooms, and regular classroom teachers and special education teachers frequently carried out the procedures using widely available materials. This suggests the classroom readiness of repeated reading as a method for achieving fluency for nonimpaired students at least through grade 4, and for students with a variety of reading problems from elementary school through high school." (Samuels 2002)

"Each passage is read only four times because research by O'Shea, Sindelar, and O'Shea (1985) has shown that most of the gains in reading speed, word recognition error reduction, and expression in oral reading are acquired by the fourth reading. They concluded that four readings appear to be optimal[...]. (Samuels 2002)

Comprehension

"The rationale for the explicit teaching of comprehension skills is that comprehension can be improved by teaching students to use specific cognitive strategies or to reason strategically when they encounter barriers to understanding what they are reading. Readers acquire these strategies informally to some extent, but explicit or formal instruction in the application of comprehension strategies has been shown to be highly effective in enhancing understanding. The teacher generally demonstrates such strategies for students until the students are able to carry them out independently." (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development 2000)

"Effective comprehension strategy instruction is explicit, or direct. Research shows that explicit teaching techniques are particularly effective for comprehension strategy instruction. In explicit instruction, teachers tell readers why and when they should use strategies, what strategies to use, and how to apply them. The steps of explicit instruction typically include direct explanation, teacher modeling ('thinking aloud'), guided practice, and application.

Direct explanation. The teacher explains to students why the strategy helps comprehension and when to apply the strategy.

- *Modeling*. The teacher models, or demonstrates, how to apply the strategy, usually by 'thinking aloud' while reading the text that the students are using.
- Guided practice. The teacher guides and assists students as they learn how and when to apply the strategy.
- *Application*. The teacher helps students practice the strategy until they can apply it independently." (Center for the Improvement of Early Reading 2003)

"Researchers have collected much evidence that supports explicit strategy instruction. As teachers and researchers, we have observed firsthand the effects of strategy instruction on students. [...] The teaching of strategies empowers readers, particularly those who struggle, by giving them the tools they need to construct meaning from text." (Nokes and Dole 2004)

"[E]ffective comprehension instruction for ELLs [English language learners] and their classmates must be explicit and direct, must actively engage the student in monitoring and carefully selecting and reflecting upon her own use of strategies during the comprehension process. Students must also understand how this process has to be adjusted for the type of text (e.g., expository or narrative) being read, the purposes for reading (e.g., to learn about a science concept or to solve a math problem), and the format of the content (e.g., the format of instructions for a science lab or a primary document in social studies)." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006a)

"Consistent with findings for native English speakers, research indicates that adolescent newcomers [English language learners who are currently enrolled in Grades 6 through 12 who have attended an English-speaking school for fewer than two years] benefit from direct, explicit instruction in reading comprehension.[...] To be explicit, teachers must define, explain, discuss, and reinforce good comprehension practices in multiple contexts and across different text types (i.e., genres) of text." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006b)

"Effective adolescent literacy interventions must address reading comprehension. A number of excellent approaches have been shown to be effective in middle and high school contexts, but no one approach is necessarily better than another; the ideal intervention will tap more than one comprehension instructional approach. Possible approaches include

- comprehension strategies instruction, which is instruction that explicitly gives students strategies that aid them in comprehending a wide variety of texts;
- comprehension monitoring and metacognition instruction, which is instruction that teaches students to become aware of how they understand while they read;
- teacher modeling, which involves the teacher reading texts aloud, making her own use of strategies and practices apparent to her students;
- scaffolded instruction, which involves teachers giving high support for students practicing new skills and then slowly decreasing that support to increase student ownership and self-sufficiency. . . . (Biancarosa and Snow 2006)

Word Study and Spelling

"We found that morphology [the study of the structure of words] was related to reading comprehension and became more important as students grew older. Students with greater understanding of morphology also have higher reading comprehension scores when holding constant their word reading fluency. . . . [S]tudents' understanding of morphology was a better predictor of reading comprehension than their vocabulary level. In addition, we found that this relationship was the same for Spanish-speaking ELLs [English language learners] as for native English speakers in an urban setting." (Kieffer and Lesaux 2007)

"The conclusion that students with greater understanding of morphology are more successful at learning academic vocabulary and comprehending text is a strong argument for including morphology instruction in language and literacy programs, especially in urban settings." (Kieffer and Lesaux 2007)

"In order to provide ELLs [English language learners] with access to content-area curriculum and in turn to increase their academic achievement, effective vocabulary instruction must be frequent, intensive, systematic, and complex. [...] Vocabulary instruction must be based on an understanding of:

- the differences between conversational language and academic language;
- the difference between having a word label and having knowledge of the concept behind the word; many ELLs have the label but lack any kind of deep conceptual knowledge of the word;
- how words relate to one another (word families) and can be transformed into different words through the manipulation of word parts (roots, suffixes, affixes, prefixes);
- the interrelatedness of content-area knowledge, including the need to know multiple meanings for many words;
- the need for vocabulary instruction to occur through oral, reading, and writing activities; and
- the need for students to be equipped with strategies to learn words independently. (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006a)

"This means that not only can word recognition abilities of reading influence the spelling (and fluency) of composition, but also that learning to spell influences children's word recognition." (Shanahan 2006)

"The purpose of the study described in this article was to investigate the effects of traditional versus extendedword study spelling instruction for third-grade withinword spellers on overall orthographic achievement and transfer of orthographic knowledge to untaught words. Although the sample size was small (16 students) and included only within-word spellers, results from the different measures are promising. Over the course of the school year, students in the extended-word study group significantly outperformed those in the traditional spelling group in overall orthographic development and on one of two measures of transfer of low-frequency words. Treatment effects were strong across all significant measures." (Abbott 2001)

Conventions

"[A]pproaches that encourage students to think purposefully about language while writing to communicate meaning, and to reflect on this process, are more promising. For instance, a sentence-combining approach to grammar instruction, in which students are taught to use more complex and sophisticated sentence structures through activities in which they combine two or more basic sentences to build a meaningful composite sentence, can be effective in improving students' writing." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006b)

"Mastering sentence-construction skills is essential to learning to write. Limited sentence-construction skills may hinder a writer's ability to translate ideas into text. It may also inhibit or interfere with other composing processes, as developing writers must devote considerable cognitive effort to sentence construction. The authors examined whether instruction designed to improve sentence-construction skills was beneficial for more and less skilled 4th-grade writers. In comparison with peers receiving grammar instruction, students in the experimental treatment condition became more adept at combining simpler sentences into more complex sentences. For the experimental students, the sentence-combining skills produced improved story writing as well as the use of these skills when revising." (Saddler and Graham 2005)

"In addition, a recent study (Fearn and Farnan 2005) found that teaching students to focus on the function and practical application of grammar within the context of writing (versus teaching grammar as an independent activity) produced strong and positive effects on students' writing." (Graham and Perin 2007)

"One of the most powerful ways to enable students to develop the skills necessary to write effectively is to teach grammar within the context of writing. When students first learn the tools of writing and grammar-wrangling—the seven parts of speech, six phrases, and three clauses—and then consciously and deliberately use them in their writing repeatedly (especially in the drafting and revision stages of the writing process), they will undergo transformations from being uninformed (and often struggling) writers to becoming

more informed, independent, and reflective writers." (Polette 2008)

"When grammar is taught as a means of communication and construction, English language learners (ELLs) will become more proficient in using the conventions of English for genuine purposes. Moreover, by learning how to use writer's tools, ELL students will make gains in their understanding of English (Pennington 1995)." (Polette 2008)

Writing

"Though much vocabulary and syntax may be acquired through informal interaction, the range of academic-language skills—which includes the linguistic structures used to summarize, analyze, evaluate, and combine sentences; compose and write text; interpret graphs, charts, and word problems; and extract information from texts (Fillmore and Snow 2000, Scarcella 1996)—must not be left to chance encounters; it must be developed continuously and taught explicitly across all subject areas." (Dutro and Moran 2003)

"Strategy instruction produced large effects on the writing of students in the 20 group comparison studies. . . . Thus, for the group comparison studies, strategy instruction consistently resulted in large improvements in writing quality, schematic structure (i.e., elements), and revisions across different types of students." (Graham 2006)

"Evidence is presented that teaching the cluster of writing techniques known collectively as 'process writing' is associated with higher average writing proficiency among students. Students whose teachers always had them do such activities, especially in combination, had the highest average writing scores." (Goldstein and Carr 1996)

"What are the most salient characteristics of a strong writing program for students with diverse abilities? First, text production skill, planning, and revising, the three most troublesome aspects of writing for most struggling writers, are explicitly taught within a process writing framework. . . . Second, the writing tasks are meaningful, varied, and challenging. . . . Third, a predictable writing routine is evidence in

which planning, revising, and editing are expected and reinforced." (Troia 2006)

"Writing for a variety of purposes (to persuade, inform, entertain, and narrate) and audiences (those in other states or countries, peers, parents, teachers, and self) builds fluency, competence, and independence." (Bromley 2003)

"This report identifies 11 elements of current writing instruction found to be effective for helping adolescent students learn to write well and to use writing as a tool for learning. . . .

- 1. *Writing Strategies*, which involves teaching students strategies for planning, revising, and editing their compositions
- 2. *Summarization*, which involves explicitly and systematically teaching students how to summarize texts
- 3. *Collaborative Writing,* which uses instructional arrangements in which adolescents work together to plan, draft, revise, and edit their compositions
- 4. *Specific Product Goals*, which assigns students specific, reachable goals for the writing they are to complete
- 5. *Word Processing*, which uses computers and word processors as instructional supports for writing assignments
- 6. *Sentence Combining,* which involves teaching students to construct more complex, sophisticated sentences
- 7. *Prewriting*, which engages students in activities designed to help them generate or organize ideas for their composition
- 8. *Inquiry Activities*, which engages students in analyzing immediate, concrete data to help them develop ideas and content for a particular writing task
- 9. *Process Writing Approach*, which interweaves a number of writing instructional activities in a workshop environment that stresses extended writing opportunities, writing for authentic

- audiences, personalized instruction, and cycles of writing
- 10. *Study of Models*, which provides students with opportunities to read, analyze, and emulate models of good writing
- 11. *Writing for Content Learning*, which uses writing as a tool for learning content material" (Graham and Perin 2007)

GATEWAYS

FROM RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Vocabulary Development

Students' ability to communicate—to read and write, speak and listen—is dependent on possessing an adequate vocabulary. In addition, academic vocabulary—those words that are more likely to be encountered in academic texts than in conversation (such as analyze, factor, however, and therefore)—is essential to learning, particularly in secondary education. Because students in the classroom may vary greatly in their reading skills, no single method of vocabulary instruction will be entirely effective. Multiple exposures to vocabulary words in various contexts are essential. In *Gateways*, vocabulary is taught both directly and explicitly, with a variety of methods including contextual strategies, word study, and repeated exposures to words. For examples of vocabulary instruction, see the following pages.

Level	Word Meaning Instruction	Vocabulary in Action	Word Chats	Word Meaning Application	Cumulative Review
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 9-11	Anthology: p. 322	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 9-11	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 2	Students continually build upon vocabulary words throughout lessons, chapters, and units in dialogues, reading, and writing.
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 40-43	Anthology: pp. 12-13	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 40-43	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 9	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 166 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 41-42
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 50-53	Anthology: pp. 14-15	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 50-53	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 13	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 208 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 62
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 49-52	Anthology: pp. 14-15	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 49-52	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 11	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 206 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 56
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 49-52	Anthology: pp. 16-17	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 49-52	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 11	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 214 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 56

Fluency

The ability to read fluently—to read smoothly, at a good pace, with expression, appropriate phrasing, and intonation—reflects a reader's ability to construct meaning from text. Fluency improves as automaticity—instantaneous and accurate word recognition—improves. Fluent readers expend less cognitive energy decoding texts and therefore

have more energy to focus on vocabulary and comprehension. The following examples demonstrate how *Gateways* builds fluency by providing instruction in decoding and word recognition, modeling fluent reading, supplying multiple and repeated opportunities for reading practice with active support and feedback (guided reading), and providing personally meaningful and authentic learning tasks.

Level	Skill Instruction	Modeled Fluent Reading	Fluent Reading Practice	Timed Reading
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 29	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 29-30	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 29–31 Practice Book Volume 2: p. 7	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 8
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 17	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 18	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 18-20 Practice Book Volume 2: p. 6	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 7
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 97			Practice Book Volume 1: p. 28
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 94 Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 94-96		Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 94-97 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 24	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 25
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 94	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 95-97	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 95-97 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 24	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 25

Comprehension

In addition to linguistic knowledge, students' reading comprehension is dependent on background knowledge, the ability to make inferences, and the ability to choose and implement appropriate strategies for decoding and comprehending. *Gateways* preteaches strategies, provides guided and scaffolded practice and applies strategy instruction to a variety of text selections.

Following a gradual-release model, instruction moves from teacher modeling to practicing with the support of the teacher and peers, and finally to independent practice and application. See the following pages for examples of how *Gateways* helps students apply varied and specific strategies to increase comprehension.

Level	Strategy Instruction	Strategy Modeling	Scaffolded Strategy Practice	Strategy Application	Strategy Metacognition
1 A	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 17, 386 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 16, 207	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 17, 387 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 16, 207	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 19-20, 389 Practice Book Volume 1: pp. 6, 150 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 18-19, 210 Practice Book Volume 1: pp. 225, 301	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. 524-525 Practice Book Volume 2: p. 378	Students discretely practice and apply each strategy.
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 118, 228, 303, 405	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 118, 228, 303, 405	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 120, 229-230, 304-305, 406-407 Practice Book Volume 1: pp. 30, 64, 88, 122	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. 493-494 Practice Book Volume 2: p. 394	Students discretely practice and apply each strategy.
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 108, 292, 364, 531	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 108, 292, 364, 531	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 110-112 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 33	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 189 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 33	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 92
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 104, 288, 355, 517	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 104, 288, 356, 517	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 106- 107 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 29	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 185 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 29	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 85-86
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 104, 301, 372, 536	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 104, 301, 372, 536	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 106-108 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 29	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 192 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 29	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 90

Word Study and Spelling

Word study and spelling are interconnected: they demonstrate the link between recognizing and understanding words when reading and using words correctly when writing. *Gateways* systematically

and explicitly teaches key phonological awareness, phonics, and morphology skills both in isolation and in context. For examples of effective instruction in word study and spelling in *Gateways*, please see the following pages.

Level	Skill Instruction	Skill Practice	Skill Application	Spelling
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 25-26	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 4	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 5 Decodable Reader: pp. 74-75	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 5
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 11-12		Practice Book Volume 2: p. 3 Decodable Reader: pp. 78-79	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 3
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 17-18	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 5	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 6	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 6
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 15-16		Practice Book Volume 1: p. 3 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 4	
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 15-17	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 3	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 4	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 4

Conventions

Students must understand that the grammatical structures and conventions of English are effective tools to help them clearly communicate to an audience in their writing. Once students realize that their communication skills are improving, they will be motivated to use standard academic English in their writing. *Gateways* provides an instructional

framework that teaches key grammatical skills by learning the rule, practicing it, identifying it in text, and applying it in writing. This framework also leads students to recognize the unique connection between reading and writing. For examples of how *Gateways* helps educators improve their students' skills using the conventions of English, see the following pages.

Level	Skill Instruction	Skill Practice	Skill Identification in Reading Text	Skill Application in Writing
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 21-23	Writer's Notebook: p. 1	Skill is embedded in Anthology texts.	Writer's Notebook: p. 2
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp.26-29	Writer's Notebook: p. 1	Skill is embedded in Anthology texts.	Writer's Notebook: p. 1
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp.29-32	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 10	Anthology: p. 7 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 11	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 11
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 28-31	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 8	Anthology: p. 7 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 9	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 9
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 29-32	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 8	Anthology: p. 8 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 9	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 9

Writing

To be successful in academics and in life, students need the ability to transform their experiences and ideas into written words. Teaching students to write effectively involves the use of a number of varied instructional techniques, strategies, and processes. *Gateways* provides explicit and scaffolded instruction

in the stages of writing by setting clear expectations, providing meaningful models, facilitating student collaboration, and connecting writing to other content areas such as reading and speaking. For examples of how *Gateways* provides effective instruction in writing, see the following pages.

Level	Stages of Writing Instruction	Clear Expectations and Goals	Scaffolded Practice	Student Collaboration	Models of Writing	Connection to Listening and Speaking Skills
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 18-23	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 18-23, 54-57	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. A-5–A-7	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 340-345, 374-379 Writer's Notebook: pp. 82-83	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 310-315, 340-345, 433-438, 443-446, A-8-A-11	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 443-446
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 26-31	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 26-31, 60-65	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. A-5–A-7	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 125-130, 159-163 Writer's Notebook: pp. 91-92	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 94-100, 125-130, 208-213, 214-216, A-8-A-11	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 214-216
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 33-38	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 33-38, 77-81	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. A-5–A-10	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 155-161, 195-199 Writer's Notebook: pp. 7-9	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 118-121, 155-161, 250-255, 267-269, A-11-A-15	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 267-269
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 32-37	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 32-37, 74-78	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. A-5–A-10	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 151-157, 191-196 Writer's Notebook: pp. 7-9	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 114-118, 151-157, 246-252, 263-265, A-11-A-17	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 263-265
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 33-38	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 33-38, 73-78	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. A-5–A-10	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 156-163, 199-203 Writer's Notebook: pp. 7-9	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 114-118, 156-163, 258-263, 275-277, A-11-A-17	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 275-277

What Does Scientifically Based Research Tell Us about **Providing Universal Access?**

DEFINING THE STRAND UNIVERSAL ACCESS

Effective reading, literature, and language arts instruction successfully meets the needs of students with a wide range of ability levels, backgrounds, and learning styles. Such instruction addresses the needs of English language learners, struggling/developmental learners, and students who receive special education services. The No Child Left Behind Act is inclusive: schools must reach all learners and meet their learning needs.

Meeting the Needs of English Language Learners

"A good English-language development program should include three components: The first component would focus on development of proficiency and fluency in English. Both social communication and academic communication of concepts and knowledge that students previously learned would be addressed. The second component would address the more formal, grammatical aspects of English use. This would include high quality instruction in topics such as tense agreement, use of plurals, and word order in sentences. Finally, the third component would focus on learning new academic content." (Gersten and Baker 2000)

"It is only through instruction that learners can acquire the academic English needed to access academic texts. Successful learners receive excellent language instruction. Their reading instruction helps them understand how letters and sounds are linked together to form letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns. Through this instruction, they learn to decode words quickly and accurately. Their language study provides them with scaffolded instruction, which helps them understand how words, phrases, and sentences are formed, what constitutes well-written utterances. and what can be spoken but not written. With explicit guidance and feedback from their teachers, they develop fluency and learn reading comprehension strategies. Their teachers show them how to use

knowledge of oral vocabulary and grammar to figure out the meanings of words." (Scarcella 2003b)

"We advocate a rethinking of some common practices in ELD [English language development] instruction and take the position that language instruction requires teaching English, not just teaching in English or simply providing opportunities for students to interact with each other in English. We believe ELD requires purposeful daily instruction both in a developmental program and as explicit preparation for content courses, with ample opportunities for both formal and informal learning across the curriculum and throughout the instructional day." (Dutro and Moran 2003)

"English language instruction. . . . should be deliberate, strategic, and purposeful. This section will present six guiding principles of English language instruction, drawn from the literature in cognitive psychology, language acquisition, and instructional practice. To develop high levels of language proficiency, we contend that teachers must

- 1. build on students' prior knowledge of both language and content;
- 2. create meaningful contexts for functional use of language;
- 3. provide comprehensible input and model forms of language in a variety of ways connected to meaning;
- 4. provide a range of opportunities for practice and application so as to develop fluency;
- 5. establish a positive and supportive environment for practice, with clear goals and immediate corrective feedback: and
- 6. reflect on the forms of language and the process of learning." (Dutro and Moran 2003)

"Research indicates that the five core areas of instruction to promote reading development of native English speakers, namely phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension, similarly apply to reading instruction for ELLs [English language learners]. The first two areas are critical during the earliest stages of reading development. However, the latter three are critical during all stages of reading development, and are especially important during skilled reading and when students are expected to read to learn." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006a)

"There are several techniques which can be used to promote active reading and engagement with text, fostering better comprehension. . .

- Teaching students to make predictions consciously before reading. . .
- Teaching students to monitor their understanding and ask questions during reading. . .
- Teaching students to summarize what they have read after reading. . .

These aspects of reading comprehension instruction have been shown to be important for native English speakers and relevant for ELLs [English language learners]...." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006a)

"In all K-12 classrooms across the U.S., ELLs [English language learners] need significant opportunities to engage in structured, academic talk. Language learning is not a passive process; it is facilitated through production and interaction, and therefore, depends heavily on the ability to practice and produce language, especially in academic settings." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006a)

"Effective vocabulary instruction for newcomers [English language learners who are currently enrolled in grades 6 through 12 who have attended an Englishspeaking school for fewer than two years], as for other ELLs [English language learners], begins with careful selection of words to teach. Researchers agree that teachers should identify and invest the majority of time in teaching general purpose academic words—such as analyze, frequent, and abstract—that are sophisticated in meaning but also appear in a variety of academic texts." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006b)

Meeting the Needs of Struggling Readers

"Differentiation seems a common-sense approach to addressing the needs of a wide variety of learners, promoting equity and excellence and focusing on bestpractice instruction in mixed-ability classrooms. This makes more sense than the timeworn method of aiming for students in the middle and hoping for the best on those on the upper and lower extremes." (Tomlinson 2000)

"Studies of good reader-poor reader differences in text processing [...] suggest that poor readers fail to (1) conceptualize reading as a search for meaning, (2) monitor their comprehension to ensure that they are deriving meaning, (3) engage in strategic behavior to bring meaning to text and restore meaning when there has been a breakdown in comprehension, and (4) modify their choice of strategies to meet the varying demands of reading. This profile suggests the need for instruction which will [...] promote comprehension monitoring." (Palincsar and Brown 1987)

"To argue for culturally responsive instruction, then is to call for teaching that takes into account everyday, patterned interfaces between home/community and school literacy practices. This kind of teaching taps into struggling readers' funds of knowledge, encourages them to use their textbooks and other texts as sources of information, and supports such usage through strategy instruction." (Alvermann 2002)

Meeting the Needs of Special **Education Students**

"Previous research studies examining the effects of graphic organizers on reading comprehension for students with learning disabilities (LD) are reviewed. An extensive search of the professional literature between 1963 and June 2001 yielded a total of 21 group design intervention studies that met the criteria for inclusion in the synthesis. Using graphic organizers (i.e., semantic organizers, framed outlines, cognitive maps with and without a mnemonic) was associated with improved reading comprehension overall for students with LD." (Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, and Wei 2004)

"Each of the three experiments substantiated that GOs (graphic organizers) produced significantly higher

performance than self-study for the students with learning disabilities enrolled in social studies, science, and health classes at the secondary level (grades 7 and 10). Further, those findings were documented with remedial and regular education students as well." (Horton, Lovitt, and Bergerud 1990)

"Anderson (1992) conducted a 3-month investigation of transactional strategies with students with reading disabilities in grades 6-11 and found that students who learned comprehension strategies made greater gains than those who did not. In addition, students who learned strategies were more willing to read challenging material, collaborate with classmates during reading, and respond to text." (Klingner, Vaughn, and Boardman 2007)

"Impressive gains in reading for students with learning disabilities are possible . . . especially if the instructional process utilizes strategy instruction to assist the students with organizing the material. As revealed in the results of this study, strategy instruction strongly impacts the reading comprehension of students with learning disabilities. . . . " (Sencibaugh 2007)

"Two important findings emerged from the synthesis: (a) auditory language dependent strategies have a greater impact on the reading comprehension skills of students with learning disabilities compared to visually dependent strategies and (b) questioning strategies involving self-instruction and paragraph restatements along with text-structure-based strategies yield the most significant outcomes. . . . Students with learning disabilities or reading disabilities must be trained explicitly in the implementation of metacognitive instructional strategies, which involves questioning the purpose and structure of the text along with activating prior knowledge to organize the material to aid in reading comprehension." (Sencibaugh 2007)

"Thus, the purpose of this study was to develop and test the effects of an instructional program designed to teach an inference strategy to secondary students with disabilities. Specifically, the study was designed to examine the effects of explicit instruction in a multicomponent inference reading comprehension strategy. . . . Results suggest that students with disabilities can learn to use a strategy to answer a variety of inferential questions, and mastery of its use can result in improved scores on criterion-based and standardized measures of reading comprehension. In addition, students' satisfaction with their reading improved." (Fritschmann, Deshler, and Schumaker 2007)

"This study examined the effects of using a storymapping procedure to improve and facilitate the reading comprehension of students with specific learning disabilities (SLD) at the secondary level. . . . The participants were taught to identify and record the story grammar elements on the story maps as they read the story selection and then completed reading comprehension questions to assess the effectiveness of the intervention. The results of the study indicated that the use of the story-mapping procedure improved all three students' reading comprehension skills, as measured by the percent correct on the reading comprehension tests." (Onachukwu, Boon, Fore, and Bender 2007)

"Findings from the present review yielded some promising evidence of best practice at teaching reading comprehension to students with disabilities in middle and secondary schools....

- 1. Research evidence indicates that specific interventions help facilitate reading comprehension for secondary students with disabilities. Specific instructional features of these interventions include components of cognitive strategy and direct instruction using guided and independent practice. . . .
- 2. Comprehension strategies seen to be effective with younger children with learning disabilities are also effective with adolescents with learning disabilities." (Mastropieri, Scruggs, and Graetz 2003)

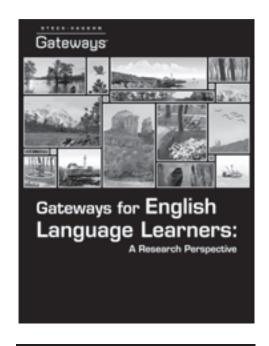
GATEWAYS

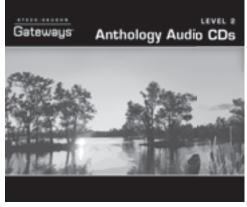
FROM RESEARCH TO PRACTICE Meeting the Needs of **English Language Learners**

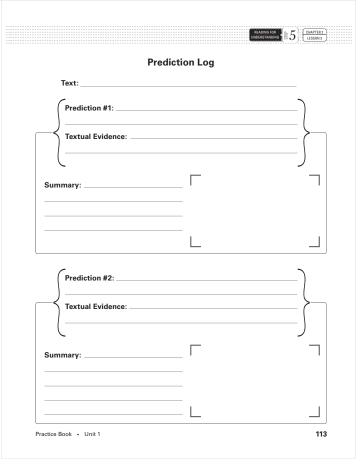
Providing effective instruction in English while also continuing learning across the content areas requires balance and focus. Gateways helps accelerate students' English language development through a carefully

crafted instructional path that spans all levels. From Level 1 to Level 4, students receive intensive language instruction in both academic and survival English that expands vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency. The following examples illustrate how *Gateways* helps

teachers reach English language learners through a variety of methods: consistent approaches to multiple texts, graphic organizers, predictable routines, structured discussions, audio recordings, and visual support. For examples of instruction, see the following.







Level	Language Development	Graphic Organizers	Literacy and Language Coach	Visual Support	Listening and Speaking Development	Consistent Instructional Approaches
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 6, 13–15	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 5 Writer's Notebook: p. 78	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 131	Anthology: pp. 340, 370-371	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 546, 555, A-5-A-7 Decodable Audio CD Anthology Audio CD Speech DVD Sound Pronunciation Resources	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: pp. 460–465 Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. 452–457
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 34–36, 88–89	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 239 Writer's Notebook: p. 127	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 179	Anthology: pp. 8–9, 64–65	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 570–571, 582, A-6–A-8 Decodable Audio CD Anthology Audio CD Speech DVD Sound Pronunciation Resources	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 405–408 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 386–389
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 44–45, 108–109	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 273 Writer's Notebook: p. 33	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 98	Anthology: pp. 22, 234–235	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 742–744, 752–754, A-28–A-30 Anthology Audio CD Speech DVD Sound Pronunciation Resources	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 531 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 453
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 42–43, 106–107	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 346 Writer's Notebook: p. 44	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 27	Anthology: pp. 120, 222–223	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 722–724, 732–733, A-35–A-37 Anthology Audio CD Speech DVD Sound Pronunciation Resources	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 517 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 450
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: pp. 42–44, 106–107	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 7 Writer's Notebook: p. 67	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 200	Anthology: pp. 184–185, 282–283	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 739–741, 748–749, A-32–A-34 Anthology Audio CD Speech DVD Sound Pronunciation Resources	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 536–537 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 454

Meeting the Needs of Struggling Readers

Any reader can struggle with a particular text that is too complex or contains unknown vocabulary. The readers of concern, however, are the ones who struggle with almost any text, those who lack strategies to even approach textual meaning. These readers are sometimes referred to as "dependent readers" because they lack the cognitive ability to read independently, are not motivated by the text or by reading, do not know that they might enjoy reading, and lack the ability or

stamina to stick with reading that is difficult for them. The very essence of *Gateways'* pedagogy is to explicitly teach struggling readers these strategies and undergird them with support for success, which, in turn, instills motivation. To reach these students, *Gateways* models effective reading strategies, gives students a wealth of opportunities to practice and apply the strategies, and provides teachers with several teaching resources designed with struggling readers in mind. For examples of instruction for struggling readers, see the following pages.

Level	Consistent Instructional Approaches	Graphic Organizers	Visual Support	Scaffolded Support	Structured Student Interaction
1A	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 17 Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 115	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 301 Writer's Notebook: p. 77	Anthology: pp. 382-383, 464-465	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. A-5–A-7	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 390
1B	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp.118-119 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 100	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 48 Writer's Notebook: p. 8	Anthology: pp. 8-9, 190	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. A-5–A-7	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 86
2	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 108 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 90	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 32 Writer's Notebook: p. 12	Anthology: pp. 10, 96-97	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. A-9–A-14	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 264
3	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 104 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 87	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 294 Writer's Notebook: p. 99	Anthology: pp. 190, 250-251	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. A-9–A-14	Teacher's Guide: Unit 2: p.75
4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 104-105 Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 87	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 306 Writer's Notebook: p. 78	Anthology: pp. 90, 184-185,	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: pp. A-9–A-17	Teacher's Guide: Unit 4: p. 40

Meeting the Needs of Special **Education Students**

Students with special learning needs require instruction and learning materials that have been differentiated to meet their particular needs. However, differentiating instruction for a range of abilities and interests is clearly complex. The following examples illustrate

how *Gateways* helps teachers meet the needs of special education students through a variety of methods: consistent routines, graphic organizers, visual support, audio support, and modifications. For examples of instruction for students with special needs, see the following pages.

Level	Consistent Routines	Graphic Organizers	Visual Support	Audio Support	Modifications
1A	Implementation Guide for Teachers: pp. 34-69	Writer's Notebook: p. 104 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 6	Anthology: pp. 380, 434-435	Decodable Reader Audio CD Anthology Audio CD	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 1
1B	Implementation Guide for Teachers: pp. 34-59	Writer's Notebook: p. 126 Practice Book Volume 2: p. 30	Anthology: pp. 22-23, 50	Decodable Reader Audio CD Anthology Audio CD	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 1
2	Implementation Guide for Teachers: pp. 34-59	Writer's Notebook: p. 42 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 9	Anthology: pp. 22, 50-51	Anthology Audio CD	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 1
3	Implementation Guide for Teachers: pp. 36-61	Writer's Notebook: p. 112 Practice Book Volume 1: p. 434	Anthology: Anthology pp. 16-17, 82 Audio CD		Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 1
4			Anthology: pp. 19, 139	Anthology Audio CD	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 1

What Does Scientifically-Based Research Tell Us About Effective Assessment?

DEFINING THE STRAND ASSESSMENT

The No Child Left Behind Act has affected schools around the country. The federal government has asked schools to report their success in terms of what each student achieves and to use the knowledge gained from assessments "to craft lessons to make sure each student meets or exceeds the standards." (United States Department of Education, Introduction: No Child Left Behind)

Research has shown that students' achievement improves when they receive frequent, consistent, specific feedback on their progress. In addition, the use of assessment information to drive instruction has been shown to have significant positive effects on learning. Teachers must have both formal and informal, formative and summative assessment tools to effectively gauge student learning and inform instructional planning.

EXCERPTS FROM THE RESEARCH THAT GUIDED THE DEVELOPMENT OF GATEWAYS

Assessment

"Formative assessment refers to focused and ongoing evaluations like the scores on pop quizzes. Summative tests come at the end of a course of study, when students must be accountable for their achievement. The purpose of formative assessment is to guide instruction; the purpose of summative testing is to evaluate achievement[...]." (Graves, Juel, and Graves 2004)

"[Effective] Teachers:

- a. monitor learning regularly, both formally and informally. . . .
- f. use routine assessment procedures to check student progress. These include conducting recitations, circulating and checking students' work during seatwork periods, assigning and checking homework, conducting periodic reviews

with students, administering tests, and reviewing student performance data[...]." (Cotton 1995)

"In order for assessment to play a more useful role in helping students learn, it should be moved into the middle of the teaching and learning process instead of being postponed as only the end-point of instruction." (Shepard 2000)

"Christenson, Ysseldyke, and Thurlow (1989) identified 10 critical factors of instruction that are important for all students in any subject area. These factors include . . . active monitoring for student progress and understanding by the teacher, and frequent and appropriate evaluation of student progress by the teacher." (Spicuzza, Ysseldyke, Lemkuil, Kosciolek, Boys, and Teelucksingh 2001)

"As instruction is occurring, teachers need information to evaluate whether their teaching strategies are working. They also need information about the current understanding of individual students and groups of students so they can identify the most appropriate next steps for instruction. Moreover, students need feedback to monitor their own success in learning and to know how to improve." (National Research Council 2001)

"The purpose of this meta-analysis was to determine the effects of systematic formative evaluation of educational programs on academic achievement. Results indicated that the use of systematic formative evaluation procedures, within a group of studies that employed predominantly mildly handicapped subjects, significantly increased students' school achievement, both statistically and practically." (Fuchs and Fuchs 1986)

"Active teacher monitoring of student performance is viewed as essential for maintaining student participation and encouraging learning. [It] keeps the total instructional cycle effective. Teachers monitor student progress in various ways; the key for student learning appears to be the degree to which monitoring

is active and frequent[...]. (Christenson, Ysseldyke, and Thurlow 1989)

"The work of the Education Trust (Jerald 2001) revealed that one key to promoting very high levels of achievement in traditionally low performing schools was the effective use of day-to-day classroom assessment as an integral part of a healthy teaching and learning process." (Stiggins and Chapuis 2005)

"[Effective] Teachers Make Use of Alternative Assessments as well as Traditional Tests. Teachers: . . .

- d. plan assessment as they plan instruction not as an afterthought....
- f. teach children the scoring systems that will be used to evaluate their work and allow them to practice using these systems for self- and peer assessment[...]." (Cotton 1995)

"It is increasingly recognized that no one method can uncover the full range of students' knowledge and that different students may need to show their knowledge in different ways (e.g., produce a video, make a presentation, or write a research paper). Thus, in a standards-based system, multiple methods of assessment are used at different times to determine students' levels of knowledge and skill. . . . If the knowledge is specific information such as facts, terms, or details, then selected response items (i.e., multiple-choice, true-false, or matching) may be appropriate. When the target involves complex ideas such as concepts, generalizations, or principles, then constructed response modes (e.g., performance tasks, exhibitions, writing samples, problem solving, or interviews) are more appropriate. In a standards-based system, teachers need to have a broad repertoire of assessment strategies and know how to purposefully select (or guide students to select) those that will allow students to provide evidence of their learning." (Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning 2000)

"Effective classroom instruction begins with systematic assessment of students' strengths and needs as well as ongoing monitoring of students' progress. . . . An effective assessment system focuses on multiple skills and includes different sources of information, each serving a distinct purpose. Together, sources of student data

should serve to identify students' difficulties as well as strengths, monitor students' progress, and measure outcomes." (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006b)

"Assessment should be related directly to learning activities and to the work done; it should be based on a broad range of evidence. [...] in the best of all classrooms, assessment includes observations of students in action, finished work, and students' own selfassessment." (Tchudi and Mitchell 1991)

"The best practices in literacy assessment, then, are those that use a variety of appropriate indices to address the needs of different audiences. Thus, the choice does not have to be assessment for accountability versus assessment for instruction." (Winograd, Flores-Duenas, and Arrington 2003)

"Although all newcomers may qualify for a program on the basis of recent arrival to the U.S. and beginning English proficiency, these two commonalities mask very striking and important differences within this population - differences that have a significant impact on academic achievement. Adolescent newcomers vary with respect to native language skills and content knowledge as well as their proficiency in English . . . because of these differences in abilities, rates of learning, and English language development, ongoing assessment of students' language, literacy, and content skills must be a guiding force of instructional planning for newcomers. (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera 2006b)

GATEWAYS

FROM RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Assessment

Assessment is not an end, but rather a means to an end: improving instruction. *Gateways* provides four types of assessment for accurate placement, evaluation, and

monitoring. Following a curriculum-embedded assessment pedagogy, each assessment is specifically designed to gauge a student's needs and progress. For examples of assessment driving instruction, see pages 14-15 in *Gateways* Program Overview and the Assessment Handbook.

		Level 1A	Level 1B	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	
Diagnostic Screening	Diagnostic Screening Assessment	Diagnostic Screening, Placement, and Exit Assessments Handbook: pp. 6-7					
Placement and Exit	Placement Assessments	Diagnostic Screening, Placement, and Exit Assessments Handbook: pp. 8-48					
	Exit Assessment/ Criteria	Diagnostic Screening, Placement, and Exit Assessments Handbook: pp. 49-75					
	Spelling Assessments	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 163, A-4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 175, A-4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 219, A-4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 216, A-4	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: pp. 226, A-4	
	Skills Assessments/ Quizzes	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 183	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 194	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 248	Teacher's Guide Unit 1: p. 244	Teacher's Guide Unit 4: p. 619	
		Practice Book Volume 1: pp. 285-286	Practice Book Volume 1: pp. 50-52	Practice Book Volume 1: pp. 75-76	Practice Book Volume 1: pp. 68-69	Practice Book Volume 2: pp. 442-445	
Progress Monitoring	Unit Assessments (Units 1-3)	Assessment Handbook: pp. 221-233	Assessment Handbook: pp. 209-221	Assessment Handbook: pp. 101-116	Assessment Handbook: pp. 101-117	Assessment Handbook: pp. 101-117	
	Oral Language Assessments	Assessment Handbook: pp. 197-202	Assessment Handbook: pp. 188-190	Assessment Handbook: pp. 79-82	Assessment Handbook: pp. 79-82	Assessment Handbook: pp. 79-82	
	Oral Reading Fluency Assessments	Assessment Handbook: p. 213	Assessment Handbook: p. 200	Assessment Handbook: p. 92	Assessment Handbook: p. 92	Assessment Handbook: p. 93	
Summative	On-Demand Writing Assessments	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 692	Teacher's Guide Unit 3: p. 658	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 659	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 657	Teacher's Guide Unit 2: p. 659	
		Practice Book Volume 2: p. 213	Practice Book Volume 2: p. 220	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 502	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 463	Practice Book Volume 1: p. 463	
	Unit 4 Assessments	Assessment Handbook: pp. 303-324	Assessment Handbook: pp. 302-312	Assessment Handbook: pp. 157-175	Assessment Handbook: pp. 157-174	Assessment Handbook: pp. 157-175	

Works Cited

Abbott, M. (2001). Effects of traditional versus extended word-study spelling instruction on students' orthographic knowledge. Reading Online, 5(3). http://www.readingonline.org/articles/abbott/.

Alvermann, D.E. (2002). Effective literacy instruction for adolescents. Journal of Literacy Research, 34(2), 189-208.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2002). Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction. New York: The Guilford Press.

Berninger, V.W., Abbott, R.D., Abbott, S.P., Graham, S., & Richards, T. (2002). Writing and reading: Connections between language by hand and language by eye. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 35, 39-56.

Biancarosa, G., & Snow, C. E. (2006). Reading Next— A vision for action and research in middle and high school literacy: A report to Carnegie Corporation of New York (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education. http://www.all4ed.org/files/archive/ publications/ReadingNext/ReadingNext.pdf.

Bromley, K. (2003). Building a sound writing program. In L. M. Morrow, L.B. Gambrell, & M. Pressley (Eds.), Best Practices in Literacy Instruction (2nd edition, 143-165). New York: The Guilford Press.

Brooks, W. (2006). Reading representations of themselves: Urban youth use culture and African American textual features to develop literary understandings. Reading Research Quarterly, 41(3), 372-392.

Caine, R. N., and Caine, G. (1991). Making Connections: Teaching and the Human Brain. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Center for the Improvement of Early Reading (CIERA). (2003). Put Reading First: The Research Building Blocks for Teaching Children to Read. Ann Arbor, MI. http://www. nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/Cierra.pdf. Charity, A. H. (2007). Regional differences in low SES African-American children's speech in the school setting. Language Variation and Change, 19, 281-293.

Christenson, S.L., Ysseldyke, J.E., & Thurlow, M.L. (1989). Critical instructional factors for students with mild handicaps: An integrative review. Remedial and Special Education, 10(5), 21-31.

Cotton, K. (1995). Effective Schooling Practices: A Research Synthesis 1995 Update. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. http://www.nwrel.org/scpd/ esp/esp95.html

Craig, H. K., & Washington, J. A. (2006). Recent research on the language and literacy skills of African American students in the early years. In D. K. Dickinson & S. B. Neuman (Eds.), Handbook of Early Literacy Research, 198-210. New York: The Guilford Press.

Durkin, D. (2003). Teaching Them to Read (6th ed.). Needham, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Dutro, S., and Moran, C. (2003). In G. G. Garcia (Ed.), English Learners: Reaching the Highest Level of English Literacy (227-258). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Fielding, L. G., & Pearson, P. D. (1994). Reading comprehension: What works. Educational Leadership, 51(5), 62-69.

Fogel, H., & Ehri, L. C. (2000). Teaching elementary students who speak Black English Vernacular to write in Standard English: Effects of dialect transformation practice. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25, 212-235.

Francis, D. J., Rivera, M., Lesaux, N., Kieffer, M., & Rivera, H. (2006a). Practical Guidelines for the Education of English Language Learners: Research-Based Recommendations for Instruction and Academic Interventions. Houston: University of Houston Center on Instruction.

Francis, D. J., Rivera, M., Lesaux, N., Kieffer, M., & Rivera, H. (2006b). *Practical Guidelines for the Education of English Language Learners: Research-Based Recommendations for Serving Adolescent Newcomers*. Houston: University of Houston Center on Instruction.

Fritschmann, N.S., Deshler, D.D., & Schumaker, J.B. (2007). The effects of instruction in an inference strategy on the reading comprehension skills of adolescents with disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 30(4), 245-262.

Fuchs, L.S., & Fuchs, D. (1986). Effects of systematic formative evaluation: A meta-analysis. *Exceptional Children*, 53(3), 199-208.

Gersten, R., & Baker, S. (2000). What we know about effective instructional practices for English-language learners. *Exceptional Children*, 66(4), 454-470.

Goldstein, A., & Carr, P.G. (1996). Can students benefit from process writing? *NAEPfacts*, 1(3), Washington DC: National Center for Education Statistics. http://nces.ed.gov/pubs96/web/96845.asp.

Graham, S. (2006). Strategy instruction and the teaching of writing. In C.A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of Writing Research* (187-207). New York: The Guilford Press.

Graham, S., & Perin, D. (2007). Writing Next: Effective Strategies to Improve Writing of Adolescents in Middle and High Schools – A Report to Carnegie Corporation of New York. Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Graves, M. F., Juel, C., & Graves, B. B. (2004). *Teaching Reading in the 21st Century*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Hidi, S., & Boscolo, P. (2006). Motivation and Writing. In C.A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of Writing Research* (144-157). New York: The Guilford Press.

Horton, S., Lovitt, T. & Bergerud, D. (1990). The Effectiveness of Graphic Organizers for Three Classifications of Secondary Students in Content Area Classes. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 23(1), 12-22.

Joyce, B., Weil, M. with Calhoun, E. (2000). *Models of Teaching* (6th Ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Kieffer, M. J., & Lesaux, N. K. (2007). Breaking down words to build meaning: Morphology, vocabulary, and reading comprehension in the urban classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(2), 134-144.

Kim, A., Vaughn, S., Wanzek, J., & Wei, S. (2004). Graphic organizers and their effects on the reading comprehension of students with LD: A synthesis of research. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 37(2), 105-118.

Klingner, J. K., Vaughn, S., & Boardman, A. (2007). *Teaching Reading Comprehension to Students with Learning Difficulties*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Labov, W. (1995). Can reading failure be reversed: A linguistic approach to the question. In Gadsden V. L. & Wagner, D. A. (Eds.), *Literacy Among African-American Youth: Issues in Learning, Teaching, and Schooling* (39-68). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press, Inc.

Labov, W. (2006). *Unendangered Dialects, Endangered People*. Washington, DC: GURT.

Mastropieri, M.A., Scruggs, T.E., & Graetz, J.E. (2003). Reading comprehension instruction for secondary students: Challenges for struggling students and teachers. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 26(2), 103-117.

McKeown, M. G., & Beck, I. L. (2004). Direct and rich vocabulary instruction. In J. F. Baumann & E. J. Kame'enui (Eds.), *Vocabulary Instruction: Research to Practice* (13-27). New York: The Guilford Press.

Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL). (2000). *Noteworthy Perspectives on Implementing Standards-Based Education*. Aurora, CO: Author.

National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD). (2000). Report of the National Reading Panel: Reports of the subgroups. *Teaching Children to Read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. NIH pub. No. 00-4769. http://www.nichd.nih.gov/publications/nrp/upload/report_pdf.pdf

National Research Council. 2001. Knowing What Students Know: The science and design of educational assessment (J. Pelligrino, N. Chudowsky, & R. Glaser, R., Eds.). Committee on the Foundations of Assessment, Board on Testing and Assessment, Center for Education, Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Nokes, J., & Dole, J. (2004). Helping adolescents read through explicit strategy instruction. In Jetton, T., & Dole, J. (Eds.), Adolescent Literacy Research and Practice (162-182). New York: The Guilford Press.

Onachukwu, I., Boon, R.T., Fore III, C., & Bender, W.N. (2007). Use of a story-mapping procedure in middle school language arts instruction to improve the comprehension skills of students with learning disabilities. Insights on Learning Disabilities, 4(2), 27-47.

Palincsar, A. S. & Brown, A. L. (1987). Enhancing instructional time through attention to metacognition. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 20(2), 66-75.

Payne, B. D., & Manning, B. H. (1992). Basal Reader Instruction: Effects of comprehension monitoring training on reading comprehension, strategy use and attitude. Reading Research and Instruction, 32(1), 29-38.

Polette, K. (2008). Teaching Grammar through Writing: Activities to develop writer's craft in ALL students in grades 4-12. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Rosenshine, B., & Stevens, R. (1986). Teaching functions. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teaching (Third Edition, 376-391). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Saddler, B., & Graham, S. (2005). The effects of peerassisted sentence-combining instruction on the writing performance of more and less skilled young writers. Journal of Educational Psychology, 97(1), 43-54.

Samuels, S. (2002). Reading Fluency: Its development and assessment. In A. E. Farstrup & S. Samuels (Eds.), What Research Has to Say about Reading Instruction (166-183). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. http://www.reading.org/Library/ Retrieve.cfm?D=10.1598/0872071774.8&F=bk177-8-Samuels.html

Samuels, S. J., Schermer, N., & Reinking, D. (1992). Reading fluency: Techniques for making decoding automatic. In S. J. Samuels, J. Samuels, & A. E. Farstrup (Eds.), What Research Has to Say about Reading Instruction (124-143). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Scarcella, R. (2003a). Academic English: A Conceptual Framework. University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute Technical Report 2003-I. University of California: Linguistic Minority Research Institute.

Scarcella, R. (2003b). Accelerating Academic English: A focus on the English learner. Oakland, CA: Regents of the University of California.

Schunk, D.H. (1996). Goal and self-evaluative influences during children's cognitive skill learning. American Educational Research Journal, 33(2), 359-382.

Schunk, D.H., Pintrich, P.R., & Meece, J.L. (2008). Motivation in Education: Theory, research, and applications. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.

Scott, T.M., Park, K.L., Swain-Bradway, J., and Landers, E. (2007). Positive Behavior Support in the Classroom: Facilitating behaviorally inclusive learning environments. International Journal of Behavioral Consultation and Therapy, 3(2), 223-235.

Sencibaugh, J.M. (2007). Meta-analysis of reading comprehension interventions for students with learning disabilities: Strategies and implications. Reading *Improvement*, 44(1), 6-22.

Shanahan, T. (1997). Reading-writing relationships, thematic units, inquiry learning...In pursuit of effective integrated literacy instruction. The Reading Teacher, 51(1), 12-19.

Shanahan, T. (2006). Relations among oral language, reading, and writing development. In C.A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), Handbook of Writing Research (171-183). New York: The Guilford Press.

Shepard, L.A. (2000). The role of assessment in a learning culture. Educational Research, 29(7), 4-14. Slavin, R. E. (2002). Cooperative learning in elementary and secondary schools. In D. Levinson (Ed.) & P. W. Cookson & A. R. Sadovnik (Co-Eds.) *Education and Sociology: An Encyclopedia* (115-121). New York: RoutledgeFalmer.

Spicuzza, R., Ysseldyke, J., Lemkuil, A., Kosciolek, S., Boys, C., & Teelucksingh, E. (2001). Effects of curriculum-based monitoring on classroom instruction and math achievement. *Journal of School Psychology*, 39(6), 521-542.

Stevens, R. J., Slavin, R. E., & Farnish, A. M. (1991). The effects of cooperative learning and direct instruction in reading comprehension strategies on main idea identification. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(1), 8-16.

Stiggins, R., & Chappuis, J. (2005). Using student-involved classroom assessment to close achievement gaps. *Theory into Practice*, 44(1), 11-18.

Tchudi, S., & Mitchell, D. (1991). *Exploring and Teaching the English Language Arts* (4th Ed.). New York: Addison, Wesley, Longman, Inc.

Tomlinson, C. (2000). Differentiated Instruction: Can it work? *Education Digest*, 65(5), 25-32.

Troia, G.A. (2006). Students with special needs. In C.A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of Writing Research* (324-336). New York: The Guilford Press.

United States Department of Education. (2001). Introduction: No Child Left Behind. http://www.ed.gov/nclb/overview/intro/index.html

Winograd, P., Flores-Duenas, L., & Arrington, H. (2003). Best practices in literacy assessment. In L. M. Morrow, L.B. Gambrell, & M. Pressley (Eds.), *Best Practices in Literacy Instruction* (2nd edition, 201-238). New York: The Guilford Press.

Gateways

Professional Development

Gateways Professional Development

Accelerate the effectiveness of Gateways in your schools!



	Professional Development Materials	Cost
Implen	nentation Guide for Teachers	
•	Highlights pedagogical foundations for <i>Gateways</i>	
•	Supplies explicit information about standards correlations	Included with
•	Suggests classroom management techniques	program purchase
•	Establishes overview of each lesson	
Implen	nentation Guide for Administrators	
•	Contributes practical guides to program administration	
•	Ensures correct placement for students	Included with
•	Establishes master scheduling details	program purchase
•	Provides tools for classroom observations	
Gatew	ays for English Language Learners: A Research Perspective	
•	Elaborates research-based instruction for English language learners	Included with
•	Reveals conceptual framework for English language development	program purchase
•	Offers recommendations for implementing <i>Gateways</i>	
Implen	nentation DVD	
•	Models instruction	
•	Covers special topics of interest	
	- Classroom management	Included with
	- Assessment	program purchase
	- Structured Student Interactions	
	- And more!	

Sold separately:

 $Additional\ professional\ development\ training\ developed\ specifically\ for\ educators\ of\ struggling\ readers\ and\ English\ language$ learners