



Contents

Overview	2
Introduction to Journeys Common Core	
Strand 1: Key Elements of Reading	5
Strand 2: Teaching with Effective Texts to Meet the Common Core State Standards	19
Strand 3: Teaching Writing	26
Strand 4: Using Effective Instructional Approaches	35
Strand 5: Assessment	
Strand 6: Meeting All Students' Needs	55
Strand 7: Meeting the Needs of English Language Learners	60
References	63



Overview

The **Houghton Mifflin Harcourt** *Journeys Common Core* program is a core reading program designed to meet the diverse needs of today's students, from Kindergarten through grade 6. It aligns with the Common Core State Standards, and includes the key elements of reading instruction—from learning the alphabetic principle and decoding, through comprehension of complex texts—and of writing instruction. The print and technology components, and the activities and strategies presented throughout the program, are based on current research and best practice. The *Journeys Common Core* program provides students with the skills they need to succeed, preparing them ultimately for the high literacy demands of college and the workplace.

The purpose of this document is to demonstrate clearly and explicitly the scientific research base for the program. The program is built around what we know about effective reading and language arts instruction—in phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, reading comprehension, and writing—and what we know about how best to meet the needs of learners through assessment and differentiation. The **Journeys Common Core** program integrates each of these research strands into a program that research indicates will benefit students and prepare them for future demands.

To help readers make the connections between the research strands and the **Journeys Common Core** program, each strand includes the following sections:

- Defining the Strand. This section summarizes the terminology and provides an overview of the research related to the strand.
- **Research that Guided the Development of** *Journeys Common Core* © **2014.** This section identifies subtopics within each strand and provides excerpts from and summaries of relevant research on each subtopic.
- **From Research to Practice.** This section explains how the research data are exemplified in the **Journeys Common Core** program.

The combination of the major research recommendations and the related features of the **Journeys Common Core** program will help readers better understand how the program incorporates research into its instructional design.

A reference list of works cited is provided at the end of this document.

Introduction to Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program was designed to align with the Common Core State Standards. These standards were developed to chart a clear course from K to 12 to ready students for future demands of college and work. The Common Core State Standards are:

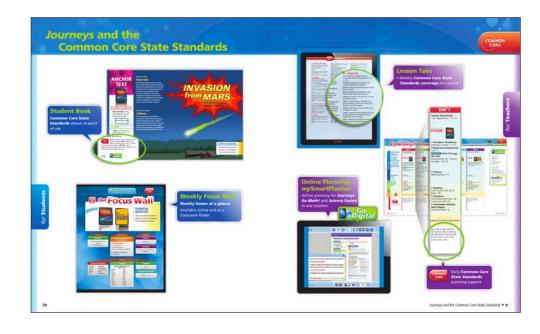
- Based in research on best practices and content to prepare students for college and careers;
- Nationally and internationally benchmarked against existing standards;
- Rigorous, with the high-order thinking skills needed to be competitive in the 21st century;
- Written to provide grade-level clarity to educators, students, and families.

In English, the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects are organized around four strands: Reading (Literature, Informational Text, and Foundational Skills), Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language. In reading, a balance of reading literary and informational texts is strongly emphasized in the Standards, as is the expectation that the grade-level texts be appropriately complex and increasingly

sophisticated across grade levels. In writing, students are expected to compose narratives, informational texts, and arguments, which use reason and evidence to substantiate claims. In language, the Standards delineate expectations for vocabulary acquisition and the use of standard English conventions and grammar. Expectations for research and skill with media are "blended into the Standards as a whole" [Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI), 2010a, p. 4].

For states and districts, the Common Core State Standards represent the beginning of a new stage in standards-based education. The Standards chart a course that must be supported with effective curriculum, instruction, and assessment. The Standards tell what students should learn—but do not describe how students will learn; they were written with "a focus on results rather than means…and must be complemented by a well-developed, content-rich curriculum" (CCSSI, 2010a, p. 4, 6).

With its focus on explicit and systematic instruction in reading, fluency, writing, speaking and listening, and language and its Common Core-aligned assessment system, the **Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Journeys Common Core** program provides this support for educators implementing the Common Core.



In **Journeys Common Core**, students learn about words through instruction in vocabulary, spelling, language, and phonics. Students read widely and respond in writing and discussion to the texts they read. They build deepening knowledge within domain areas. This deep knowledge and focus on comprehension and analysis aligns with the Common Core focus on students reading and producing increasingly complex literary and informational texts. The complex texts included in the **Journeys Common Core** program meet the Common Core mandate that students read high-quality and grade-appropriate literary and informational texts. To support those students who are not yet successful readers, the program provides scaffolded support for struggling readers and English learners to reach the grade-level targets by year's end.

Throughout the **Journeys Common Core** program, teachers are supported in understanding the Common Core State Standards. Teachers are provided opportunities to extend standards-aligned student learning. All instruction and application are presented with a list of applicable standards so that teachers can be sure the learning aligns with the expectations of the Common Core State Standards.



Journeys Common Core supports Common Core implementation for both teachers and students in multiple ways.

For teachers:

- **Explicit, systematic instruction** in the areas of reading literature and informational texts, foundational skills, writing, speaking and listening, and language aligns to the Common Core State Standards.
- **Journeys Common Core Weekly Planners** are correlated to the Common Core State Standards.
- **Lesson Tabs** provide Weekly Common Core State Standards coverage at a glance.
- Online planning with the **myPlanner** offers a tool to integrate standards-based instruction for math, science and language arts—with **Journeys Common Core, GO Math!**, and **ScienceFusion** all in one location.
- **Journeys Digital** online tools, which are integrated with the print products, provide interactive opportunities to apply the Common Core State Standards.
- Correlation to Common Core State Standards provides both Key Citations and Additional Practice and Student Application program references to ensure that teachers can easily see and plan standards-aligned instruction.
- Narrative, Informative, and Opinion writing lessons connect to the Common Core State Standards.

For students:

- **Journeys Common Core Domains** and **Topics that spiral up the grades** help students "establish a base of knowledge across a wide range of subject matter..." (CCSSI, 2010a, p. 7) that they need to meet the Common Core.
- **High-quality literature, informational texts, and instructional content** offer a wealth of opportunities for students to learn and master the Common Core State Standards.
- **Exemplar Texts** offer rich, high-quality literature and opportunities for close reading and analysis that meet the Common Core State Standards.
- Paired Selections provide opportunities for text comparison and deepen students' knowledge about the Lesson Topic.
- Your Turn performance tasks support the Standards' high expectations for speaking and writing about texts.
- Weekly grammar and writing instruction in the Student Book supports the Common Core State Standards.
- The Common Core Writing Handbook provides weekly writing support and resources.
- **Common Core State Standards** are shown at the point of use.
- Weekly Focus Wall shows weekly skills at a glance.

Strand 1: Key Elements of Reading

Defining the Strand

The goal of reading instruction is to develop students' skills so they can comprehend and analyze increasingly difficult texts. Meeting this goal is a complex task. As the National Reading Panel (2000) concluded in its seminal findings, learning to read requires developing multiple skills.

Phonemic Awareness and Phonics—Students' ability to comprehend is dependent on their ability to quickly and automatically decode words. Without sufficient skills in phonics and phonemic awareness, students cannot achieve this. Decoding must be included in any effective early reading program (Kendeou, van den Broek, White, & Lynch, 2009) and is essential in meeting the needs of older, struggling readers (Chard, Pikulski, & McDonagh, 2006; Moats, 2001). In the Common Core State Standards, the expectations for phonics and phonemic awareness are included as Foundational Skills (K-5)—"necessary and important components of an effective, comprehensive reading program designed to develop proficient readers ..." (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a, p. 15).

Learning to read is a complex task for beginners. They must coordinate many cognitive processes to read accurately and fluently, including recognizing words, constructing the meanings of sentences and text, and retaining the information read in memory.

Report of the National Reading Panel:

Teaching Children to Read
Reports of the Subgroups, 2000, p. 2-80

5

Vocabulary—Vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are closely connected (Baumann & Kame'enui, 1991; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986; Stahl & Nagy, 2006). Vocabulary is essential to early reading development (National Reading Panel, 2000) and in later grades, as the demands of content-area reading require high-level vocabulary skills. Vocabulary is emphasized at all grades of the Common Core Standards (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a).

Fluency—"Working to develop fluent reading is important for fostering more thoughtful literacy performances" (Allington, 2001, p. 14). The ability to read fluently involves the automatic recognition of words, ease of reading, appropriate rate, and expression that demonstrates comprehension. Because they spend less energy on decoding, fluent readers focus more energy on comprehension (Allington, 2001).

Comprehension—The primary goal of any core reading program is to develop students' abilities to comprehend texts of varied genres and increasing complexity. Comprehension is threaded throughout the Common Core strands on reading literature and informational texts. Focusing on the content of what is read, and asking students to make critical responses to that content, has been shown to be particularly effective in enhancing students' comprehension (Duffy, 2009; McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009).

The **Journeys Common Core** program develops students' skills in each of these areas, providing students with the building blocks for success. In **Journeys Common Core**, effectively sequenced, systematic, coordinated instruction develops students' foundational reading skills—in phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension.

 $\mathbf{4}$



Research that Guided the Development of Journeys Common Core

Phonemic Awareness

Phonemes are the smallest units of spoken language and phonemic awareness is the ability to focus on and manipulate these sounds in words. Possessing phonemic awareness is a precursor to decoding, in that students who can isolate individual sounds in spoken words can better connect these sounds with specific letters. The relationship is also recursive, however; phonemic awareness supports decoding, and reading helps to develop phonemic awareness.

After examining close to 100 studies, the National Reading Panel (2000) concluded that instruction in phonemic awareness and in phonics yields positive gains in early reading development, confirming the findings of earlier studies by Marilyn Adams (1990) and Jeanne Chall (1967).

The National Reading Panel (2000) meta-analysis found that phonemic awareness instruction was effective at improving the phonemic awareness, reading, and spelling skills of varied populations of learners at different grade levels. Results of the meta-analysis showed that teaching children to manipulate the sounds in language helps them learn to read. Phonemic awareness instruction helped all types of children improve their reading, including normally developing readers, children at risk for future reading problems, disabled readers, preschoolers, kindergartners, 1st graders, children in 2nd through 6th grades (most of whom were disabled readers), children across various SES levels, and children learning to read in English as well as in other languages (Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching Children to Read, Reports of the Subgroups, 2000, p. 2-5).

What does research suggest are particularly effective strategies for teaching phonemic awareness? Activities to teach phonemic awareness should include varied tasks, such as identifying words that share the same beginning sounds (*cat* and *car*), blending sounds to make words (/f/ /u/ /n/ into *fun*), or isolating sounds in words (/d/-og) (Phillips, Clancy-Menchetti, & Lonigan, 2008). Studies also point to the benefits of small-group instruction. Focusing on specific skills, fewer rather than more at a time, is also effective. Teaching phonemic awareness with graphemes, or symbols such as letter cards for sounds, has also been shown to be particularly effective. Effective phonemic awareness instruction can take a short amount of time (Reading & VanDeuren, 2007), but should be presented in a meaningful context, so that students can see the application and value of the skill (Cunningham, 1989). In terms of timing, phonemic awareness instruction should be included in kindergarten and grade 1 (National Reading Panel, 2000), and any needed intervention should be provided before students fall too far behind their peers (Schuele & Boudreau, 2008).

Phonics

In phonics instruction, the focus is on printed language—initially on the correspondences between letters and sounds/phonemes, and then on applications to reading and spelling. A systematic approach to teaching phonics involves specifying a sequence of phonics elements, teaching these explicitly, and providing students with opportunities to practice decoding words.

Research suggests that instruction in phonics is an important element in a balanced reading program. As described previously, phonics instruction involves teaching students letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns, and providing practice on applying this knowledge to reading and spelling. Because phonics is the relationship between letters and sounds, beginning readers need systematic instructional experiences with letters and sounds (Pikulski, 2012).

In its examination of 38 studies on instruction in phonics, the National Reading Panel (2000) concluded that students who were explicitly and systematically taught phonics progressed more quickly and made greater achievements in reading; "The conclusion supported by these findings is that various types of systematic phonics approaches are significantly more effective than non-phonics approaches in promoting substantial growth in reading" (2-93). Numerous independent studies, too, have supported explicit phonics instruction as an essential element of an effective early reading program (see, for example, Beverly, Giles, and Bruck, 2009, on benefits of explicit phonics instruction with grade 1 students; Foorman, Francis, Novy, and Libermann, 1991, on grade 1 classrooms with greater letter-sound instruction; Juel and Minden-Cupp, 2000, on specific benefits of direct phonics instruction for grade 1 students with low literacy).

Phonics instruction is most beneficial when it is provided in a systematic, sequential manner. In their 2009 study comparing systematic phonics instruction with a nonsystematic approach, de Graaff, Bosman, Hasselman, and Verhoeven found that systematic phonics instruction showed greater effects in kindergarten students' phonemic awareness, spelling, and reading comprehension than did instruction in phonics that was nonsystematic. In terms of timing, research suggests that the teaching of phonics is most important in grades K through 2, but instruction in these skills is also important for poor readers in the intermediate and upper grades (Moats, 2001).

Vocabulary

Effective instruction in vocabulary must help students acquire the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge required for access to the texts they will encounter and must teach students both the words themselves, as well as strategies to learn new words. Research establishes the following as essential elements of effective vocabulary instruction:

- Direct and indirect instruction (Baumann & Kame'enui, 1991; Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Graves, 2006; Nagy, 1988; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl, 1986);
- Multiple and varied exposures to words (Baumann & Kame-enui, 1991; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002, 2008;
 Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Fisher, Blachowicz, & Watts-Taffe, 2011; Graves, 2006; Kolich, 1988; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl, 1986; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986; Stahl & Nagy, 2006);
- Frequent instruction (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Topping & Paul, 1999);
- Instruction in word morphology, or structure (Aronoff, 1994; Bowers & Kirby, 2010; Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007; Nunes & Bryant, 2006; Templeton, 1989, 2004, 2012).

Research shows that while words can be learned incidentally, explicit instruction plays an important role in achievement (McKeown & Beck, 1988; National Reading Panel, 2000), and may be particularly important for certain students. Research has documented the disparity between the vocabularies of these students and those of socioeconomically advantaged student populations (Chall, Jacobs, & Baldwin, 1990; Hart & Risley, 1995; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Without intentional and meaningful intervention, the disparity in vocabulary knowledge between these groups only increases over time (Baker, Simmons, & Kame'enui, 1995b). English language learners also benefit a great deal from explicit vocabulary instruction. While English language learners tend to acquire social or conversational language vocabulary and skills through incidental social interactions and conversations, the acquisition of an academic vocabulary requires explicit vocabulary instruction (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006a). Struggling readers are a third group that benefits from explicit instruction, making larger and faster achievement gains with the help of explicit vocabulary instruction (Sedita, 2005).



Another finding that is consistent across research on vocabulary teaching and learning is the need for multiple exposures. Words must be encountered a number of times before learning occurs (Baumann & Kame'enui, 1991; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Dixon-Krauss, 2001; Graves, 2006; Kolich, 1988; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986). Providing multiple exposures allows for a deeper understanding of words—their multiple meanings, uses, and connotations (Beck & McKeown, 1991; McKeown & Beck, 1988). The research of Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002, 2008) supports these findings; "students who received rich, frequent instruction did better on a variety of measures" (p. 77-78).

In addition to teaching words in different ways, the frequency of instruction in vocabulary is important (Biemiller, 2004; National Reading Panel, 2000; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). Providing many opportunities for practice has been shown to be an effective instructional technique to support word learning, particularly among students with learning disabilities (Swanson, 1999; Swanson & Hoskyn, 2001; Vaughn et al., 2000).

As Nagy and Anderson (1984) point out, the total number of words that students must learn is so vast that educators cannot hope to directly instruct students in each individual word. Rather, teachers can teach students about words (Nagy, 2007), providing them with a framework for learning other new words. If learners understand how words are structured, they possess a powerful tool for independent vocabulary growth (Templeton, Bear, Invernizzi, & Johnston, 2010). To understand new words, skilled readers make use of word parts (compound words, inflectional endings) and how prefixes, suffixes, bases, and Greek/Latin word roots combine (Anglin, 1993; Bowers & Kirby, 2010; Templeton, 2004; White, Power, & White, 1989). Because most new words students will encounter are morphological derivatives of familiar words (Aronoff, 1994), students with greater understanding of morphology are more successful at learning academic vocabulary and comprehending text (Carlisle, 2010; Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007). Teaching students skills in morphological analysis can be powerfully effective (Templeton, 2004) and correlate with higher reading comprehension scores for all groups (Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007). A recent meta-analysis analyzed studies that included morphological instruction as a treatment and found that it significantly improved students' literacy achievement and was "particularly effective for children with reading, learning, or speech and language disabilities, English language learners, and struggling readers" (Goodwin & Ahn, 2010).

Fluency

When learning to read fluently, readers move from laboriously attending to each letter-sound association to decoding automatically and purposefully. How well students recognize words connects to how well students understand words (Allington, 2001; Pulido, 2007) because "fast, accurate word recognition frees cognitive resources for reading comprehension" (Klauda & Guthrie, 23-24).

The connection between fluency and comprehension is well documented (Allington, 2001). Researchers found that grade 5 students who had the highest performances in comprehension also were able to quickly recognize isolated words, process phrases and sentences as units while reading silently, and use appropriate expression when reading text aloud (Klauda & Guthrie, 2008). In a 2002 study, researchers found a close connection between fluency and comprehension—students who read more quickly and with greater accuracy also scored higher on the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) reading assessment (Daane, Campbell, Grigg, Goodman, & Oranje, 2005).

Research suggests that instruction in fluency should be part of a complete reading program for all readers (Shanahan, 2006; Chard, Pikulski, & McDonagh, 2006). To gain fluency, readers must "move beyond accuracy to automaticity—and automaticity is achieved only with practice." (Samuels, Schermer, & Reinking, 1992, 136) Thus, fluency development requires repeated practice (Keehn, 2003). Effective instruction in fluency, therefore, will likely involve increasing the amount of reading students do (Samuels, 2002) and engaging in repeated oral readings (National Research Panel, 2000; Pressley, Gaskins, & Fingeret, 2006; Samuels, 2002). Repeated reading has been shown to impact students' word recognition, reading speed, and comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000). Repeated exposure to words leads to gains in fluency (Jenkins, Stein, & Wysocki, 1984; Topping & Paul, 1999).

For struggling readers, particularly, explicit and systematic instruction in fluency is important. According to Chard, Pikulski, and McDonagh (2006) "...research and theory suggest ... [an] eight-step program for struggling readers [that] ...

- 1. Builds the graphophonic foundations for fluency, including phonological awareness, letter familiarity, and phonics.
- 2. Builds and extends vocabulary and oral language skills.
- 3. Provides expert instruction and practice in the recognition of high-frequency vocabulary.
- 4. Teaches common word parts and spelling patterns.
- 5. Teaches, models, and provides practice in the application of a decoding strategy.
- 6. Uses appropriate texts to coach strategic behaviors and to build reading speed.
- 7. Uses repeated reading procedures as an intervention approach for struggling readers.
- 8. Monitors fluency development through appropriate assessment procedures." (p. 48-49)

Comprehension

Reading comprehension is a complex cognitive activity involving many varied skills and strategies. While some students learn to read—and continue to comprehend texts with greater difficulty—without explicit instruction, most students benefit from instruction in reading comprehension processes and strategies.

Readers must use a variety of strategies—such as making inferences, asking and answering questions, visualizing, determining main ideas and details, and so on—in order to make sense of the text. How best to develop students' use of these strategies? The Report of the National Reading Panel (2000) agreed with what reading teachers have known for years, offering "enthusiastic advocacy of instruction of reading strategies" (p. 4-46). Research shows that to be most effective, reading comprehension instruction must support students, directly and explicitly, with how to use the strategies needed to comprehend a text (Cantrell, Almasi, Carter, Rintamaa, & Madden, 2010; National Reading Panel, 2000; Hollingsworth & Woodward, 1993). Teaching students specific strategies provides them with tools to use when they do not comprehend.

Struggling readers often have trouble using such strategies (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991) so for these students, explicit instruction is particularly important (Nelson & Manset-Williamson, 2006). However, all students benefit from explicit instruction, modeling, and practice using reading comprehension strategies—poor and high achievers alike, as well as native speakers and non-native speakers of English (Alfassi, 2004; Baumann, 1984; Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006a, 2006b; Klingner & Vaughn, 2004: Nokes & Dole, 2004; Rosenshine, Meister, & Chapman, 1996; Van Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005).

The high literacy demands placed on today's students mean that basic comprehension is insufficient; readers must engage in higher-order thinking. Research supports instruction in critical thinking, finding improved achievement and transfer with improved critical thinking skills (Adey & Shayer, 1993; Haywood, 2004). Asking students good questions—and teaching students how to ask their own good questions—promotes deeper comprehension (Craig, Sullins, Witherspoon, & Gholson, 2006; Graesser & Person, 1994; King, 1994; Pressley et al., 1992; Rosenshine, Meister, & Chapman, 1996). Writing about reading and making connections led to higher student performance than a control group in Connor-Greene's 2000 study. Biancarosa and Snow (2006) concluded that students who write about what they read show more evidence of critical thinking.

f 8



To help students to become critical readers, the Common Core State Standards encourage close reading of texts through Anchor Standards for Reading which include the expectations that students will ready closely, cite specific textual evidence, analyze the development of ideas, interpret words and phrases, and analyze the structure of a text (for a complete list of the K-5 College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards for Reading see the CCSS, 2010a, p. 10). When students read texts closely, they focus on and within texts—making meaning by the author's use of individual words, patterns of ideas, use of devices, and so on.

In their study of what they term a "content" approach for reading comprehension instruction—in which the teacher's attention was focused on directing students toward the content of the text and working closely through the text together—McKeown, Beck, and Blake (2009) found that the content approach engaged "students in the process of attending to text ideas and building a mental representation of those ideas" (p. 219). Discussion-based activities have also been found to significantly enhance students' understanding of complex texts (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003). Knowledge building improves comprehension as well. As discussed above, reading represents an interaction between the reader, the text, and the task. As would be expected, then, numerous studies have shown the deepening students' knowledge of the topic improves their comprehension (Graves, Cooke, & LaBerge, 1983; McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009).

From Research to Practice

Phonemic Awareness in Journeys Common Core

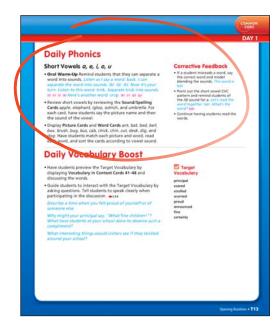
The **Journeys Common Core** program provides systematic instruction in phonemic awareness for early readers, and suggestions for supporting the needs of older readers as well. The instructional activities in **Journeys Common Core** align with the Common Core State Standards expectations for phonological awareness. Phonemic awareness is a key element of the Common Core expectations and a major focus of instruction in **Journeys Common Core** across the early grades.

Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2
Add Phoneme (K-4: T389, T435)	Daily Phonemic Awareness	Daily Phonemic Awareness
Beginning Sound (K-1: T212) Blend Onset and Rime (K-2: T13, T107)	See 1-1: T13, T16, T35, T45, T57, T67.	See 2-1: T209, T210, T231, T232, T241, T242, T253, T254, T263.
Final Sound (K-3: T201, T257) Middle Sound (K-3: T295, T351) Phoneme Blending (K-2: T295, T351) Phoneme Isolation (K-3: T295, T329)	 Phonemic Awareness Skills Beginning Sound (1-1: T13) Final Sound (1-2: T37, T47) Middle Sound (1-2: T233, T243) 	 Phonemic Awareness Skills Beginning Sound (2-1: T242) Final Sound (2-1: T16)
Phoneme Segmentation (K-4: T107, T235) Phoneme Substitution (K-5: T107, T153) Phyming Wesde (K-1: T50: K-2: T46)	 Phoneme Blending (1-1: T36, T57, T163) Phoneme Isolation (1-1: T46; 1-2: T69) Phoneme Segmentation (1-2: T13) Phoneme Substitution (1-6: T13, T39) Segment Syllables (1-6: T40, T50) 	 Middle Sound (2-1: T13) Phoneme Blending (2-1: T207) Phoneme Isolation (2-1: T133) Phoneme Segmentation (2-1: T334) Phoneme Substitution (2-1: T334)
Rhyming Words (K-1: T59; K-3: T46)	Segment Syllables (1-6: T40, T50)	 Phoneme Substitution (2-1: T334) Segment Syllables (2-1: T46)

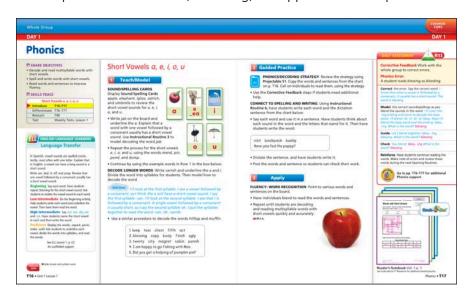
Phonics in Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program provides systematic, sequenced phonics instruction. In addition, the program supports teachers in planning decoding instruction for their students.

In *Journeys Common Core*, young readers are provided with systematic instruction in phonics that meets the Common Core State Standards and the best practices identified by research in phonics instruction. **Kindergarten**Student Books and Grades 1–2 Decodable Readers support early readers with texts that they can decode. The program includes the Daily Phonics feature, providing students with regular instruction in and application of important foundational phonics skills.



And whole-group **Phonics** and **Decoding** instruction—in which specific suggestions for differentiation, daily assessment and Response to Intervention, modeling, and application are all provided—is offered at every level of the program.





The following table shows some of the phonics skills taught in the early grades of **Journeys Common Core**. The skills and concepts in phonics build systematically and are reinforced from Kindergarten through Grade 2:

Journeys Common Core Phonics Instruction								
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2						
 Alphabet, Letter recognition Blending Consonants Decoding Short Vowels Long Vowels 	 Alphabet, Letter recognition Base Word/Inflections -ed, -ing, -er, -est, -es Base Words Blending Compound Words Consonants Consonant Clusters 	 Alphabet, Letter recognition Base Words Ending in -ed or -ing Blending Compound Words Consonants Consonant Clusters Consonant Digraphs 						

For students in the upper grades who can still benefit from decoding instruction, **Journeys Common Core** provides instructional support.

Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Base Words and -ed, -ing Common Vowel Pairs ai, ay, ee, ea Compound Words Contractions with n't, 'd, 've Double Consonants Final Syllables -tion, -sion, -ture Homophones Long i Spelled i, ie, igh Long o Spelled oa, ow Long Vowels a, e, i, o, u Prefixes un-, pre-, re-, bi-	 Base Words and Endings Common Consonant Patterns (Clusters, Digraphs) Compound Words Homophones Prefixes Silent Consonants Open and Closed Syllables Stress in Multisyllable Words Suffixes Syllable Patterns Beginning and Final Syllables 	 Common Beginning Syllables Common Final Syllables Compound Words Consonant Alterations Digraphs in Multisyllable Words Greek Word Roots Homophones Identifying VCV, VCCV, VCCCV Syllable Patterns Latin Word Roots Common Suffixes 	 Stressed and Unstressed Syllables Schwa(Italics) in Unstressed Syllables Silent Consonants in Multisyllable Words Base Words and Inflectional Endings Common Prefixes, Syllables, and Word Root Consonant Alterations Common Final Syllables Consonant Alterations Homophones Identifying VCV, VCCV, VCCCV, and W Syllable Patterns Confusing words Latin Word Parts

Vocabulary in Journeys Common Core

For a reading program to be comprehensive and effective at developing students' vocabulary skills and knowledge, it must take a systematic, purposeful, and engaging approach. The Journeys Common Core program focuses on three major purposes for teaching vocabulary: (1) To facilitate comprehension; (2) To build academic vocabulary; and (3) To teach about words, including the elements that contribute to independent word learning. To accomplish these goals, the program supports students through multiple exposures, explicit vocabulary instruction, strategies for acquiring new vocabulary, and instruction in word morphology.

In Journeys Common Core, each lesson follows a consistent format. Lessons begin with an opener, in which students are introduced to the Target Vocabulary words, which are identified in each lesson. At the beginning of each lesson, teachers introduce vocabulary, discuss the word definitions, use the word in context, and provide different opportunities for students to engage in word learning.

These same **Target Vocabulary** words are reinforced further in the Vocabulary in **Context Cards,** which offer students the opportunity to engage with the target words in different ways.

The words identified in **Journeys Common Core** are backed by extensive research, including a major study by Zeno and colleagues (1995) in which the vocabulary in texts, ranging from Kindergarten level texts to college texts, were analyzed to establish a list of over 17 million words. This list, along with lists such as Dolch's (1948) and Fry's (2004) list of high-frequency site words, enabled the authors of Journeys Common

Core to systematically identify the core academic vocabulary most needed for student success. These core vocabulary words are important so that students can read at the high levels expected by the Common Core State Standards.

In addition to the **Target Vocabulary**, the program teaches students Academic Vocabulary, Domain-Specific Vocabulary, and terms relevant to reading/language arts study (such as Terms About Informational Text, Terms About Literature, and Terms About Writing/Language Arts).



Unit		Digital	created guide no m 1. Tempo representation		3 11 %
	E BARGET VOCABULAR	P VOCABULARY	SPELLING W	0805	TERMS ABOUT READING LANGUAGE ART
Lesson			plan spent plan banch thing pumpkin smell clock shut gelt clicky class	dita swing next tug toopital fartactir	justing characters plot iffusivations throof contest simple santance
2	tellad political	ut verdet langer joige	spake rate rate rate prior receive receive trate trate	life rate these these surprise decide	conduction procise wards dictionary glociary statement question sommend exclamation
3	officed com- cystomen figo- contacted bloc rules spec	valenteer lookers charty surresulty senice	lay orem soal les tuil test corret ahadi loday base dram bat	speed point please protentay explain	trains trains methystens methyste methyste compound santance compound santance compound santance
Lesson 4	eron top Sile dis- cling the talancing mod	opeans construction harness toh suspension	keed from specific form to the specific specific solid state should state shadow coach.	direct threat cold most tempores selboots	compare control secting shorewhere piret sequence of events know word secul family
Lesson	ctunds sign fore pul- costs ctyl- lospie pro-	professional sportsmansh	slight pilot mild might cight lin pir light mind blind to fight	die midnight find night silent Sightweing	Canne effect signal words bitral meaning needitional meaning contact bone word

13



For specific examples of some of the ways in which the **Journeys Common Core** program builds students' vocabulary, see these program pages:

	Examples of Acq	uiring Vocabula	ry Skills in Journe	eys Common Cor	2	
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Daily	Domain-	Vocabulary in	Vocabulary in	Vocabulary in	Vocabulary in	Vocabulary in
Vocabulary	Specific	Context, 2-1:	Context, 3-4:	Context, 4-4:	Context, 5-5:	Context, 6-5:
Boost, K-4: T13,	Vocabulary,	T116-T117	T206-T207	T14-T15	T316-T317	T88-T89
T31	1-4: T278	11101117	1200 1207	114113	13101317	100 103
131	1-4.1270	Terms About	Terms About	Terms About	Terms About	Terms About
Oral	High-	Informational	Informational	Literature, 4-4:	Informational	Informational
Vocabulary,	Frequency	Text, 2-1: T136	Text, 3-4: T228	T30	Text, 5-5: T332	Text, 6-5: T106
K-4: T22	Words, 1-4:	ione, E i i i i o	10/10/11/12/20	100	10/10/0 0.1002	10xt, 0 0.1100
	T224-T225	Apply	Apply	Apply	Apply	Apply
High-		Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary
Frequency	Terms About	Knowledge,	Knowledge,	Knowledge,	Knowledge,	Knowledge,
Words, K-4:	Literature, 1-4:	2-1: T151	3-4: T240-T241	4-4: T35	5-5: T337	6-5: T111
T26-T27, T35	T146					
.20 .27, .00		Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary
Selection	Words to Know,	Strategies, 2-1:	Strategies, 3-4:	Strategies, 4-4:	Strategies, 5-5:	Strategies, 6-5:
Vocabulary,	1-4: T122-T123	T160-T161	T248-T249	T40-T41	T342-T343	T116-T117
K-4: T35						
	Apply	Domain-	Domain-	Domain-	Domain-	Domain-
Enrich	Vocabulary	Specific	Specific	Specific	Specific	Specific
Vocabulary,	Knowledge,	Vocabulary,	Vocabulary,	Vocabulary,	Vocabulary,	Vocabulary,
K-4: T55	1-4: T160-T161	2-1: T166	3-4: T254	4-4: T42	5-5: T344	6-5: T118
Vocabulary				Terms About	Terms About	Terms About
Strategies, K-4:				Language,	Language,	Language, 6-5:
T61				4-4: T48	5-5: T350	T124
Domain-						
Specific						
Vocabulary,						
K-4: T70						

Students receive the reinforcement and multiple exposures research suggests is necessary for deep vocabulary learning. The **Daily Vocabulary Boost** encourages frequent vocabulary learning. After **Target Vocabulary** words are identified and repeated throughout the lesson, the same words are followed through into the **Leveled Readers**. Students hear the word in a beginning teacher read-aloud, they see images that represent **Target Vocabulary**, and they apply the word meanings through routines while reading the **Student Book** selections, the **Leveled Readers**, and the **Vocabulary Readers**. **Vocabulary in Context Cards** offer further reinforcement.

In **Journeys Common Core**, vocabulary strategy lessons are provided for each week of instruction. **Vocabulary Strategies** help students develop strategies to learn vocabulary words in the lesson. Strategies include morphological analysis to align with Common Core State Standards such as:

Language Standard 3.4.c. Use a known root word as a clue to the meaning of an unknown word with the same root (e.g., *company*, *companion*).

Throughout, the program provides instruction and practice in applying varied strategies for learning new words, including the following.

In **Journeys Common Core** Kindergarten, vocabulary strategies include:

- Alphabetical Order
- Antonyms/Synonyms
- Classification/Categorization
- Colors
- Context Clues

- Figurative Language
- Multiple-Meaning Words
- Prefixes and Suffixes
- Words Ending in –ed, -ing, -s
- Words with Suffixes –ly, -ful

In **Journeys Common Core** Grade 3, vocabulary strategies include:

- Analogies
- Antonyms/Synonyms
- Compound Words
- Context Clues
- Dictionary/Glossary

- Homophones/Homographs
- Idioms
- Multiple-Meaning Words
- Using a Thesaurus
- Morphological Analysis

In **Journeys Common Core** Grade 5, vocabulary strategies include:

- Adages and Proverbs
- Analogies
- Antonyms
- Figurative Language
- Greek and Latin Word Parts
- Homographs
- Homophones
- Idioms

- Multiple-Meaning Words
- Prefixes
- Reference Materials
- Shades of Meaning
- Suffixes
- Synonyms
- Use Context
- Word Origins

The word study and vocabulary activities, designed by Dr. Shane Templeton, in the **Literacy and Language Guide** provide word study support for each lesson and a developmentally based approach to phonics, spelling, and vocabulary instruction. The lessons expand and deepen students' learning of target vocabulary and of morphological analysis.

Finally, each grade's Student Book **Glossary** supports deep word-learning by providing students with information on word parts, pronunciation of words, word definitions, words in context, and images.



Fluency in Journeys Common Core

Shanahan (2006a) points out that "fluency instruction works best when it is part of a more complete regimen of reading and writing instruction." (35-36) In **Houghton Mifflin Harcourt's Journeys Common Core**, fluency is built into a comprehensive and integrated program for literacy.

In **Journeys Common Core**, students' fluency is built through instruction in decoding and word recognition, models of fluent reading, and regular opportunities for guided reading practice—with support and feedback. With each **Teacher Read Aloud**, teachers are given support to **Model Fluency** for students—and the **Teacher's Edition** provides suggestions for elements to emphasize in the read aloud. **Daily Fluency** activities give students a chance to practice skills in fluent reading.

Distributed practice for specific elements of fluency is given at each grade and progresses in complexity as students move up the grades.

The Emphases of Fluency Instruction in Journeys Common Core, Grades K-6							
Grade K	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	
 Accuracy Adjust Rate to Purpose Expression Pause for Punctuation Phrasing Reading Rate 	Accuracy Adjust Rate to Purpose Expression Intonation Phrasing Punctuation Reading Rate Self-Correction Stress Word Recognition	Accuracy Adjust Rate to Purpose Expression Intonation Natural Pauses Phrasing Reading Rate Self-Correction Stress	 Accuracy Expression Intonation Phrasing Reading Rate Self- Correction Stress Word Recognition 	 Accuracy Adjust Rate to Purpose Expression Intonation Phrasing Reading Rate Self- Correction Stress 	Accuracy Adjust Rate to Purpose Expression Intonation Phrasing Reading Rate Self-Correction Stress	Accuracy Adjust Rate to Purpose Expression Intonation Phrasing Reading Rate Self-Correction Stress	

Fluency assessment is a strength in **Journeys Common Core**. For examples of fluency assessments in **Journeys Common Core**, see the following pages:

Grade 1, Cold Reads, Fluency Tests, 1-5: T51, T77, T151, T177, T253, T279

Grade 3, Cold Reads, Fluency Tests, 3-3: T43, T67, T137, T161, T321, T345

Grade 5, Cold Reads, Fluency Tests, 5-4: T44, T57, T122, T135, T194, T207

Comprehension Instruction in Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program was designed to develop the kind of critical thinking skills that will serve as strong foundations for the later demands of school and work. According to the Common Core State Standards, "students who are college and career ready in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language...work diligently to understand precisely what an author or speaker is saying, but they also question an author's or speaker's assumptions and premises and assess the veracity of claims and the soundness of reasoning" (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a, p. 7). Students at work in the **Journeys Common Core** program are able to answer basic who, what, where, and when questions as well as higher-level how, why, and what-if questions.

Students in **Journeys Common Core** further develop their critical response skills by writing about what they read, using text evidence to support their ideas and claims. The **Student Book: Your Turn** feature provided after each **Anchor Text** gives students the opportunity to complete a **Performance Task** by responding in writing to what they read—as well as providing the chance for students to engage in collaborative **Classroom Conversations.**

The content of reading is important in developing students' comprehension skills. According to the authors of the Common Core, "By reading texts in history/social studies, science, and other disciplines, students build a foundation of knowledge in these fields that will also give them the background to be better readers in all content areas. Students can only gain this foundation when the curriculum is intentionally and coherently structured to develop rich content knowledge within and across grades" (CCSSI, 2010a, p. 10). In *Journeys Common Core*, the program's organization around **Domains** and **Topics** supports this essential building of students' knowledge of different domains.



In **Journeys Common Core** students develop the skills and strategies to independently comprehend increasingly challenging texts of varied genres. The following table shows some of the comprehension skills and strategies taught in the context of the anchor text and practiced through close reading.



Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Skills:	Skills:	Skills:	Skills:	Skills:	Skills:	Skills:
 Author's 	Author's	 Author's 	Author's	• Allusion	Cause and	Author's
Purpose	Purpose	Purpose	Purpose	Analyze an	Effect	Purpose
 Author's 	Author's Word	Author's	Author's Word	Argument	Characteri-	Cause and
Word Choice	Choice	Word Choice	Choice	Author's	zation	Effect
 Cause and 	Cause and	 Cause and 	Cause and	Word Choice	Compare	Compare ar
Effect	Effect	Effect	Effect	Cause and	and Contrast	Contrast
Compare/	Compare/	Compare/	• Compare/	Effect	 Conclusions 	 Conclusion
Contrast	Contrast	Contrast	Contrast	Compare and	 Dialect 	and
 Conclusions 	 Concl-usions 	 Conclusions 	 Conclusions 	Contrast	 Dialogue 	Generalizat
Figurative	Fact and	 Fact and 	 Literal and 	 Conclusions 	Domain-	 Fact and
Language	Opinion	Opinion	Nonliteral	Elements of	Specific	Opinion
 Main Ideas 	Figurative	 Figurative 	Meanings	Drama	Vocabulary	Main Idea a
and Details	Language	Language	Main Ideas	 Flashback 	Elements of	Details
 Sequence 	Sequence	 Point of View 	and Details	 Main Ideas 	Drama	Persuasion
of Events	of Events	 Sequence of 	 Point of View 	and Details	• Irony	Sequence of
Story	Story Message	Events	Sequence of	Sequence of	Narrative	Events
Structure	Story	• Story	Events	Events	Pacing	Story Struc
 Text and 	Structure	Structure	Story Message	• Story	Sequence	Text and
Graphic	Text and	 Text and 	Story Structure	Structure	of Events	Graphic
Features	Graphic	Graphic	Theme	 Text and 	Story	Features
 Understand- 	Features	Features	Understand-	Graphic	Structure	Theme
ing	Under-	• Under-	ing Characters	Features	Text Structure	Understand
Characters	standing	standing		Text Structure	Theme	Characters
	Characters	Characters		Theme	Visual	
					Elements	
Strategies:	Strategies:	Strategies:	Strategies:	Strategies:	Strategies:	Strategies:
• Analyze/	Analyze/	• Analyze/	• Analyze/	• Analyze/	Analyze/	• Analyze/
Evaluate	Evaluate	Evaluate	Evaluate	Evaluate	Evaluate	Evaluate
 Ask Questions 	Ask Questions	 Infer/Predict 	Infer/Predict	Infer/Predict	Infer/Predict	• Infer/Pred
Infer/Predict	Infer/Predict	 Monitor/ 	Monitor/	Monitor/	Monitor/	Monitor/
• Monitor/	Monitor/	Clarify	Clarify	Clarify	Clarify	Clarify
Clarify	Clarify	 Question 	 Question 	Question	Question	Question
Question	Question	Summarize	Summarize	Summarize	Summarize	Summarize
Summarize	Summarize	 Visualize 	Visualize	Visualize	Visualize	Visualize
 Visualize 	Visualize					

The program provides scaffolded reading support with each lesson. Each of the Leveled Readers offered with the program is accompanied by an eight-page teaching plan to support readers in a small-group setting and includes critical thinking questions that encourage close reading. The program's **Write-In Reader** offers additional support to students building comprehension skills. Technology, too, is used to support students' developing comprehension skills; the program's **Destination Reading® Activities** are engaging, game-like activities with built-in feedback that are tied to the **Journeys Common Core** comprehension skills and strategies.

Strand 2: Teaching with Effective Texts to Meet the Common Core State Standards

Defining the Strand

The selection of appropriate, engaging, and varied texts is at the core of an effective reading program. For students to be engaged—and motivated to persist—texts must be appropriately challenging and engaging. The inclusion of varied genres exposes students to the different texts they will encounter in and out of school and develops their reading skills with multiple genres. As the Common Core State Standards' "Note on Range and Content of Student Reading" states:

To build a foundation for college and career readiness, students must read widely and deeply from among a broad range of high-quality, increasingly challenging literary and informational texts.

Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a, p. 10

19

Through extensive reading of stories, dramas, poems, and myths from diverse cultures and different time periods, students gain literary and cultural knowledge as well as familiarity with various text structures and elements. By reading texts in history/social studies, science, and other disciplines, students build a foundation of knowledge in these fields that will also give them the background to be better readers in all content areas. Students can only gain this foundation when the curriculum is intentionally and coherently structured to develop rich content knowledge within and across grades. (CCSSI, 2010a, p. 10)

Leveled texts, too, can play a role in preparing students—particularly struggling readers and ELL students (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007)—to read the kinds of texts specified in the Common Core. According to Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998) "regardless of a child's reading ability, if too many of the words of a text are problematic, both comprehension and reading growth itself are impeded" (p. 213). Finely leveled texts can provide scaffolding and build confidence.

The use of engaging texts in varied genres, too, is essential. Inappropriate or uninteresting texts will disengage students from the comprehension process. Exposure to varied texts prepares students for the kinds of reading they will do in future school and work.

Throughout **Journeys Common Core**, students are exposed to the types of texts that will help them meet the Common Core expectations and be prepared for future reading demands. **Journeys Common Core** offers appropriately leveled texts in varied genres and with topics and themes designed to engage and motivate all readers.



Research that Guided the Development of the Journeys Common Core program

Text Complexity

"The Common Core State Standards hinge on students encountering appropriately complex texts at each grade level to develop the mature language skills and the conceptual knowledge they need for success in school and life" (Coleman & Pimentel, 2011, p. 3).

The complexity of a text depends on more than a simple calculation of the length of words and sentences. According to the Common Core (CCSSI, 2010a), three factors are involved in measuring a text's complexity:

- 1. A qualitative evaluation of text must look at the levels of meaning in the text, the structure of the text, the conventionality and clarity of the language, and the knowledge demands that the text's content places on readers.
- 2. A quantitative evaluation, which involves readability measures and other calculations of text complexity based on word and sentence length and familiarity.
- 3. A matching of the reader to the text and task, which involves considering such variables as the reader's motivation, knowledge, and experiences and the task's purpose and complexity.



The texts that students encounter should increase in complexity across these three factors—qualitative, quantitative, and the reader-task-text interaction—across grade levels.

Complexity matters. In its 2006 report, *Reading Between the Lines*, ACT, Inc. concluded that the main difference between students who reached the benchmark score level in their performance and those who did not was whether or not students could answer questions based on complex texts. Alarmingly, while the level of texts that students will encounter—in textbooks, journals, and the workplace—has increased over time, few students have been prepared to read and understand these complex texts (ACT, 2009).

To support students in reading these kinds of texts, the writers of the Common Core recommend a close reading approach in which students and teachers work closely with the text (Coleman & Pimentel, 2011).

For some students, leveled texts may help teachers to prepare students to read more complex texts. According to Fountas (2010), "a high-quality leveled book is your best tool for meeting readers where they are and moving them forward." Leveling assists students in learning to read (Clay, 1991). Matching the instructional activity with the learner's level has sometimes been referred to as the Goldilocks principle—activities should be not too hard or not too easy, but just right for learning to occur (VanLehn, Graesser, Jackson, Jordan, Olney, & Rose, 2007; Metcalfe & Kornell, 2005; Wolfe, Schreiner, Rehder, Laham, Foltz, Kintsch, & Landauer, 1998; Morris, Blanton, Blanton, Nowacek, & Perney, 1995).

Varied Genres

Research suggests that the approaches students take to reading and comprehending fiction and informational texts differ, and that students need experiences with and instruction in reading both kinds of texts. A majority of reading that students will do in school and in work is nonfiction. In an effective literacy program, students need exposure to high-quality fiction *and* nonfiction texts. "Part of the motivation behind the interdisciplinary approach to literacy promulgated by the Standards is extensive research establishing the need for college and career ready students to be proficient in reading complex informational text ...The Standards are not alone in calling for a special emphasis on informational text. The 2009 reading framework of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) requires a high and increasing proportion of informational text on its assessment as students advance through the grades" (Common Core Standards Initiative, 2010a, p. 4).

Because classrooms today incorporate an expanded variety of texts, students need to be supported in learning how to read across multiple texts" (Ogle & Blachowicz, 2002, p. 270). Content-area teachers lack the expertise to effectively teach reading; therefore, the responsibility to teach content-area reading skills and strategies often falls to the English teacher—who can use support him or herself in teaching reading of these kinds of texts (ACT, 2007).

Because the structures of content-area texts differ from narrative texts, comprehension strategies for one do not necessarily transfer to the other. For this reason, explicit instruction in multiple genres is helpful. Williams (2005) conducted a series of studies and found that at-risk students were able to transfer what they learned to new texts when they were given explicit instruction with a focus on text structure.

Engaging Topics and Themes

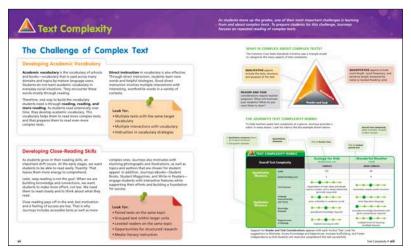
Texts used in the classroom should engage students' interest and motivate them to continue reading. Studies have shown a high correlation between personal interest and text learning—and these findings hold up "for both short and long text, narratives and expository text, younger and older students, and students with high or low reading ability" (Schiefele, 1999, p. 265). Students who are interested in what they are reading are mentally engaged (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006); in their study, Guthrie, Hoa, Wigfield, Tonks, Humenick, and Littles (2007) found that "interest and positive affect for reading invariably were associated with high cognitive recall and comprehension of text" (p. 306). The use of interesting texts has been shown to increase students' generalized motivation for learning (Guthrie, Hoa, Wigfield, Tonks, & Perencevich, 2006).

Well-written informational texts on topics of interest and fiction with interesting characters, exciting plots, and familiar themes will engage readers. Other properties of texts that have been shown to increase student interest include interesting topics (Schiefele, 1999; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, 2001, 2006), appealing format (Schraw, Bruning, & Svobada, 1995), relevance (Schraw & Dennison, 1994), and appropriate language and complexity (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996, 2001, 2006).



From Research to Practice

Text Complexity in Journeys Common Core



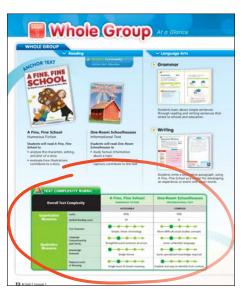
In **Journeys Common Core**, students read the texts they need to meet the Common Core State Standards' expectations for rigor and complexity for grade-level reading, and teachers are supported in helping students successfully comprehend and analyze these challenging texts.

The program is built around strong texts. **Exemplar Texts** from Appendix B of the Common Core State Standards are featured at each grade level, hallmarks of the rich, high-quality literature throughout the program. Consistent engagement with these complex texts gives students the opportunity for the kinds of close reading and analysis emphasized throughout the Common Core State Standards.



Instructionally, **Journeys Common Core** prepares students to become independent readers of complex texts by developing students' academic vocabulary and building their knowledge base.

The program also provides scaffolding to support readers—through guided questioning, vocabulary support, strategy instruction, and discussion of the elements and structures of the genre. Program features such as **Think Through the Text** help readers focus on close reading and supporting ideas with text evidence. Instructional suggestions are provided for students' first and second readings of the text—as well as for students reading independently.



Teachers are provided with information about the complexity of texts so that they can consider both qualitative and quantitative measures of text complexity as they prepare to teach from the texts. The program's **Text Complexity Rubric** provides teachers with information about the text's structure, language, knowledge demands, purpose/levels of meaning, Lexile, and Guided Reading Level.

The authors of **Journeys Common Core** recognize that some students will need scaffolding to read and comprehend the complex texts required by the Common Core State Standards. To help teachers in supporting these students, the program offers **Leveled Readers.** These texts offer leveled support that aligns with the core instruction to all students:

- Struggling Readers
- On-Level Readers
- Advanced Readers
- English Language Learners

Varied Genres in Journeys Common Core

Genre instruction is an important element of the **Journeys Common Core** program. The program includes texts in varied genres at each level as shown here:

Genres in Journeys Common Core							
Grade K	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	
Grade K Sig Book and Read Aloud Book Genres Fable Fairy Tale Fantasy Fiction Folktale Informational Text Narrative Nonfiction Poetry Realistic Fiction	Grade 1 Student Book Genres Biography Fable Fairy Tale Fantasy Folktale Informational Text Play Poetry Readers' Theater Realistic Fiction Science Fiction	Student Book Genres Biography Fable Fairy Tale Fantasy Folktale Historical Fiction Humorous Fiction Informational Text Mystery Narrative	Grade 3 Student Book Genres Biography Fable Fantasy Folktale Historical Fiction Humorous Fiction Informational Text Legend Myth Narrative Nonfiction Play Poetry Realistic Fiction Trickster Tale	Grade 4 Student Book Genres Biography Fable Fantasy Folktale Historical Fiction Informational Text Myth Narrative Nonfiction Play Poetry Readers' Theater Realistic Fiction Science Fiction Tall Tale	Grade 5 Student Book Genres Adventure Stories Autobiography Biography Fairytale Historical Fiction Humorous Fiction Informational Text Myth Narrative Nonfiction Persuasive Text Play Poetry Readers' Theater Realistic	Grade 6 Student Book Genres Autobiography Fantasy Historical Fiction Informational Text Literary Nonfiction Myth Realistic Fiction Science Fiction	



The program's **Reading Adventures Magazine** includes additional genres and opportunities for students to engage in genre study. **Reading Adventures Magazine** genres include:

Genres in the Journeys Common Core Program Reading Adventures Magazine							
Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6				
Magazine Genres	Magazine Genres	Magazine Genres	Magazine Genres				
Biography	Fable	Expository Nonfiction	Informational Text				
• Drama	Informational Text	Informational Text	Realistic Fiction				
Folktale	Persuasive Essay	Myth	Poetry				
Informational Text	Photo Essay	• Play	Readers' Theater				
Journal Entry	Poetry	Poetry	Mystery				
Narrative Nonfiction	Realistic Fiction	Readers' Theater	Folktale				
Nonfiction Article		Realistic Fiction					
 Poetry 							
Photo Essay							
Realistic Fiction							

Research has shown that explicitly teaching the structures of a text—in this study, story structures—improves students' comprehension and recall (Stevens, Van Meter, & Warcholak, 2010). Aligning with this stream of research, the program provides instruction for students on genre characteristics and in the **Teacher's Edition**, provides instruction, critical thinking questions, and other activities to assist teachers in teaching about genre effectively. The questions and instruction provided can be used over and over across the year as students encounter different genres and increasingly difficult texts within a certain genre.

Attention to varied genres—and to literacy across the content areas—is an emphasis of the Common Core State Standards and is reinforced throughout **Journeys Common Core**.

Engaging Topics in Journeys Common Core

The reading materials in **Journeys Common Core** were selected and written with the purpose of engaging young readers. The literary and informational texts offer engaging stories, as well as narrative and expository texts about interesting topics.

In Kindergarten, for example, the program's **Big Books** include classics and favorites including *The Hare and the Tortoise*, Kitten's First Full Moon, Miss Bindergarten Celebrates the Last Day of Kindergarten, Sheep Take a Hike, Stone Soup, The Three Billy Goats Gruff, and many more.

In addition, texts in **Journeys Common Core** are organized around domains and lesson topics selected to engage students and build their knowledge base.

For example, at Grade 5, **Lesson Topics** include:

- Adaptations and Instinct
- African American History
- Animal Behaviors
- Archaeology
- Community Involvement
- Conservation
- Courage
- Creative Inventions
- Creative Writing
- Early American Government
- Encounters with Nature
- Experiments
- Exploration
- Extreme Environments
- Human-Animal Interaction
- Independence

- Language and Expression
- Life on the Battlefield
- Life Science
- Patriotism
- Performance and Visual Arts
- Physical Fitness
- Pioneers
- Poetry
- Politics
- Responsibility
- Traditions
- Visual Arts
- The West
- Wild Animals
- World Travel



Strand 3: Teaching Writing

Defining the Strand

Effective communication has been identified by the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2009) as essential for 21st century learning and success. Yet, the National Commission on Writing (2003) found that most students do not possess the writing skills they need. It is clear that writing must take a central place in instruction.

Writing can help students shape and clarify their learning, strengthen their thinking, and act as a tool for content-area learning (Perkins 1992; Prain, 2006; Shanahan, 2004; Sperling & Freedman, 2001). In the Common Core State Standards, writing is one of the four strands that provide the framework for the Standards for English language arts. In grades K-5, the "Note on the Range and Content of Student Writing" states that:

To build a foundation for college and career readiness, students need to learn to use writing as a way of offering and supporting opinions, demonstrating understanding of the subjects they are studying, and conveying real and imagined experiences and events. (CCSSI, 2010a, p. 18)

We have long known that the amount of reading and writing children do is directly related to how well they read and write. Classrooms in which all the students learned to read and write are classrooms in which the teachers gave more than 'lip service' to the importance of actually engaging in reading and writing. They planned their time so that children did a lot of reading and writing throughout the day—not just in the 100 minutes set aside for reading and language arts.

Cunningham & Allington, 2007, p. 7

Reading and writing are connected—at the word level (word recognition, spelling) and at the text level (comprehension, composition) (Berninger, Abbott, Abbott, Graham, & Richards, 2002). Reading and writing share a bidirectional relationship—writing instruction improves reading comprehension and reading instruction improves composition (Shanahan, 2006). Students who write about what they read show more evidence of critical thinking, and students who read show improved composition (Biancarosa & Snow, 2006). Integrating reading and writing has been shown to increase word learning (Baker, Simmons, & Kame'enui, 1995b; Klesius & Searls, 1991); support ELL students (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006a); improve revision (MacArthur, 2007); and positively impact students' independent writing quality (Corden, 2007).

Journeys Common Core effectively develops students' skills in writing, to build the foundations identified by the Common Core. The program integrates reading and writing instruction throughout each level. In **Journeys Common Core**, grammar and writing instruction occur every day.

Research that Guided the Development of Journeys Common Core

Writing for a Purpose

For students to develop the writing skills they will need in their future academic and work experiences, they must learn to write for varied meaningful and useful purposes (Kiuhara, Graham, & Hawken, 2009; Applebee & Langer, 2006).

Researchers have identified writing to persuade, to inform, to describe, and to convey research findings as essential purposes for writing for success in school and work (ACT, 2005; National Commission on Writing, 2005; National Commission on Writing, 2004). The 2011 NAEP framework (National Assessment Governing Board, 2010) and the Common Core State Standards (Common Core Standards Initiative, 2010a) both highlight the need for students to produce texts for varied purposes. In NAEP, at the elementary level, students are asked to write to persuade, to explain, and to convey experience.

Distribution of the Communicative Purposes by Grade 2011 NAEP Writing Framework							
Grade	To Persuade	To Explain	To Convey Experience				
4	30%	35%	35%				
8	35%	35%	30%				
12	40%	40%	20%				

Writing in Varied Genres

The ability to think and write across disciplines is needed (Atwell, 1989) to meet 21st century demands that require that students become proficient writers able to flexibly adapt their writing to varied genres and contexts. The Common Core State Standards reflect this demand and expect that students will gain proficiency in writing across genres—including narratives, informative and expository texts, and arguments. As a result, instruction in the varied forms of writing and their structures is important, as students are not equally familiar with all genres of writing (Downing, 1995; Lenski & Johns, 2000). In genre study, students who are exposed to different genres in reading and as models are able to analyze these examples and "to emulate the critical elements, patterns, and forms embodied in the models in their own writing" (Graham & Perin, 2007, p. 20).

In a synthesis of research on effective instructional strategies for teaching writing in the elementary grades, Chapman (2006) concluded that an emphasis on both process *and* product is essential for developing writers with the skills and flexibility to produce varied genres. One essential to effective writing instruction is "directing attention to textual features...to help children develop 'genre awareness'..." (p. 39).

Writing instruction is particularly effective when teachers sequence the modes of writing according to their connection or immediacy to the writer (Langer, 1986a; Moffett, 1965, 1981, 1983). For this reason, beginning with personal writing—descriptive and narrative—engages students who are then ready to develop informational pieces, which require investigation, and finally to more cognitively challenging persuasive or argumentative writing (Moffett, 1981, 1983). While a thoughtful sequence of instruction supports students with these varied genres, this is not to suggest that all students are not capable of writing in different genres. Research demonstrates that young writers and struggling older writers can learn to write in varied types of genres (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006).

Engaging students in a variety of meaningful writing activities has been shown to improve their writing skills. In their analysis of NAEP data, Applebee and Langer (2006) found a correlation between the quality of students writing and the types of writing they had been assigned to do in the classroom.

Grammar Instruction

While regular writing improves overall writing ability (Ball, 2006), instruction in the varied elements of quality writing, including grammar, must take place if students are going to be competent and effective communicators. Such instruction is most beneficial and effective when presented as part of writing assignments and activities that are meaningful to students (Fearn & Farnan, 2005; Hillocks, 1986; Polette, 2008; Weaver, 1997). Students who are taught grammar when working on a specific piece of writing show a greater application than do those students taught grammar as a separate activity (Calkins, 1994; Spandel, 2001). In grammar study, connections to the context of authentic writing help students better write and edit their own work (Hillocks, 1986; Weaver, 1997).



Some specific instructional techniques have been shown by research to be particularly effective in improving students' writing. In *Writing Next*, Graham and Perin (2007) identified sentence combining as one of the 11 effective, research-based elements or strategies. The sentence-combining approach has been shown to be effective with elementary school students (Saddler & Graham, 2005) and English language learners (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006b).

Because learning in grammar and usage does not follow a sequential path, "the [Common Core] Standards account for the recursive, ongoing nature of grammatical knowledge in two ways. First, the Standards return to certain important language topics in higher grades at greater levels of sophistication...Second, the Standards identify with an asterisk (*) certain skills and understandings that students are to be introduced to in basic ways at lower grades but that are likely in need of being retaught and relearned in subsequent grades as students' writing and speaking matures and grows more complex" (CCSSI, 2010a, Appendix A, p. 28-29).

Using Technology to Teach Writing

Technology is an important tool in writing instruction. As Castellani and Jeffs (2001) concluded from their examination of technology for reading and writing instruction: "Blending reading and writing strategies with available technology provides powerful and meaningful tools for literacy instruction. The result is increased student motivation and success with the reading and writing process." Most adult writers now take technology as a given, and recognize the benefits of the word processor in composing, revising, and editing.

Research has shown the benefits of using technology for writing instruction with children. In one Oregon school, the percentage of fourth-graders meeting the benchmark levels on the state writing test increased from 25 to 75 percent after the implementation of a new Writing Instruction through Technology program (Eastburn, 2008). Online activities can be particularly beneficial because of the in-time nature of technology; online feedback can be timely, detailed, consistent, and evaluative—and, thus, particularly meaningful for students (Bischoff, 2000).

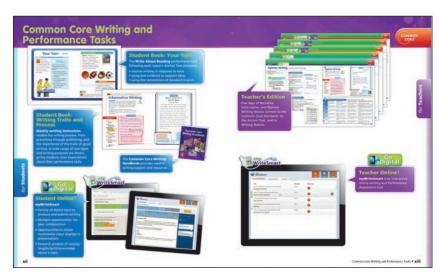
Kuriloff (2004) found technology to be an important tool in teaching college students to be better writers, and found that it provided additional flexibility and efficiency over in-person instruction. Increased flexibility and efficient use of time are particularly important when working to meet the needs of struggling writers and English language learners. According to a survey of teachers conducted to look at the connections between technology use and student outcomes, teachers who used technology more frequently in the classroom reported that the technology enabled them to better meet the needs of all learners—high achievers, those with specific needs, and ELLs (Grunwald and Associates, 2010). As MacArthur (2009) discusses, outlining programs, word processing, spell checkers, and other applications can help struggling writers with all stages of the writing process—from drafting to revising.

Technology has been shown to have particular benefits for students who are English language learners. Silver and Repa (1993) conducted a thirteen-week study of 66 urban ELL students. Using a pre/post study design, researchers found that experimental group students who wrote using a word processor significantly outperformed pen-and-paper, control group students on the quality of their writing. Cheng (2007) found that language learners who used simulation-based approaches in genre analysis improved their writing ability and enhanced their awareness of features of different genres. Hegelheimer and Fisher (2006) found that English language learners benefited from explicit grammar instruction and interactivity when using an online writing tool.

From Research to Practice

Writing for a Purpose in Journeys Common Core

Throughout the **Student Book** students have the opportunity to engage in writing for various purposes through the program's different regular features.



In the **Student Book: Your Turn** feature included after each **Anchor Text**, students complete a **Performance Task** by responding in writing to what they read, and they use text evidence to support their ideas.

The program's **Common Core Writing Handbook** provides weekly writing support and resources to develop students' skills in writing for the purposes and in the forms expected by the Common Core State Standards.

For additional specific examples of effective writing tasks through **Journeys Common Core** see the following pages.

Writing for a Purpose in Journeys Common Core								
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6		
Write About Reading	Write About Reading	Write About Reading	Write About Reading	Write About Reading	Write About Reading	Write About Reading		
K-5: T54, T148,	1-4: T47, T149,	2-5: T45, T145,	3-1: T41, T133,	4-1: T33, T109,	5-1: T33, T109,	6-1: T33, T109,		
T242, T336,	Y251, T349,	T245, T345,	T229, T323,	T185, T261,	T191, T265,	T183, T259		
T432	T449	T443	T417	T339	T339			
Reading-	Reading-	Reading-	Reading-	Reading-	Reading-	Reading-		
Writing	Writing	Writing	Writing	Writing	Writing	Writing		
Workshop	Workshop	Workshop	Workshop	Workshop	Workshop	Workshop		
K-5: T405, T423,	1-4: T341, T351,	2-5: T337, T347,	3-1: T317, T325,	4-1: T280-T283,	5-1: T284-T287,	6-1: T280-T283,		
T435, T445,	T363, T373,	T359, T369,	T335, T343,	T358-T361	T358-T361	T356-T359		
T451	T380-T381,	T376-T377,	T350-T351,					
	T441, T451,	T435, T445,	T411, T419,					
	T463, T473,	T455, T465,	T429, T437,					
	T480-T481	T472-T473	T444-T445					



Writing Varied Genres in Journeys Common Core

The text types included in the Common Core State Standards K-5 College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards for Writing include:

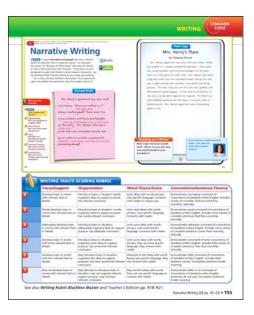
- 1. Write arguments to support claims in an analysis of substantive topics or texts, using valid reasoning and relevant and sufficient evidence.
- 2. Write informative/explanatory texts to examine and convey complex ideas and information clearly and accurately through the effective selection, organization, and analysis of content.
- 3. Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, well-chosen details, and well-structured event sequences.

In **Journeys Common Core**, attention to each of these modes of writing is provided throughout the program. Specific writing forms are the basis for specific instructional activities. The program's **Weekly Writing Instruction** in the **Student Book** supports students' building skills across the writing modes expected by the Common Core State Standards.

Writing Modes in Journeys Common Core								
Grade K	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6		
Writing Modes	Writing Modes	Writing Modes	Writing Modes	Writing Modes	Writing Modes	Writing Modes:		
 Informative Writing K-5: T311, T327, T339, T349, T355 Narrative Writing K-3: T405, T421, T433, T449 Opinion Writing K-6: T29, T45, T57, T67, T73 	 Informative Writing 1-3: T339, T349, T361, T373, T380-T381 Narrative Writing 1-5: T341, T351, T363, T373, T380-T381 Opinion Writing 1-6: T337, T347, T359, T369, T376-T377 	 Informative Writing 2-2: T235, T345, T257, T267, T257, T267, T274-T275 Narrative Writing 2-1: T229, T239, T251, T261, T268-T269 Opinion Writing 2-3: T131, T141, T151, T161, T168-T169 	 Informative Writing 3-3: T217, T225, T235, T243, T250-T251 Narrative Writing 3-1: T317, T325, T335, T343, T350-T351 Opinion Writing 3-2: T125, T133, T143, T151, T158-T159 	 Informative Writing 4-5: T130-T133 Narrative Writing 4-4: T52-T55 Opinion Writing 4-3: T206-T209 	 Informative Writing 5-2: T58-T61 Narrative Writing 5-4: T202-T205 Opinion Writing 5-3: T210-T213 	 Informative Writing: 6-3: T56-T59 Narrative Writing: 6-1: T128-T131 Argument Writing 6-5: T356-TT359 		

Grade K	Grade 1 Grade 2		Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
GIGGO II	Grade i	Grade 2	Grades	Grade -	Grade 5	Grade 0
Writing Forms	Writing Forms	Writing Forms	Writing Forms	Writing Forms	Writing Forms	Writing Forms
 Descriptive 	Cause-and-Effect	Cause-and-	Cause-and-	Book Report	Autobio-	Personal
Paragraph	Paragraph/	Effect Paragraph	Effect Paragraph	 Descriptive 	graphies	Narrative
 Dialogue 	Chart	 Descriptive 	Compare-	Paragraph	Cause-and-	Story Scene
Journal Entry	Descriptive	Paragraph	and-Contrast	Dialogue	Effect Paragraph	Fictional
Opinion	Paragraph	Dialogue	Paragraph	Explanation	Descriptive	Narrative
Paragraph	Dialogue	Fictional	Descriptive	Explanatory	Paragraph	Response Essa
Questions	Friendly Letter	Narrative	Paragraph	Essay	Dialogue	Book Review
Research Report	Journal Entry	Friendly Letter	Dialogue	Fictional	Editorials	Argument
Respond to a	Narrative	Instructions	Explanatory	Narrative	Fictional	Procedural Ess
Selection	Composition	Opinion	Essay	Friendly Letter	Narrative	Classification
Stories	Opinion	Paragraph	Fictional	Informational	Friendly Letter	Essay
	Paragraph	Personal	Narrative	Paragraph	Informative	Definition Essa
	Personal	Narratives	Informative	Informative	Writing	Informational
	Narratives	Persuasive Essav	Paragraph	Essay	Journal Entry	Essay
	Poetry	Persuasive Letter		Instructions	Narrative	Compare-
	Research Report	Persuasive	Opinion	Journal Entry	Composition	Contrast Essay
	Respond to a	Paragraph	Paragraph	News Report	Opening	Problem
	Selection	Poetry	Personal	Opinion Essay	Statement or	-Solution Essa
	Stories	Problem-	Narrative	Personal	Paragraph	Cause-Effect
	Summary	Solution	Persuasive Essay	Narrative	Opinion Writing	Essay
	Summary	Composition	Persuasive Letter		Personal	Research Repo
		Research Report	Problem-	Persuasive Letter	Narratives	Opinion Essay
		Respond to a	and-Solution	Poem	Persuasive Essay	Persuasive Let
		Selection		Problem-	 Persuasive Essay Persuasive Letter 	
			Paragraph			
		Summary	Research Report	Solution	Problem-	Tield Hotes
			Response	Composition	Solution	Radio Script
			Paragraph	Procedural	Composition	
			Response to	Composition	Research Report -	
			Literature	Public Service	Response Essays	
				Announce-ment	Summary	
				Research Report		
				Response to		
				Fiction		
				Story		
				 Summary 		





To ensure that teachers evaluate writing consistently and using clear benchmarks for effectiveness, the **Journeys Common Core** program provides rubrics. Each rubric is standards-based and allows teachers to assess student work against the benchmarks established by the Common Core State Standards.

In the program's **Teacher's Edition**, teachers are supported with building Common Core-aligned writing skills through the programs five days of **Narrative**, **Informative**, and **Opinion Writing lessons**, which connect to the Common Core State Standards, the **Anchor Texts**, and the **Writing Rubrics**.

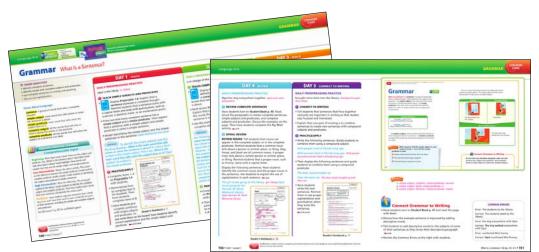
Grammar Instruction in Journeys Common Core

In **Journeys Common Core**, grammar instruction is embedded in the context of reading and writing. Students learn concepts and rules of grammar through their own and others' writing, as is evidenced by the program's **Connect to Writing** feature.

Grammar instruction follows the same pattern followed elsewhere throughout the **Journeys Common Core** program. New concepts are taught, and learned concepts are reviewed to reinforce learning and make connections between what is newly learned and what is being retained.

Daily Proofreading Practice provides a quick, daily opportunity for students to apply their skills.

Grammar lessons focus on one specific Common Core-aligned grammatical element, and include suggestions in the **Teacher's Edition** for how to teach, model, provide for guided practice/application, and differentiate learning for specific student populations.



Throughout the **Journeys Common Core**

program, students

receive comprehensive instruction in all the grammar concepts and skills they need to be clear and effective writers and editors.

Grade K Grade 1 Grade 2 Grade 3 Grade 4 Grade 5 Grade							
Grade K	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	
Adjectives Adverbs Capitalization Command Complete Sentences Exclamations Nouns (plural, proper) Prepositions Pronouns Punctuation Questions Sensory Words Sentences Speaking and Listening Statements Subjects and Predicates Tense Theme Verbs	• Adjectives • Adverbs • Articles • Commands • Contractions • Negatives • Nouns (plural, possessive, proper) • Participles • Prepositional Phrases • Prepositions • Pronouns • Punctuation • Questions • Sensory Words • Sentences (complete) • Speaking and Listening • Subjects and Predicates • Tenses • Titles • Verbs	• Abbreviations • Adjectives • Adverbs • Commands • Conjunctions • Contractions • Exclamations • Nouns (plural, possessive, proper) • Prepositional Phrases • Prepositions • Punctuation • Questions • Sentences (complete, compound) • Speaking and Listening • Subjects and Predicates • Tenses • Titles • Transitions • Verbs	• Adjectives • Adverbs • Commas • Contractions • Nouns (abstract, common, proper, plural, possessive) • Prepositions • Pronouns • Pronouns • Pronoun-Verb Agreement • Sentences (complex, compound, simple) • Subject-Verb Agreement • Verbs (irregular, be, helping)	• Abbreviations • Adjectives (comparative, superlative) • Adverbs (comparative, relative) • Capitalization • Commas • Common Errors • Comparisons • Conjunctions • Contractions • Frequently Confused Words • Negatives • Nouns (possessive, proper) • Participles • Prepositions • Prepositional Phrases • Pronouns (correct, demonstrative possessive)	• Abbreviations • Adjectives • Adverbs • Commas and Semicolons • Common and Proper Nouns • Complete, Complex, and Compound Sentences • Complete Subjects and Predicates • Conjunctions • Contractions • Correlative Conjunctions • Dialogue and Interjections • Direct and Indirect Objects • Direct Quotations and Interjections • Verbs (easily confused, irregular)	 Grade 6 Complete Sentences Subjects and Predicates Common an Proper Nour Verbs and Objects Coordinating Conjunction Subordinating Conjunction Subject and Object Pronouns Simple and Perfect Verb Tenses Subject-verb Agreement Regular and Irregular Ver Principal Par of Verbs Adjectives and Adverbs Punctuation Progressive Forms Quotations Contractions Proper Mechanics Titles and Abbreviation 	



And, finally, students are given the opportunity to apply grammar skills in real contexts when they engage in the writing process and proofread and revise their own work.

Using Technology to Teach Writing in Journeys Common Core

In **Journeys Common Core**, students use technology to improve their writing through program resources, including the online student program **myWriteSmart** that offers grade-level specific support for students. With **myWriteSmart**, students are given the opportunity to:

- Use a variety of digital tools to produce and publish writing;
- Engage in multiple opportunities for peer collaboration;
- Receive interactive and scaffolded support for writing;
- Create multimedia visual displays in presentations;
- Respond to performance tasks and performance assessments;
- Research projects of varying lengths to build knowledge about a topic.

For teachers online, **myWriteSmart** offers teachers the chance to track student work and progress, comment on student writing, connect to rubrics, and link to additional tools and resources.

The **Journeys Common Core GrammarSnap Videos** offer students and teachers short, high-energy videos that clearly demonstrate grammar concepts.

For some examples of how technology is used in **Journeys Common Core**, see the online tools themselves and program pages as shown in the table below.

	Dig	gital Resources f	or Writing in Jou	rneys Common C	ore	
Grade K	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
	Grammar Snap	Grammar Snap				
	Videos 1-1:	Videos 2-3:	Videos 3-1:	Videos 4-1:	Videos 5-1:	Videos 6-5:
	T3, T99, T195	T58; 2-4: T109;	T34, T42, T52,	T3, T9, T11, T48,	T3, T48, T51,	T124, T198,
		2-5: T46, T74,	T60, T66, T126,	T77, T83, T124,	T77, T106,	T276
		T246, T274	T134	T153	T130, T133	
<i>my</i> WriteSmart	myWriteSmart	<i>my</i> WriteSmart	<i>my</i> WriteSmart	<i>my</i> WriteSmart	<i>my</i> WriteSmart	myWriteSmart
K-4: T73, T167,	1-5: T35, T135,	2-4: T39, T139,	3-1: T43, T127,	4-1: T52, T130,	5-1: T52, T134,	6-5: T77, T79,
T261, T355,	T237, T341,	T237, T339,	T223, T317,	T206, T280,	T210, T284,	T83, T109, T119
T449	T441	T439	T411	T358	T358	

Strand 4: Using Effective Instructional Approaches

Defining the Strand

Good teaching matters. Effective teachers use effective instructional techniques to support all students in learning and skill-development. Studies show that classroom teachers' instructional strategies have a direct impact on students' reading proficiency (Pennington Whitaker, Gambrell, & Morrow, 2004). To be effective, teachers must select strategies for instruction that accomplish their instructional goals and best meet the learning needs of their students.

A large body of research has focused on identifying the most effective instructional strategies. The research of the RAND Reading Study Group (Snow, 2002) identified elements of effective instruction in the reading classroom. Among their findings were that cooperative learning and graphic organizers were two of the instructional strategies with a solid scientific basis; that motivation is essential to reading comprehension; and that successful reading depends on students' capacity with written and oral language. Studies like that of the RAND study group have identified a number of approaches that show positive and measurable effects on student learning and performance. Some of these approaches include use of and focus on:

- Scaffolding
- Graphic Organizers
- Predictable Routines
- Collaborative Learning
- Grouping in Instruction

- Varied Forms of Communication
- Engagement and Motivation
- Technology
- Research and Inquiry

By emphasizing required achievements, the Standards leave room for teachers, curriculum developers, and states to determine how those goals should be reached and what additional topics should be addressed. Thus, the Standards do not mandate such things as a particular writing process or the full range of metacognitive strategies that students may need to monitor and direct their thinking and learning. Teachers are thus free to provide students with whatever tools and knowledge their professional judgment and experience identify as most helpful for meeting the goals set out in the Standards.

CCSSI, 2010a, p. 4

35

An effective instructional program uses approaches that have been proven effective by research. The **Journeys Common Core** program was designed to support students as they develop as readers and writers. Lessons are organized in a systematic way and suggestions are given for providing instruction to the whole group and small groups. Ideas are presented visually to support students' connections. Throughout the program, scaffolds exist to help students solidify what they know in order to build on it. The types and topics of the texts—and the activities that students do around them—have all been designed for maximum student engagement and motivation.



Research that Guided the Development of Journeys Common Core

Scaffolding

Scaffolding is an instructional technique that involves providing support to students as they learn and reach competence, and gradually decreasing the amount of support provided until students are able to work independently. According to Vygotsky, scaffolding can be defined as the "role of teachers and others in supporting the learner's development and providing support structures to get to that next stage or level" (Raymond, 2000, p. 176). Providing embedded scaffolds is an essential part of transitioning students to independence and "has repeatedly been identified as one of the most effective instructional techniques available" (Graves & Avery, 1997, p. 138). Numerous studies have shown that scaffolding can lead to improved student outcomes—including enhanced inquiry and higher achievement (Kim & White, 2008; Simons & Klein, 2007; Fretz, Wu, Zhang, Davis, Krajcik, & Soloway, 2002; Rosenshine & Meister, 1992) and improved reading comprehension (Clark & Graves, 2008; Lutz, Guthrie, & Davis, 2006).

Instruction that scaffolds students' learning includes these elements: a logical structure, carefully sequenced models and examples that reveal essential characteristics, progression from easier to more difficult content and from easier to more difficult tasks, additional information/elaboration as needed, peer-mediated instruction, and materials that guide students, such as key words, think sheets, and graphic organizers (Hillocks, 1993). The final element of scaffolding is independent work—scaffolding is removed and students apply what they have learned to new situations.

Scaffolding encompasses many different instructional strategies. Varying scaffolds can be used; what is important is that they consistently provide adequate support as needed. Research (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008; Stone, 1998) suggests that scaffolds such as the following will support student independence: activating prior knowledge; reviewing previously learned material; modeling and thinking aloud; providing models and different representations; questioning; using cues or tools; and providing useful feedback.

Graphic Organizers

In its review of the literature on effective strategies for teaching reading comprehension, the National Reading Panel found graphic organizers an important strategy for improving students' comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000). Numerous studies have come to this same conclusion (Dickson, Simmons, & Kame'enui, 1996; Pearson & Fielding, 1991) and have found positive effects with all students, including those with learning disabilities (Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, & Wei, 2004)

What makes graphic organizers so effective? Combining text with visuals engages students' multiple pathways to learning, as described in Paivio's (1979, 1983, 1986) dual-coding theory. A number of studies have demonstrated that students learn better when both pictures and words are used, than with text alone (Mayer, 2001; Mayer & Gallini, 1990; Levin, Anglin, & Carney, 1987; Levie & Lentz, 1982). Nonlinguistic representations are one of the nine most effective instructional strategies identified by Marzano (2003) and have been shown to help students better understand informational text (Center for Improvement of Early Reading, 2003).

Graphic organizers are particularly effective at helping students to focus on the structure of text and the relationship of ideas within text (Center for the Improvement of Early Reading, 2003; Robinson & Kiewra, 1995). The use of graphic organizers to graphically depict the relationships of ideas in texts has been shown to improve both students' comprehension of the text—and their recall of key ideas (Snow, 2002; National Reading Panel, 2000).

Predictable Routines

Predictability in well-organized, consistent classroom routines facilitates learning in a number of ways. Regular routines with consistent cues help smooth the transitions between one activity to another (Mace, Shapiro, & Mace, 1998) and reduce problem behaviors. When students can predict the routines of their school day, they develop a sense of security (Holdaway, 1984). Not only does student behavior improve, but students also show greater engagement with learning and achieve at higher levels (Kern & Clemens, 2007).

Teachers can increase predictability in their classrooms in many ways. Providing information about the content and duration of events and activities and visually displaying schedules have been shown to be effective (Kern & Clemens, 2007). Alternating the interactive settings—whole class, small group, individual—in a predictable way to best meet students' needs has been shown to be particularly effective (Reutzel, 2003).

This type of predictability in the instructional routine has been demonstrated to be particularly effective for struggling students and those with learning disabilities (Flannery & O'Neill, 1995; Tustin, 1995).

Collaborative Learning

Learning together in collaborative and cooperative groups benefits students (Cotton, 1995; Johnson & Johnson, 1990) and was one of the nine most effective instruction strategies identified by Marzano in his meta-analysis (2003). Participating as a productive member in academic conversations and collaborations is an expectation within the Common Core State Standards (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a).

How does collaborative learning increase learning? Learning is "profoundly influenced by the nature of the social relationships within which people find themselves" (Caine & Caine, 1997a, p. 105). Research and cognitive theory suggest that when students work in groups toward a common goal, they support one another, model strategies, and provide context-appropriate explanations and immediate feedback (Slavin, 2002).

Among the benefits of collaborative learning for students are increased:

- Understanding and application of concepts;
- Use of critical thinking;
- Sense of self-efficacy, or confidence in their ability to learn;
- Positive attitudes towards others (Vermette, 1988).

Research has also demonstrated the positive impact that cooperative learning strategies have on teaching students reading-comprehension strategies (Stevens, Slavin, & Farnish, 1991). Having peers interact over the use of reading strategies was demonstrated in research to increase student learning of strategies, encourage discussion, and increase comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Whole-Group and Small-Group Instruction

Effective instructors employ whole-group, small-group, and independent learning activities to meet the needs of all of their students (McNamara & Waugh, 1993). According to Kapusnick and Hauslein (2001), "Students learn better and more easily when teachers use a variety of delivery methods, providing students with learning experiences that maximize their strengths" (p. 156). This regular differentiation of instructional format allows for the broad dissemination of shared information, as well as opportunities to discuss and tailor instruction to small groups and individual students. Effective teachers use whole-group instruction to introduce new skills and concepts and smaller groups to ensure thorough learning (Cotton, 1995).



Core, provides a common foundation for all students (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006), while small-group instruction allows for learning based on specific needs and interests. Pressley, Yokoi, Rankin, Wharton-McDonald, and Mistretta (1997) found a correlation between effective instruction in reading and writing and the use of diverse activities—whole-group, small-group, and independent reading. The National Reading Panel (2000) supported these findings about the benefits of employing whole-group and small-group learning; "Having peers ... interact over the use of reading strategies leads to an increase in the learning of strategies, promotes intellectual discussion, and increases reading comprehension" (4-45).

Placement in small groups for instruction has been shown to benefit *all* students—those with low, medium, and high abilities (Abrami, Lou, Chambers, Poulsen, Spence, & Abrami, 2000).

Varied Forms of Communication

Integrating skills is particularly important in English language arts classrooms because of the interconnectedness of reading and writing, speaking and listening, and viewing. Each of these language arts is more readily learned and retained when skills are integrated, allowing students to create pathways of learning and remembering in their minds. Research suggests that a balanced literacy program will include many varied reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing activities (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Lyon & Moats, 1997).

In a study of an instructional program in which teachers provided a wide range of reading materials and the integration of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, 90% of students recommended continuing the integrated-skills approach in the following year (Su, 2007).

This balanced approach to literacy instruction is apparent in the *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*, which demonstrate a focus on reading, writing, listening, speaking, and critical viewing for college and career readiness (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a).

Engagement and Motivation

Learning is an active process of engagement. If students are interested in what they are learning, they will persist in spending the time and energy needed for learning to occur (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006; Guthrie & Humenick, 2004; Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998). In this way, engagement leads to motivation leads to learning.

Engagement and motivation are particularly important in teaching reading (Stipek, 2002). Student engagement is a "powerful determinant of the effectiveness of any given literacy approach" (Strangman & Dalton, 2006, p. 559). Guthrie, Hoa, Wigfield, Tonks, Humenick, and Littles (2007) found a connection between student interest and increased comprehension and recall. Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, and Rodriguez (2003), too, found a connection between engaged learning and reading comprehension growth in low SES schools. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) found that engaging reading instruction must:

- Teach and encourage use of strategies
- Increase students' conceptual knowledge;
- Foster social interaction; and
- Foster student motivation.

Motivation is the process by which a student engages in a task and persists towards completion. Research in cognitive science shows that humans are innately motivated to search for meaning (Caine & Caine, 1997b). The most effective instructional approaches are those that harness this natural inclination, and are motivating and engaging to the learners.

The level of a student's motivation to read has been shown to predict growth in reading comprehension (Guthrie, Hoa, Wigfield, Tonks, Humenick, & Littles, 2007).

To motivate their students, reading teachers should construct lessons that are interesting, match activities to students' abilities, and connect reading and writing and content-area learning (Bohn, Roehrig, & Pressley, 2004) In addition, the use of strategies also increases students' motivation to learn—because successful strategy use helps students to see that they have the ability to learn (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008).

Technology

Numerous studies and meta-analyses support the use of computers in the classroom to improve student learning (see Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia, & Jones, 2009; North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 2003; Teh & Fraser, 1995). Mayer (2001, 2005), a leading researcher in the field of multimedia learning, argues that student learning is increased in multimedia environments because information can be presented in multiple formats—including words, audio, and pictures. Students are able to learn more and retain information when they can access information using these different pathways. To reach their students' full potential for learning, educators must know how best to integrate technology into the classroom—to use technology not for the sake of technology but for the purpose of facilitating increased learning and achievement.

In a study of the use of technology to improve students' ability to use source information, Britt and Aglinskas (2002) found that students who used the computer-based tutorial referenced more text-based evidence than did the group who engaged in more regular classroom activity.

Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia, and Jones (2009) found that online learning approaches were effective across types of learners—from lower-achieving students to above average. One reason for this may be because multimedia learning environments are able to reach students who learn in different ways—visual learners, auditory learners, kinesthetic learners. Another reason may be the power of technology to embed scaffolds at the point of use.

Research and Inquiry

Students learn best when they are actively engaged in learning—investigating topics and analyzing their findings. One of the key design considerations in the Common Core State Standards was to embed research throughout the Standards:

To be ready for college, workforce training, and life in a technological society, students need the ability to gather, comprehend, evaluate, synthesize, and report on information and ideas, to conduct original research in order to answer questions or solve problems, and to analyze and create a high volume and extensive range of print and nonprint texts in media forms old and new. (CCSSI, 2010A, p. 4)

Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock (2001) synthesized research on effective instructional strategies, and found that generating and testing hypotheses was one of the nine research-based instructional strategies proven to increase learning and raise achievement. Students who research and analyze information become better critical thinkers.

Engaging in research and sharing the results is common in school and in work. In postsecondary education and the workplace, "most writing can be broadly described as persuading readers to change their perspectives or to take action; explaining information, issues, and ideas; and reflecting on experience to make thoughtful judgments..." (ACT, 2007, p. 28).

The act of researching results in a greater understanding of a topic or an idea. This knowledge can lead to improved communication and writing. In his research with students at grades 4, 6, and 8, McCutchen (1986) found that students with greater content knowledge of the subject for writing produced stronger, more clearly organized, and better-supported essays than those with lower knowledge of the content.



From Research to Practice

Scaffolding in Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program provides specific support for teachers seeking to scaffold instruction for their students to ensure that all students acquire the reading skills and strategies they need to continue to read more challenging texts and that all English Language Learners in their classrooms acquire social and academic language proficiency. Scaffolding is provided in many ways, through **Language Support Cards, Leveled Readers, Vocabulary in Context Cards,** and notes throughout the **Teacher's Edition**. The program's **myWriteSmart** scaffolds students' writing development.

The teaching model employed throughout the program provides scaffolding for all students to move towards independent application of the strategies and skills learned. Text-based scaffolding helps students learn to read complex texts independently. To build the kinds of close reading text analysis skills that students need to meet the Common Core State Standards, the program provides close reading scaffolds at point of use with each lesson's Anchor Text. For examples, see Grade 5, 5-1: pages T18, T92, T174, and T250.

In addition, for English Language Learners who need additional support to master the skills and strategies taught in the classroom, specific tips – **English Language Learners Scaffolds** – are provided as sidebars throughout the **Teacher's Edition**. Suggestions are provided for:

- Vocabulary (including Tier 1/High-Utility Words and Tiers 2 and 3/Target Vocabulary and Vocabulary Strategies)
- Scaffolding Phonics/Decoding
- Scaffolding Comprehension
- Scaffolding Writing
- Scaffolding Grammar
- Scaffolding Spelling

Graphic Organizers in Journeys Common Core

Graphic organizers are used throughout **Journeys Common Core** to provide a framework for students' understanding of text structure, to improve their comprehension, and to help students' structure their own writing in the prewriting step. Graphic organizers included at various levels of the program are shown below:

	Graphic Organizers in Journeys Common Core							
Grade K	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6		
 Story Map T-Map Idea-Support Map Column Chart Web Flow Chart Inference Map Venn Diagram 	 Story Map T-Map Idea-Support Map Column Chart Web Flow Chart Inference Map Venn Diagram 	 Column Chart Feature Map Flow Chart Four-Square Map Idea-Support Map Inference Map Story Map T-Map Venn Diagram Web 	 Column Chart Feature Map Flow Chart Four-Square Map Idea-Support Map Inference Map Story Map T-Map Venn Diagram Web 	 Column Chart Feature Map Flow Chart Four-Square Map Idea-Support Map Inference Map Story Map T-Map Venn Diagram Web 	 Column Chart Feature Map Flow Chart Four-Square Map Idea-Support Map Inference Map Story Map T-Map Venn Diagram Web 	 Column Chart Feature Map Flow Chart Four-Square Map Idea-Support Map Inference Map Story Map T-Map Venn Diagram Web 		

In addition, in **Journeys Common Core**, students are provided with opportunities to analyze the graphic features they encounter in texts. Considering how model texts employ graphics can help students think metacognitively about the value of using graphic organizers in their own planning, studying, thinking, and writing.

Teachers are provided with additional graphic organizers for use to support learning in each lesson, through such resources as the **Leveled Reader Graphic Organizers** and the **Graphic Organizer Blackline Masters**.

Predictable Routines in Journeys Common Core

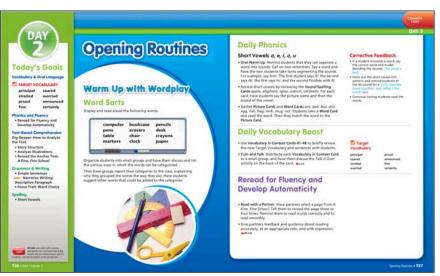
Journeys Common Core provides the predictable structure that research shows that learners need. Research has identified establishing predictable routines from the beginning of the year as one of the characteristics of highly effective teachers (Bohn, Roehrig, & Pressley, 2004), and the consistent structure of **Journeys Common Core** allows for teachers to do just that—establish effective, predictable routines from Day 1.

The work of Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) revealed that effective teachers in well-organized classrooms tend to follow similar predictable routines, including these:

- Begin with a short review and statement of goals;
- Present new material in small steps;
- Give clear and detailed instructions and explanations;
- Provide time for guided and independent practice;
- Ask questions;
- Provide systematic feedback

Each of these steps is clearly supported by the organization and components of **Journeys Common Core**.

Grades K-3 feature **Opening Routines** each day, and **Today's Goals** are listed explicitly. A **Warm-Up** activity is provided, followed by other daily activities (such as **Daily Phonics** and **Daily Vocabulary Boost** at grade 3).



After reading the **Anchor Text** in each lesson, students respond to the text through the **Your Turn** writing and discussion activities so that they are regularly given a chance to apply their skills, ask questions, and reflect on their learning.

The program's well-designed, comprehensive assessment system—which includes the use of consistent rubrics for scoring students' writing—means that the predictable routines of instruction are punctuated by detailed feedback. So students learning with *Journeys Common Core* know what to expect instructionally—and know how they are performing.



Collaborative Learning in Journeys Common Core

Collaboration is an emphasis in the Common Core State Standards. In the College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards for Speaking and Listening, the first anchor standard states that students are expected to:

1. Prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others' ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively.

And this expectation is carried through across the grade levels. According the Common Core State Standards, "To build a foundation for college and career readiness, students must have ample opportunities to take part in a variety of rich, structured conversations—as part of a whole class, in small groups, and with a partner. Being productive members of these conversations requires that students contribute accurate, relevant information; respond to and develop what others have said; make comparisons and contrasts; and analyze and synthesize a multitude of ideas in various domains" (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010a, 22).

Small-Group activities help students develop as readers based on their needs, challenges, and preferences. In **Journeys Common Core**, classroom collaboration is emphasized. Collaboration begins at the earliest grades, and continues through the program. For examples in Grade 1, see 1-2: T15, T117, T219. For examples at upper grade-levels, see Grade 4, 4-3: T13, T87, T167.

Students' collaboration skills are further built through the **Student Book: Your Turn** feature, in which, after every **Anchor Text,** students have the chance to engage in collaborative classroom conversations. In addition, a Speaking & Listening or Media Literacy activity provided in every lesson allows students to expand their collaborative skills through group research, literature discussions, and presentations.

Whole-Group and Small-Group Instruction in Journeys Common Core

In each level of **Journeys Common Core**, comprehensive instructional support is provided for three different instructional groupings: Whole-Group Teaching, Small-Group Teaching, and Independent Literacy Work.

In each lesson, **Anchor Text** reading is done as a whole group, followed by **Language Arts** instruction (in grammar, writing, and so on). The whole-group reading of the Anchor Text ensures that all students are accessing complex texts, with appropriate scaffolding, and allows for meaningful discussion about the text. **Progress Monitoring** is done as a whole group, as well.

After the foundation is set with whole-group activities, instruction transitions to small-group learning which can be better leveled to meet the needs of groups of students. With the **Weekly Leveled Readers**, groups can be organized for

Struggling Readers, On Level readers, **Advanced** readers, and **English Language Learners.**

While teachers work with small groups, other students can be involved in independent work—meaningful and productive activities that can be completed independently. This might include students working in the **Reader's Notebook**, which includes interactive practice for phonics, comprehension, spelling, grammar, and writing traits. Or, students might work in **Literacy Centers**, which include **Word Study**, **Think and Write**, and **Comprehension and Fluency** activities.



The teacher-friendly design of the **Teacher's Editions** supports teachers moving between whole-group and small-group instruction with easy-to-locate, colored tabs marking activities as either **Whole Group** or **Small Group**.

For specific examples of whole-group, small-group, and independent learning activities in **Journeys Common Core** see the following pages.

Whole-Group and Small-Group Instruction in Journeys Common Core								
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6		
Whole-Group	Whole-Group	Whole-Group	Whole-Group	Whole-Group	Whole-Group	Whole-Group		
Instruction K-1:	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction		
T388-T451; K-2:	1-3: T1-T78,	2-4: T1-T79,	3-3: T1–T75,	4-4: T1-T58,	5-3: T1–T61,	6-5: T1-T57,		
T12-T73; K-3:	T99-T178,	T101-T179,	T97–T167,	T75-T132,	T79-T141,	T75-T133,		
T200-T261; K-5:	T199-T282,	T201-T279,	T189-T261,	T149-T210,	T159–T215,	T152-T207,		
T294-T355; K-6:	T303-T384,	T301-T379,	T283-T353,	T227-T284,	T233-T289,	T225-T285,		
T12-T73	T405-T484	T401-T484	T375-T449	T301-T366	T307–T370	T303-T366		
Small-Group	Small-Group	Small-Group	Small-Group	Small-Group	Small-Group	Small-Group-		
Instruction K-1:	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction	Instruction		
T456-T471; K-2:	1-3: T79-T97,	2-4: T81-T99,	3-3: T76–T95,	4-4: T59-T74,	5-3: T63–T77,	6-5: T59-T73,		
T78-T93; K-3:	T179-T197,	T181-T199,	T168–T187,	T133-T148,	T143-T157,	T135-T149,		
T266-T281; K-5:	T283-T301,	T281-T299,	T262-T281,	T211-T226,	T217-T231,	T209-T223,		
T360-T375; K-6:	T385-T403,	T381-T399,	T354-T373,	T285-T300,	T291–T305,	T287-T301,		
T76-T93	T489-T507	T485-T503	T450-T469	T367-T382	T371–T385	T367-T381		
Independent	Independent	Independent	Independent	Independent	Independent	Independent		
- K-1: T71, T165,	1-3: T8-T9,	2-4: T8-T9,	3-3: T8-T9, T50-	4-4: T8-T9, T34,	5-1 5-3: T8–T9,	6-5: T34, T82,		
T259, T448; K-2:	T52-T53,	T54-T55,	T51, T104–T105,	T82-T83, T108,	T36, T86–T87,	T83, T158, T159		
T70, T352; K-3:	T106-T107,	T108-T109,	T144-T145,	T156-T157,	T112, T156-	T232, T233,		
T164, T352	T152-T153,	T154-T155,	T196-T197,	T180,	T157, T192,	T310, T311		
	T206-T207,	T208-T209,	T238-T239,	T234-T235,	T240-T241,			
	T252-T253,	T254-T255,	T290-T291,	T260,	T266, T314-			
	T310-T311,	T308-T309,	T330-T331,	T308-T309, T338	T315, T342			
	T356-T357,	T354-T355,	T382–T383,					
	T412-T413,	T408-T409,	T422-T423					
	T458-T459	T454-T455						

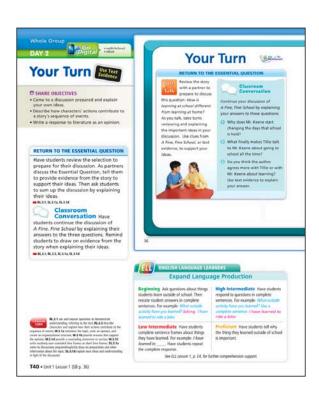


Varied Forms of Communication in Journeys Common Core

Journeys Common Core develops students' skills and abilities in speaking, listening, reading, writing, and viewing. The previous sections of this report have thoroughly documented the ways in which reading and writing are taught in the **Journeys Common Core** program. Speaking, listening, and viewing are all developed in many ways throughout the levels of the program, too.

Lessons begin with a **Teacher Read Aloud**, building students' listening comprehension with oral language. Students' speaking, listening, viewing, and presenting are developed through group discussions, asking and answering questions, interpreting information presented visually, and so on. Each lesson includes a **Research and Media Literacy** or a **Speaking/Listening** activity that extends the lesson topic and connects to the week's reading as well.

Students' speaking and listening skills are further built through the **Student Book: Your Turn** feature, in which, after every **Anchor Text**, students have the chance to engage in collaborative classroom conversations—through program features such as **Turn and Talk** and **Classroom Conversation**.



Students gain experience viewing and presenting through the program's **myWriteSmart** activities, which offer opportunities to create multimedia visual displays in presentations.

For more examples of the types of **Speaking and Listening** opportunities in *Journeys Common Core*, see the examples in the following table.

		Speaking and Lis	stening in <i>Journ</i> e	ys common Core	2	
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Speaking and Listening Adapt Spoken Language Ask and Answer Questions Compare and Contrast Compare Print and Nonprint Information Computer/ Internet: Create and Use Visuals Connections Conversation Strategies Details Discussion Strategies Establishing Routines Evaluate Media Sources	Speaking and Listening Ask and Answer Questions Ask Questions Compare and Contrast Computer/ Internet: Create and Use Visuals Connections Conversation Strategies Critical Listening Descriptive Language Details Directions Discussion Strategies Evaluate Media Sources Give a Narrative Speech	Speaking and Listening Academic English Ask and Answer Questions Compare and Contrast Computer/ Internet: Create and Use Visuals Connections Conversation Strategies Deliver Oral Summaries Descriptive Language Directions Evaluate Media Sources Give a Narrative Speech Give and Follow Directions	Speaking and Listening Ask and Answer Questions Brainstorm-ing Problems and Solutions Create an Audio Recording Deliver a News Report Dramatize a Story Interpret Information Presented Orally Hold a Group Discussion Make a Descriptive Presentation Recount an Experience Report on a Text	Speaking and Listening Brainstorm Discuss to Compare and Contrast Accounts Discuss/Use/ View Symbols and Images Dramatize a Scene/Story Give/Make a Persuasive Speech Have a Discussion Have a Literature Discussion Infer from Actors' Words and Actions Listen to a Recording Paraphrase Information in Diverse Media	Speaking and Listening Answer a Research Question Compare and Contrast Varieties of English Conduct Research to Solve a Problem Create a Multimedia Presentation Give a Persuasive Speech Discuss Poetic Elements Dramatize a Story Event Explain an Author's Argument Give an Informative Speech	Speaking and Listening Literature Discussion Give a Speech Evaluating Author's Claim Compare and Contrast Experiences Paraphrasing Posing Questions About the Story Persuasive Speech Compare Poetry Citing Details Give a Speech Participate in a Debate Compare Presentations Ask and Answer Questions Present an Argument Compare and Contrast Media Compare Folktales Analyze and Evaluate Presentations Hold a Debate Prepare a Storyboard Oral Multimedia Presentation

Engagement and Motivation in Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program engages and motivates students by ensuring that all students will be interested in the program texts and activities and will be supported to experience success in the program. Research supports the fact that highly effective teachers focus on supporting students' engagement and motivation in reading (Dolezal, Welsh, Pressley, & Vincent, 2003).

The many program features described in detail throughout this report contribute to students' engagement and motivation. Differentiated instruction; scaffolding; explicit strategies instruction; the combination of **Whole-Group, Small-Group,** and **Independent** learning activities; and the **Leveled Readers** all work together to ensure that students build a sense of independence and experience success as they work through the activities in the program. This sense of confidence ensures that students have the motivation to persist in learning.



In addition, high-interest literature serves to engage readers throughout each level of **Journeys Common Core**. The organization of multiple texts around domains and grade-appropriate lesson topics helps students to build knowledge of a topic over time and supports their continued interest in learning.

Each lesson in **Journeys Common Core** features a domain and topic that tie the week's text selections together. For example, at Kindergarten, **Domains** include:

- Civics
- Communication
- Community
- Cultures
- Earth Science
- General Science
- Life Science
- Math

- Recreation and Travel
- Science
- Social Relationships
- Social Sciences
- Social Studies
- Technology and Innovation
- Values

The organization by domains, which spiral across the grade levels but are filtered through grade-appropriate lesson topics, provides a continuity and a meaningful progression as students build content knowledge through engaging complex texts.

Technology in Journeys Common Core

The Common Core State Standards emphasize that students who are college and career ready are those who are able to "employ technology thoughtfully to enhance their reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language use" (CCSSI, 2010a, p. 7). Technology is integrated throughout *Journeys Common Core*. Students learn to use technology strategically to support their learning and performance, and teachers use technology to facilitate instruction, assessment, and feedback. The program's **Digital Path** supports both teachers and students.



Specific **Digital Resources** are strengths of the program, and include tools designed specifically to support both students and teachers.

For students:

- Student eBook
- Decodable Readers
- myWriteSmart
- GrammarSnap Videos
- Destination Reading
- Vocabulary in Context Cards

- Cross-Curricular Activity Bank
- Leveled Readers and Vocabulary Readers Online
- Picture Card Bank Online
- Multimedia Grammar Glossary

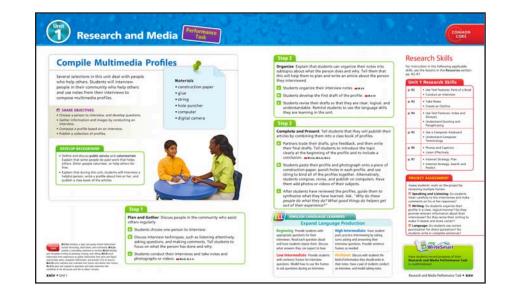
For teachers:

- Journeys Digital Gateway
- Online Teacher's Edition and Planning Resources
- myPlanner
- Teacher One-Stop
- Interactive Focus Wall
- Interactive Whiteboard Lessons

- Literacy and Language Guide
- Leveled Readers Database
- Leveled Readers Teacher's Guides
- WriteSmart Online Writing Tools
- Grab-and-Go Blackline Masters and Instructional Routines
- ELD Station Online

Research and Inquiry in Journeys Common Core

Students are active investigators in **Journeys Common Core**. The program teaches students specific skills for **Research and Media Literacy** so that they have the skills to engage in inquiry.





Throughout each grade level, students continue to develop specific skills related to research and inquiry.

In Grade 3, for example, students develop **Research and Media Literacy** skills through activities such as these:

- Brainstorm Topics
- Citing Sources
- Conduct a Research Project
- Gather Information
- Generate a Research Plan
- Interpret Information Presented Quantitatively
- Interpret Information Presented Visually
- Narrow a Topic
- Paraphrasing vs. Plagiarism
- Present a Research Project
- Refine a Research Question
- Take Notes

In Grade 5, students continue to develop through skills such as these:

- Brainstorming
- Creating Works-Cited Page
- Formulating Questions
- Generating Research Plans
- Media
- Narrowing Topics
- Sources
- Taking Notes
- Using Data from Experts
- Using Reference Texts and Visual Sources
- Interpret Information

In the **myWriteSmart** program online, students have the opportunity to engage in short and extended research projects to build knowledge about a topic—a key element of language arts and comprehension instruction emphasized by the authors of the Common Core State Standards.

And, finally, the program provides students with additional practice applying research and inquiry skills, such as through the **Research and Media Performance Task.**

Strand 5: Assessment

Defining the Strand

To best meet the needs of each student, teachers must have a deep and clear understanding of the needs of each. In successful classrooms, teachers use effective tools to collect data about students' knowledge and skills so that they can understand what is working instructionally—and what is not—and take precise, swift, and effective action in meeting the specific needs of students. In a data-driven system, clear and shared standards are important, so that students and teachers know the intended outcomes of instruction. Assessments aligned to the standards are essential, so that teachers can analyze how well students meet the goals for learning. Finally, aligned instruction is crucial, so that teachers have the instructional materials they need to address students' needs.

Assessment... refers to all those activities undertaken by teachers—and by their students in assessing themselves—that provide information to be used as feedback to modify teaching and learning activities...

Black & Wiliam, 1998a, p. 140

49

As noted by numerous research studies, the regular use of assessment to monitor student progress can improve student learning (Fuchs, 2004). Research attests to the positive effects that formative assessment has on learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998b; Cotton, 1995; Jerald, 2001). And in early reading, assessment is especially crucial; because the early literacy skills of children in kindergarten, first, and second grade are foundational for the development of subsequent comprehension and literacy skills, accurate and reliable assessment and effective instruction and intervention are imperative. As Coyne and Harn (2006) state, "By completing the link between assessment and instruction, schools can dramatically increase the number of students who become successful readers in the primary grades."

Journeys Common Core supports assessment-informed, data-driven instruction. Throughout the program, varied assessments provide valuable information about student learning that can help teachers plan and modify instruction. **Journeys Common Core** integrates effective assessment practices by supporting teachers in using

- Diagnostic assessment;
- Formative assessment;
- Summative assessment; and
- Effective tools to prepare students for standardized assessments.

Research that Guided the Development of the Journeys Common Core Program

Diagnostic Assessment

Effective instruction depends upon teachers who make good decisions about how best to meet their students' needs. To make these kinds of decisions, teachers need information that they can trust about students' strengths and weaknesses, knowledge and understandings. In an instructional context, a *diagnostic assessment* is one in which "assessment results provide information about students' mastery of relevant prior knowledge and skills within the domain as well as preconceptions or misconceptions about the material" (Ketterlin-Geller & Yovanoff, 2009, p. 1). As Wixson and Valencia (2011) define it, "*Diagnostics* refer to assessments that help identify a student's specific strengths and weakness for the purpose of planning instruction and identifying appropriate interventions" (p. 467).



Studies attest to the benefits of using effective diagnostic measures—and tailoring instruction and supplemental practice according to the results of the diagnostics (for example, see Mayes, Chase, & Walker, 2008). Today's classrooms often include students with a wide variety of prerequisite skills and knowledge levels, and diagnostic assessment can help to identify the best instructional approach for each student at the outset, so that instructional time is not wasted.

Particularly in early reading, effective diagnostic assessment is essential. Because learning to read is complex and involves many different skills, identifying students' ability with each skill is important for tailoring instruction effectively to each student's needs. Tools that address each component of early reading in a valid way are important—and, fortunately for today's educators, "recent scientific advances in early literacy assessment have provided schools with access to critical information about students' foundational beginning-reading skills" (Coyne & Harn, 2006, 43). Including specific assessments of specific skills is essential. As Fuchs and Fuchs (2006) put it: ". . . an assessment method with demonstrated validity for beginning decoding skills may be invalid for assessing reading comprehension" (p. 98).

Formative Assessment

"Effective instruction depends on sound instructional decision-making, which in turn, depends on reliable data regarding students' strengths, weaknesses, and progress in learning content..." (National Institute for Literacy, 2007, p. 27). The phrase *formative assessment* encompasses the wide variety of activities—formal and informal—that teachers employ throughout the learning process to gather this kind of instructional data to assess student understanding and to make and adapt instructional decisions. Formative assessment is not an end in itself; the goal is not to assign a grade, for example; but rather, its purpose is to guide instruction. Formative assessment moves testing from the end into the middle of instruction, to guide teaching and learning as it occurs (Heritage, 2007).

Educators agree on the benefits of ongoing assessment in the classroom. "Well-designed assessment can have tremendous impact on students' learning . . . if conducted regularly and used by teachers to alter and improve instruction" (National Research Council, 2007, p. 344). Several reviews of instructional practices used by effective teachers have revealed that effective teachers use formal tools (such as quizzes or homework assignments) and informal tools (such as discussion and observation) to regularly monitor student learning and check student progress (Cotton, 1995; Christenson, Ysseldyke, & Thurlow, 1989). In a study of student learning in a multimedia environment, Johnson and Mayer (2009) found that students who took a practice test after studying multimedia material outperformed students who studied the material again (without the assessment). Stecker, Fuchs, and Fuchs (2005) examined research on curriculum-based measurement, in which teachers used outcomes-based assessments regularly to monitor student progress, and found that the use of these assessments produced significant gains—when teachers used the data to make appropriate adjustments to instruction.

Research shows that regularly assessing and providing feedback to students on their performance is a highly effective tool for teachers to produce significant—and often substantial—gains in student learning and performance (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, 1998b). Formative assessment is particularly important in early reading instruction. Regular assessment and subsequent tailored instruction is necessary for foundational skills because of the interconnected and sequential nature of learning: "Because the ability to obtain meaning from print depends so strongly on the development of word recognition accuracy and reading fluency, both of the latter should be regularly assessed in the classroom, permitting timely and effective instructional response where difficulty or delay is apparent" (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998, 7).

Formative assessment strengthens student learning and increases teachers' sense of self-efficacy. As Coyne and Horn (2006) argue, "Data from ongoing formative assessments reinforce teachers' efforts as they see tangible evidence of student progress and, as a result, increase the social validity and perceived importance of systematic reading instruction and intervention" (p. 43).

Benchmark and Summative Assessment

It is important for students and teachers to have an assessment of learning that can serve as a cumulative evaluation to measure growth at the end point of instruction or to assess whether long-term goals have been met. High-quality benchmark and summative assessments help teachers evaluate their curriculum and how well their students have met educational benchmarks. Not only are benchmark assessments important to instructional planning, some types of assessment are even legislated. The 2004 Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) states that assessment should include "data-based documentation of repeated assessments of achievement at reasonable intervals" (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

As Wixson and Valencia (2011) explain, "Benchmark progress monitoring refers to data gathered at predetermined times of the year to ascertain if students are making adequate progress in overall performance in relation to age or grade expectations or benchmarks" while "summative outcome assessment refers to data gathered at the end of the year to determine effectiveness of instruction and student year-end performance . . ." (p. 468).

When designing an effective summative assessment, it is crucial to allow for different types of performance. Research supports that looking at multiple means of assessment is the best way to capture a whole picture of student learning. As noted by Krebs's(2005) research, using one data point, such as written responses, to evaluate and assess students' learning can be "incomplete and incorrect conclusions might be drawn . . ." (p. 411). Variety in assessment item types is essential when designing an effective summative assessment.

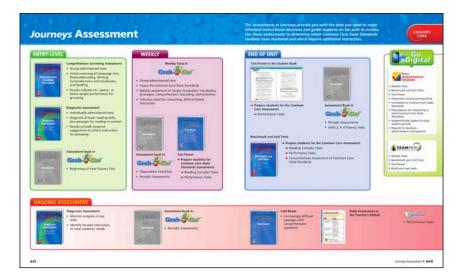
Preparation for Standardized Tests

Teachers play an important role in developing the skills and understandings students need to perform well on standardized assessments of their learning. An effective instructional program prepares students for standardized tests by teaching core content and skills, as well as *how* to take the test, including answering multiple-choice and other items and analyzing ideas to respond to essay questions (Oberjuerge, 1999). McCabe (2003) emphasizes this role as well, suggesting that to best build students' self-efficacy beliefs around testing, teachers should practice with test-like materials and model test-taking, among other instructional strategies. In a meta-analysis of psychological, educational, and behavioral interventions, Lipsey and Wilson (1993) found that coaching in test-taking skills and administration of practice tests were effective in improving student performance on tests.

Because some teachers may feel resistance to "teaching to the test" (see Hornof, 2008, and Santman, 2002) and be concerned that test preparation may water down the curriculum (see Au, 2007), it is important that test preparation materials or instructional suggestions mirror the elements of research-based effective instruction (Greene & Melton, 2007). Hornof (2008) recommends that teachers consider analyze the strategies used to successfully complete a standardized assessment measure, define test-specific vocabulary, model effective strategies, and build strategies for the increased stamina students will need when taking the assessment. Additionally, reading teachers who focus on purposeful reading, genre analysis, and answering varied questions in response to texts will be effectively preparing students for reading assessments.



From Research to Practice



Diagnostic and Screening Assessments in Journeys Common Core

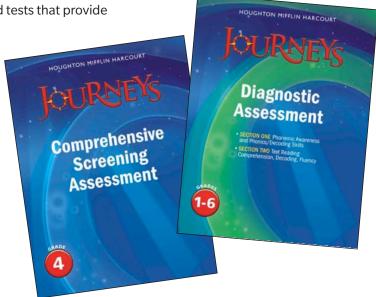
The **Journeys Common Core** program offers multiple tools to support teachers' diagnoses of students' strengths and weaknesses.

At the entry level, *Journeys Common Core* offers the **Comprehensive Screening Assessment** for grades 2 through 6, group-administered tests that provide initial screening of grade-appropriate skills (for example, at Grade 3: phonics/decoding, writing, language arts, comprehension and vocabulary, and spelling).

For the lower grades (K and 1), the **Emerging Literacy Survey** provides individually administered

For a more detailed diagnostic, *Journeys Common Core* provides the **Diagnostic Assessment**, individually administered tests with results that provide targeted suggestions to inform instruction and grouping.

assessments of foundational skills.



Formative Assessment in Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program offers multiple tools that enable teachers to use formative assessment to inform instruction. Assessments include formal and informal tools, designed to be used daily, weekly, periodically, and on a case-by-case basis. These formative tools include

- **Daily Assessment**—The **Journeys Common Core Teacher's Edition** provides point-of-use Daily Assessment features to quickly monitor student understanding.
- **Weekly Tests**—The Weekly Tests in the **Grab-and-Go** format are group-administered tests that offer weekly assessment of key skills and strategies and help to inform decisions about reteaching or differentiated instruction.
- **Diagnostic Assessment**—The **Diagnostic Assessment** tests can be used to monitor student progress on a key skill and to identify focused instruction to meet specific students' needs.
- **Cold Reads**—The **Cold Reads** booklets provide passages that gradually increase in complexity, accompanied with comprehension questions that require students to examine and cite text evidence.
- **myWriteSmart**—Provides performance assessments that can be used as formative tools to track student progress on complex, multistep tasks that include text-based writing.
- Online Assessment System—Online assessmentfeatures that can help to inform instruction include automatic scoring and reporting, prescriptions for reteaching to meet the Common Core State Standards, the **Student Profile** System to track student growth, and reports for teachers, administrators, and parents.
- **Periodic Assessments**—The Observation Checklists and Periodic Assessments in the **Grab-and-Go** provide teachers with helpful tools for ongoing assessment.

To see some specific examples of formative assessments in the **Journeys Common Core** program, see the pages listed in the table that follows.

	Exam	ples of Formativ	e Assessment in	Journeys Comm	on Core	
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily
Assessment	Assessment	Assessment	Assessment	Assessment	Assessment	Assessment
K-1: T42,	1-1: BTS5, BTS9,	2-1: xxiii, T19,	3-1: T19, T28,	4-1: T15, T24,	5-1: T15, T22,	6-5: xvi, T15,
T53, T78,	BTS11, BTS15,	T21, T30, T39,	T46, T76, T111,	T26, T31, T41,	T26, T31, T41,	T20, T28, T31,
T84-T85, T136,	BTS17, T21,	T41, T59, T63,	T131, T138,	T45, T89, T96,	T45, T56, T89,	T41, T45, T89,
1:T147, T172,	T37, T47, T48,	T128, T137,	T139, T168,	T102, T107,	T96, T102,	T94, T100,
T178-T179,	T59, T74-T75,	T145, T146,	T205, T227,	T117, T121,	T107, T123,	T107, T117,
T230, T241	T80, T86-T87	T157	T234, T264,	T165, T172,	T127, T138,	T121, T165,
			T299, T321,	T178, T183,	T171, T178,	T172, T174,
			T328, T358,	T195, T199,	T182, T189,	T181, T191,
			T393, T415,	T243	T199	T195, T239,
			T422			T244, T248
Progress	Weekly Tests	Progress	Weekly Tests	Weekly Tests	Weekly Tests	Progress
Monitoring	1-4: T182, T183,	Monitoring	3-1: T70-T71,	4-1: T56-T57,	5-1: T56-T57,	Monitoring
K-1: E3, E5, E7,	T284; 1-5: T76,	2-1: E3, E5, E7,	T162-T163,	T132-T133,	T138-T139,	6-5: T56, T132,
E9, E11, E43,	T77, T176-T177	E9,:E11, E13,	T258-T259,	T210-T211,	T214-T215,	T206, T284,
E45, E47, E49		E15, E17, E19,	T352-T253,	T284-T285,	T288-T289,	T360
		E21	T446-T447	T362-T363	T362-T363	

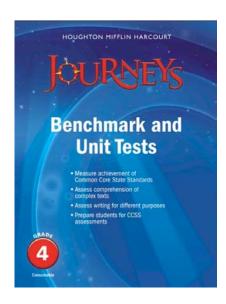


In addition, rubrics are a valuable tool in formative assessment because teachers can use them both to assess student work and to communicate the criteria used for evaluating the work. **Journeys Common Core** provides rubrics for teachers and students to use in the program's **Resource** section of the Teacher's Edition.

Benchmark and Summative Assessment in Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program provides teachers with the data needed to make informed instructional decisions and guide students on the path to success. Teachers can use assessments to determine which Common Core State Standards have been mastered—and which require additional instruction.

• **Benchmark and Unit Tests** (K–6) are group-administered, end-of-unit tests. They assess reading, vocabulary, language arts, and writing. They also include Performance Tasks that assess students' ability to read and comprehend complex text and cite text-based evidence. Unit Tests and Benchmarks are given in alternate units; the Benchmark Tests include skills from previous units to verify continued proficiency.



Preparation for Standardized Tests in Journeys Common Core

The **Journeys Common Core** program prepares students to meet the demands of standardized assessments and demonstrate their achievement on Common Core State Standards.

The **Weekly Tests** in the program's **Grab-and-Go** are group-administered tests that provide students with practice reading the types of passages and answering the types of questions that they will encounter on standardized tests. This weekly assessment of key skills and strategies—such as target vocabulary, vocabulary strategies, comprehension, phonics/decoding, and language arts—helps teachers ensure that they provide the reteaching and/or differentiated instruction that students need to meet the Common Core State Standards.

• **Test Power** helps to prepare students for the Common Core State Standards assessments with weekly skills lessons and tests and end-of-year practice tests. It also includes Performance Tasks that assess students' ability to read and comprehend complex text and cite text-based evidence.

Strand 6: Meeting All Students' Needs

Defining the Strand

Effective instruction successfully meets the needs of students with a wide range of ability levels and backgrounds. Effective teachers differentiate instruction. Effective curricular programs address the needs of all students, including struggling students and advanced learners. A wide body of research supports the idea that for learning to occur, learning activities must align to the needs of the learner (Tomlinson & Allan, 2000; Valencia, 2007). Learners' needs, however, differ not only among students but also for individual students at different times and in different areas of the language arts. Therefore, in order to meet a student's individual needs, effective teachers must assess frequently and differentiate instruction accordingly.

Any reader can struggle with a particular text. The struggling readers who need scaffolds and differentiated instruction, though, are the ones who struggle with most texts—those who lack the strategies to make sense of what they read and the engagement to persist in what they read. High-quality instruction for these students includes authentic purposes for reading and writing across content areas, the use of specific scaffolds and lessons that teach essential strategies (Collins, 1998; Cunningham & Allington, 2007; Lipson, 2011; Lipson & Wixson, 2008). Increasing these students' motivation is also essential.

Using a proven model to identify needs and provide timely intervention to students with difficulties is particularly important in the early reading

Optimal learning takes place within students' "zones of proximal development"—when teachers assess students' current understanding and teach new concepts, skills, and strategies at an according level.

Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86

Effective scaffolding aligned with the standards should result in the reader encountering the text on its own terms, with instructions providing helpful directions that focus students on the text. Follow-up support should guide the reader when encountering places in the text where he or she might struggle.

Coleman & Pimentel, 2011

classroom (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006). The Response to Intervention model offers schools and teachers a model for supporting the range of students in today's classroom with instruction that is aligned to their specific needs (Hall, Strangman, & Meyer, 2009). The **Journeys Common Core** Response to Intervention (Rtl) model employs regular assessment and interventions at different tiers, or levels, to determine students' needs and provide the intensity of support required. More specifics on how **Journeys Common Core** supports instruction for all students are provided in the following sections of this report.

Research that Guided the Development of the *Journeys Common Core* Program Struggling Readers

Not all struggling readers struggle for the same reasons. They differ in their needs for instruction (Valencia, 2010). Some need additional instruction in phonics, decoding and word recognition. Others need instruction focused more closely on comprehension strategies (Pressley, Gaskins, & Fingeret, 2006). What these students do not need is slowed-down instruction, which will ensure that they remain behind their peers (Allington & Walmsley, 1995).



For students who need to develop strategic reading, demonstrations of effective strategy use and continued opportunities to apply strategies learned are essential components of effective instruction (Cunningham & Allington, 2007; Allington, 2001; Fielding & Pearson, 1994; Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1987; Raphael & Pearson, 1985; Baumann, 1984; Pikulski, 1994). Struggling readers benefit from the same instructional strategies from which all learners benefit, but also benefit from more intensive instruction on skills (Au, 2002). Readers who struggle with comprehension struggle with using reading comprehension strategies, such as summarizing, making inferences, or monitoring their comprehension (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991). For these struggling readers, explicit instruction in the flexible use of these comprehension strategies is particularly helpful. Graphic organizers and predictable learning sequences have been shown to be effective with struggling learners (Collins, 1998) as have integrating reading and writing, setting authentic purposes for literacy activities, and providing consistently high-quality classroom instruction (Cunningham & Allington, 2007).

Increasing the motivation of struggling readers is particularly important because of the close connection between motivation and reading achievement, as discussed in the earlier section of this report on engagement and motivation.

Advanced Learners

Like English language learners and struggling learners, advanced learners require differentiation in their instruction as well. Those who are advanced need to be sufficiently engaged to continue to challenge themselves. Differentiation in activities and delivery can accomplish this purpose (Rogers, 2007; Tomlinson, 1995, 1997; VanTassel-Baska & Brown, 2007), as can centering activities around issues, problems, and themes that are of interest and relevant to these students (VanTassel-Baska & Brown, 2007).

A number of practices have been identified by research as particularly effective with advanced students. A learning environment with the following characteristics has been demonstrated to be effective:

- Ongoing assessment of students, in varied modes likely to give students the most opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge and skill;
- Multiple learning options and varied instructional strategies;
- Variable pacing;
- Engaging tasks for all learners; and
- Flexible grouping (Tomlinson, 1995).

Rogers (2007) adds that advanced learners need daily challenge, opportunities to work with peers, and varied instructional delivery. Additionally, while group work and working with peers are beneficial for these students, independent learning is a key to an effective instructional program to challenge these advanced learners. Research suggests that "gifted learners are significantly more likely to prefer independent study, independent project, and self-instructional materials" (Rogers, 2002). Therefore whole group, small group, and independent activities will all serve specific purposes in meeting the needs of advanced students.

Response to Intervention

Both differentiated instruction and Response to Intervention (RtI) "share a central goal: to modify instruction until it meets the needs of all learners" (Demirsky, Allan & Goddard, 2010). According to Demirsky, Allan and Goddard (2010), these two instructional approaches are complementary and share the premises that all students have different academic needs and that teachers must teach accordingly to meet these needs and to ensure student success. While differentiation is generally used to respond to the needs of diverse learners in the classroom, RtI is envisioned as a prevention system with multiple layers—a structured way to help students who are struggling before they fall behind their peers—and so it focuses on early, and ongoing, identification of needs and tiers of responses.

Response to Intervention (RtI) is a model that integrates instruction, intervention, and assessment to create a more cohesive program of instruction that can result in higher student achievement (Mellard & Johnson, 2008). Rtl is most commonly depicted as a three-tier model where Tier 1 represents general instruction and constitutes primary prevention. Students at this level respond well to the general curriculum and learn reasonably well without additional support. Tier 2 represents a level of intervention for students who are at moderate risk. Students at Tier 2 receive some supplementary support in addition to Tier 1 instruction. Tier 3 typically represents students who need more extensive, intensive, and specialized intervention, sometimes including special education services (Smith & Johnson, 2011).

In implementing Rtl in the early reading classroom, the use of effective assessments is essential. As the International Reading Association (IRA) statement (2010) on Rtl advises, "An Rtl approach demands assessment that can inform language and literacy instruction meaningfully. Assessment should reflect the multidimensional nature of language and literacy. . . . " According to Griffiths, VanDerHeyden, Parson, and Burns (2006), an effective Rtl model should include three elements:

- 1. Systematic assessment and collection of data to identify students' needs;
- 2. The use of effective interventions in response to the data; and
- 3. Continued assessment of students to determine the effectiveness of interventions—and the need for any additional intervention.

From Research to Practice

Struggling Readers in Journeys Common Core

Throughout, the **Journeys Common Core** program provides suggestions for differentiated instruction to meet the needs of struggling readers.

Differentiated Instruction for Struggling Readers in Journeys Common Core							
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	
K-1: T4, T76, T78, T80, T82, T86, T90, T98	1-1: T78, T80, T82, T84, T86, T88, T92	2-1: T78-T79, T80, T82, T84, T86, T88, T92	3-1: T76, T78, T80, T88, T168, T170, T172	4-1: T60-T61, T62, T64, T66, T70, T136-T137	5-1: T60-T61, T142-T143, T218-T219, T292-T293	6-5: T64, T70, T140, T146, T214, T220, T292, T298, T372, T378	

The **Journeys Common Core** program was designed to support the learning of all students. The effective instructional practices throughout the program support struggling readers in multiple ways and provide guidance for implementing daily individualized instruction with struggling readers. The authors of **Journeys Common Core** recognize that while "ambitious outcomes are appropriate for all students, one-size-fits-all instruction is not the best we can do." (Lipson, 2011)

Scaffolded reading materials include **Write-In Readers**, which provide scaffolding and support for readers who struggle (those reading at a year or more below reading level). **Leveled Readers** also provide texts written specifically to support struggling readers. Both types of materials can serve as an "on-ramp" into more complex texts for students who need help.

The **Week at a Glance** at the beginning of each lesson provides an overview of the week's strategic intervention instruction—which is then elaborated more fully in the back of the **Teacher's Edition**, where specific suggestions are provided for strategic intervention to meet the needs of struggling readers.



Online, the **Journeys Common Core** program provides oral language support to help students practice thinking and comprehension skills in a scaffolded environment. Online, students can listen to the selections at a slower speed and at a fluent reading speed. Specific features of the **Write-In Reader eBook** support struggling readers, including:

- Dual-speed audio: fluent and emergent.
- **Follow-Text** feature for text tracking.

Advanced Learners in Journeys Common Core

Throughout, the **Journeys Common Core** program provides suggestions for differentiated instruction to meet the needs of advanced learners.

Differentiated Instruction for Advanced Learners in Journeys Common Core							
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	
K-1: T4, T76, T81, T83, 1:T88, T91, T98	1-1: T78, T81, T82, T83, T85, T90, T93	2-1: T78-T79, T81, T83, T85, T90, T181	3-1: T77, T79, T81, T89, T169, T171, T173	4-1: T60-T61, T63, T65, T68, T71, T136-T137	5-1: T60-T61, T142-T143, T218-T219, T292-T293	6-5: T65, T71, T141, T147, T215, T221, T293, T299, T373, T379	

Leveled Readers in *Journeys Common Core* provide specific types of reading support for all students, whether they read on, below, or above grade level. Teachers at each grade level can search for leveled readers by reading level – below, on, or above grade level – or by Fountas-Pinnell level. **Leveled Readers** noted by a blue square are written for **Advanced Readers** at each grade level.

Research suggests that whole-group, small-group, and independent learning are all important components of an instructional program that will be effective for advanced learners. The **Journeys Common Core** program explicitly guides teachers in how to use the **Journeys Common Core** materials in three different instructional contexts: Whole-Group Teaching, Small-Group Teaching, and Independent Literacy Work. Each **Journeys Common Core** lesson is organized around Whole-Group Lessons, Small-Group activities, and Independent activities.

Finally, the **Journeys Common Core** program recognizes that a one-size fits all instructional program will not meet the needs of all students. Even in the suggestions for specific populations, such as English Language Learners, the **Journeys Common Core** program provides suggestions for differentiating the level of instruction.

Response to Intervention in Journeys Common Core

The Journeys Common Core program was designed to support the learning of all students.

Tier I: Core Program

Throughout **Journeys** lessons, teachers will find scaffolds, differentiated instruction, and options for reteaching so that learners at many levels can meet with success.

<u>Tier II: Core Program + Strategic Intervention</u>

When further intervention is needed, **Strategic Intervention** lessons can be found in the back of each *Teacher's Edition*. These lessons support students who are struggling with core content and incorporate the use of **Journeys Write-In Readers**. Selections in the **Write-In Readers** match the main topics of *Journeys* lessons, are age-appropriate, and help students build the foundational and strategic skills for reading more complex texts. **Stop, Think, Write** activities in the **Write-In Readers** are designed to support and reinforce the key skill or strategy. **Look Back and Respond** pages offer hints that help students search the text for key information. **Reading Detective** pages scaffold students in reading increasingly complex text by putting students in the role of reading detectives as they ask questions, look for clues, and write to demonstrate evidence-based comprehension of the Anchor Text in the core program.

Online, the **Journeys** program provides listening and reading support that benefit struggling readers. Students can listen to the **Write-In Reader** selections online, both at a slower speed and at a fluent reading speed. Whiteboard features and hints provided online help to support students as they go deeper into texts to increase their comprehension.

In order to check student progress and identify further intervention needs, teachers can use the **Progress Monitoring Assessment** (bi-weekly), which supports Tier II **Strategic Intervention.**

<u>Tier III: Core Program + Strategic Intervention + Intensive Intervention</u>

Used in conjunction with Tier I and Tier II, the Tier III **Journeys Reading Tool Kits** allow for targeted intensive intervention in specific skills.

In the **Primary Kit**, the **Journeys** program provides targeted instruction and intervention in the five areas critical to reading success—phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension—through multiple tools, including:

- I Do, We Do, You Do organization that provides an important gradual-release model and scaffolds student learning
- 90 lessons in each of the five domains (for a total of 450 lessons)
- The **Skill Index** that enables teachers to easily personalize instruction.

In the Intermediate **Literacy Tool Kit**, the **Journeys** program provides:

- focused instruction in key reading skills
- activities that can be used for small-group or individual instruction
- leveled books that offer additional reading and skill application
- assessment that evaluates the effectiveness of the Tier III intervention



A comprehensive assessment system, which allows for teachers to consider multiple measures of student performance, is a strength of the *Journeys Common Core* program. In addition to the many print materials available to teachers and students, *Journeys Digital* also offers:

- Online Tests with automatic scoring and reporting;
- Common Core State Standards correlations;
- Prescriptions for reteaching to meet Common Core State Standards;
- **Student Profile System** to track student growth;
- Reports for teachers, administrators, and parents.



Strand 7: Meeting the Needs of English Language Learners

Defining the Strand

While English language learners (ELLs) benefit from the same best-practice instruction that research has shown to be effective with native speakers, Short and Fitzsimmons (2007) suggest the following promising practices for developing literacy among ELLs:

- 1. Integrated reading, writing, listening, and speaking instruction
- 2. Explicit instruction in the components and processes of reading and writing
- 3. Direct instruction in reading comprehension strategies
- 4. A focus on vocabulary development
- 5. Development and activation of background knowledge
- 6. Theme- and content-based language instruction
- 7. Strategic use of native language
- 8. Integrated technology use
- 9. Increasing motivation through choice

In addition, ELLs "require effective instructional approaches and interventions to prevent further difficulties and to augment and support their academic development" (Francis et al., 2006a, 1).

Huebner (2009) advises teachers of ELLs that "when selecting a program, educators should ensure that it ... recognize[s] all the areas of essential literacy skills: phonological awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension." Research shows that this strategy can help students perform at or above grade level and sustain high performance. (91)

Research shows that instruction in the key components of reading identified by the National Literacy Panel—phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension—has clear benefits for ELLs as well as for other students (August & Shanahan, 2006). However, there is a growing consensus that ELLs are less likely to struggle with the basic skills—phonemic awareness and phonics—than with the last three components—fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. These are the areas that cause many students, especially ELLs, to falter in midelementary school when they are expected to make the transition from "learning to read" to "reading to learn" (Francis et al., 2006a). When working with ELLs to improve their literacy, it is important that teachers choose interventions that target the specific difficulties each student is experiencing.

Huebner, 2009, p. 90

In the **Journeys Common Core** program, specific suggestions and materials support the needs of ELLs. Teachers are provided ample guidance on how best to meet the needs of this population. More specifics are provided in the following pages of this report.

Research that Guided the Development of Journeys Common Core

English Language Learners

ELLs benefit from the same kinds of effective instructional strategies from which all learners benefit (Chiappe & Siegel, 2006; Proctor, Carlo, August, & Snow, 2005). The five key components of reading, as identified by the National Reading Panel (2000), are clearly helpful to second language learners—including instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics (Mathes, Pollard-Durodola, Cárdenas-Hagan, Linan-Thompson, & Vaughn, 2007), fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary—as is explicit instruction in oral language and in writing strategies and structures (August & Shanahan, 2006; Vaughn, Mathes, Linan-Thompson, & Francis, 2005). Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, and Rivera (2006a) suggest that while the first two are particularly important for early readers, the last three components are critical during all stages of reading development. For ELLs, providing multiple exposures to vocabulary in varied instructional contexts is essential. For these students, it is particularly important that vocabulary instruction incorporate oral, reading, and writing activities (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006a). Explicit instruction in strategies for comprehension is an important part of an instructional plan for

ELLs and has been shown to lead to higher levels of comprehension among these students (Klingner & Vaughn, 2004). ELLs also benefit from grammar instruction, embedded in the context of writing experiences (Scarcella, 2003), and the use of technology—including word processing (Silver & Repa, 1993).

In addition, ELLs have some specific instructional needs. Added instructional time, through grouping or other arrangements, benefits these students (Linan-Thompson, Cirino, & Vaughn, 2007). Additional instruction in vocabulary—and specifically in *academic language*—is essential (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006a; Carlo et al., 2004; Zimmerman, 1997; Rousseau, Tam, & Ramnarain, 1993; Perez, 1981). While ELLs are likely to acquire conversational English easily, academic language is most likely acquired through direct instruction and classroom experiences (Teale, 2009; Jacobson, Lapp, & Flood, 2007; August & Shanahan, 2006). For ELLs, academic vocabulary can take much more time to master than conversational English (DeLuca, 2010).

Instruction that connects the visual and the verbal, multimodal instruction, appears to lead to achievement gains among this population (Early & Marshall, 2008; McGinnis, 2007). For students struggling with vocabulary acquisition, instructional strategies that employ students' visual, nonlinguistic modes of learning—such as drawing pictures to represent words or webs to show relationships between ideas—can be particularly effective.

From Research to Practice

English Language Learners in Journeys Common Core

Journeys Common Core provides strong support to teachers—and ample learning opportunities for ELLs.

Units open with a section on **Planning for English Language Development.** Here, teachers are guided with suggestions for the sequence and content of instruction and specific strategies and materials for ELLs.

Suggestions are provided for:

- Vocabulary (including Tier 1/**High-Utility Words** and Tiers 2 and 3/**Target Vocabulary** and **Reading/Language**Arts Terms)
- Scaffolding Comprehension
- Scaffolding Writing
- Scaffolding Grammar





Throughout every lesson, **Journeys Common Core** provides the scaffolding that ELLs need to read complex texts and meet high standards.

The following resources provide support to ELLs and their teachers.

- **Daily ELL lessons** and **Language Support Cards** connect to the core content and provide visuals and reinforcement that can be used with small groups.
- **ELL Blackline Masters** offer specific instructional activities to accompany the daily ELL lessons.
- English Language Learner Leveled Readers offer sheltered text that connects to the main selection's topic, vocabulary, skill and strategy and include an audio CD which models oral reading fluency. The accompanying Teacher's Guides provide instructional support.
- **Point-of-Use Scaffolded Support** in the **Teacher's Edition** helps ELLs access the core content with the whole group.
- Vocabulary in Context Cards provide ELLs visual support when learning Target Vocabulary.
- ELL Teacher's Handbook contains professional development and teaching resources, such as leveled BLMs for writing conferences and cooperative learning.

The following **Teacher's Edition** page references show sample **Daily ELL Lessons**, **Point-of-Use Scaffolds**, and **Differentiated Instruction** in grades K–6.

Journeys Common Core Teacher's Edition							
Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	
K-1: T14, T18, T24, E2, E4, E6, E8, E10	1-1: E1-E11, T16, T20, T26	2-1: E1-E11, T22, T32, T36	3-1: T16, T18, T77, T79, T81, T89, T108, T110	4-1: T52, T63, T65, T69, T71, T81, T88, T90	5-1: T30, T32, T36, T40, T45, T46	6-1: T61, T66-T67, T71, T72-T73	

And finally, Journeys Digital provides online tools and resources for both teachers and ELLs:

For students:

- Picture Bank Card Online
- Multimedia Grammar Glossary
- ELL Leveled Reader Online
- Vocabulary Reader Online
- Cross-Curricular Activity Bank

For teachers:

- ELD Station Online
- Leveled Reader Teacher's Guide
- Leveled Readers Database

References

- Abrami, P. C., Lou, Y., Chambers, B., Poulsen, C., Spence, J. C., & Abrami, P. C. (2000). Why should we group students within-class for learning? *Educational Research & Evaluation*, 6(2), 158-179.
- Achieve, Inc. (2005). Rising to the challenge: Are high school graduates prepared for college and work? Washington, DC: Author.
- ACT. (2005). Crisis at the core: Preparing all students for college and work. Iowa City: Author. Retrieved June 23, 2012, from http://www.act.org/research/policymakers/pdf/crisis report.pdf
- ACT. (2007). Writing framework for the 2011 National Assessment for Educational Progress, pre-publication edition. Washington, DC: National Assessment Governing Board.
- ACT. (2009). The condition of college readiness 2009. Iowa City, IA: Author.
- Adams, M.J. (1990). Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print. Urbana-Champaign, IL: University of Illinois, Reading Research and Education Center.
- Adey, P. S., & Shayer, M. (1993). An exploration of the long-term far-transfer effects following an extended intervention programme in the high school science curriculum. *Cognition and Instruction*, 11(1), 1–29.
- Afflerbach, P. (1986). The influence of prior knowledge on expert readers' importance assignment processes. In J. A. Niles & R. V. Lalik (Eds.), *National reading conference yearbook*. Vol. 35: Solving problems in literacy: Learners, teachers, and researchers. Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.
- Alfassi, M. (2004) Reading to learn: Effects of combined strategy instruction on high school students. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 97(4), 171-184.
- Allington, R. (2001). What really matters for struggling readers: Designing research-based programs. New York: Addison-Wesley.
- Allington, R., & Walmsley, S. (1995). No quick fix: Rethinking literacy programs in America's elementary schools. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Anglin, J. M. (1993). *Vocabulary development: A morphological analysis*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development (Serial No. 238), 58 (10).
- Annetta, L.A., & Holmes, S. (2006). Creating presence and community in a synchronous virtual learning environment using avatars. *International journal of instructional technology and distance learning*, 3(8). Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.itdl.org/journal/Aug 06/article03.htm
- Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL). (2005). Research digest: Effective instructional strategies. Charleston, WV: Author. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.edvantia.org/pdta/pdf/Effective_Instructional_Strategies.pdf
- Applebee, A.N. (1981). Writing in the secondary school: English and the content areas. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Applebee, A., & Langer, J. (2006). The state of writing instruction: What existing data tell us. Albany, NY: Center on English Learning and Achievement.
- Applebee, A.N., Langer, J.A., Nystrand, M., & Gamoran, A. (2003). Discussion-based approaches to developing understanding: Classroom instruction and student performance in middle and high school English. *American Educational Research Journal*, 40(3), 685-730.
- Armbruster, B. B., Anderson, T. H., & Ostertag, J. (1987). Does text structure/summarization instruction facilitate learning from expository text? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22(3), 331-346.
- Aronoff, M. (1994). Morphology. In Purves, A. C., Papa, L., & Jordan, S. (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of English studies and language arts*, Vol. 2 (pp. 820-821). New York: Scholastic.



- Atwell, N. (1987). In the middle. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Atwell, N. (1989). Coming to know: Writing to learn in the intermediate grades. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Atwell, N. (1998). In the middle: New understandings about writing, reading, and learning. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Au, K. H. (2002). Multicultural factors and the effective instruction of students of diverse backgrounds. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.) What research has to say about reading instruction (392-413). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.
- Au, W. (2007). High-stakes testing and curricular control: A qualitative metasynthesis. Educational Researcher, 36(5), 258-268.
- August, D. & Shanahan, T. (Eds.) (2006). Developing literacy in second-language learners: A report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ausubel, D. P. (1960). The use of advance organizers in the learning and retention of meaningful verbal material. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 51(5), 267-272.
- Ausubel, D.P. (1963). The psychology of meaningful verbal learning. New York: Grune and Stratton.
- Baker, J. A., Clark, T. P., Maier, K. S., & Viger, S. (2008). The differential influence of instructional context on the academic engagement of students with behavior problems. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 24(7), 1876-1883.
- Baker, S. K., Simmons, D. C., & Kame'enui, E. J. (1995a). *Vocabulary acquisition: Curricular and instructional implications for diverse learners, Technical report no.* 13. University of Oregon: National Center to Improve Tools for Educators.
- Baker, S. K., Simmons, D. C., & Kame'enui, E. J. (1995b). *Vocabulary acquisition: Synthesis of the research, Technical report no. 13.* University of Oregon: National Center to Improve Tools for Educators.
- Ball, A. F. (2006). Teaching writing in culturally diverse classrooms. In C. A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (293-310). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Baumann, J. F. (1984). The Effectiveness of a Direct Instruction Paradigm for Teaching Main Idea Comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20(1), 93-115.
- Baumann, J. F., & Kame'enui, E. J. (1991). Research on vocabulary instruction: Ode to Voltaire. In J. Flood, J. Jensen, D. Lapp, & J. R. Squire (Eds.), Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts (604-632). New York: Macmillan.
- Baumann, J. F., & Kame'enui, E. J. (Eds.). (2004). Vocabulary instruction: Research to practice. New York: Guilford Press.
- Baumann, J.F., Kame'enui, E.J., & Ash, G.E. (2003). Research on vocabulary instruction: Voltaire redux. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J.R. Squire, & J.M. Jensen (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (2nd ed., pp. 752–785). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bear, D.R., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (2012). Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary, and spelling instruction (5th Ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2002). Bringing words to life: robust vocabulary instruction. New York: Guilford Press.
- Beck, I., McKeown, M., & Kucan, L. (2008). Creating robust vocabulary: Frequently asked questions. New York: 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(1), 39-56.
- Berninger, V. W., Abbott, R. D., Nagy, W., & Carlisle, J. (2010). Growth in phonological, orthographic, and morphological awareness in grades 1 to 6. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 39(2), 141–163.
- Beverly, B.L., Giles, R.M., & Buck, K.L. (2009). First-grade reading gains following enrichment: Phonics plus decodable texts compared to authentic literature read aloud. *Reading Improvement*, 46(4), 191-205.

- 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. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.all4ed.org/files/archive/publications/ReadingNext/ReadingNext.pdf
- Biemiller, A. (2004). Teaching vocabulary in the primary grades: Vocabulary instruction needed. In J. F. Baumann & E. J. Kame'enui (Eds.), Vocabulary instruction: Research to Practice (pp. 28-40). New York: Guilford Press.
- Biemiller, A. (2005). Size and sequence in vocabulary development: Implications for choosing words for primary grade vocabulary instruction. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice* (pp. 223-242). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Biemiller, A., & Boote, C. (2006). An effective method for building meaning vocabulary in primary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98(1), 44-62.
- Bischoff, A. (2000). The elements of effective online teaching: Overcoming the barriers to success. In K. White & B. H. Weight (Eds.), The online teaching guide: A handbook of attitudes, strategies, and techniques for the virtual classroom (pp. 57-72). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Blachowicz, C. L., & Fisher, P. (2000). Vocabulary instruction. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.) Handbook of reading research, Vol. 2 (789-814). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998a). Inside the black box: Raising standards through classroom assessment. *Phi Delta Kappan, 80*(2), 139-148.
- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998b). Assessment and classroom learning. Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy, and Practice, 5(1), 7-73.
- Bohn, C. M., Roehrig, A. D., & Pressley, M. (2004). The first days of school in the classrooms of two more effective and four less effective primary-grades teachers. *Elementary School Journal*, 104, 269-287.
- Bowers, P. N., & Kirby, J. R. (2010). Effects of morphological instruction on vocabulary acquisition. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*. 23(5), 515-537.
- Britt, M., & Aglinskas, C. (2002). Improving students' ability to identify and use source information. *Cognition and Instruction*, 20(4), 485-522.
- Burns, M.K., Appleton, J.J., & Stehouwer, J.D. (2005). Metaanalytic review of responsiveness-to-intervention research: Examining field-based and research-implemented models. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 23, 381-394.
- Caine, R. N., & Caine, G. (1997a). Education on the edge of possibility. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Caine, R. N., & Caine, G. (1997b). *Unleashing the power of perceptual change: The potential of brain-based teaching*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Calkins, L.M. (1994). The art of teaching writing (2nd ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Cantrell, S. C., Almasi, J. F., Carter, J. C., Rintamaa, M., & Madden, A. (2010). The impact of a strategy-based intervention on the comprehension and strategy use of struggling adolescent readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(2), 257–280.
- Carlisle, J. F. (2010). Effects of instruction in morphological awareness on literacy achievement: An integrative review. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 45(4), 464–487.
- Carlo, M. S., August, D., McLaughlin, B., Snow, C. E., Dressler, C., Lippman, D., et al. (2004). Closing the gap: Addressing the vocabulary needs for English language learners in bilingual and mainstream classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 39, 188-215
- Castellani, J., & Jeffs, T. (2001). Emerging reading and writing strategies using technology. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 33(5), 60-67.



- Center for the Improvement of Early Reading (CIERA). (2003). Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read. Ann Arbor, MI. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.nationalreadingpanel.org/publications/researchread.htm
- Chall, J. (1967). Learning to read: The great debate; an inquiry into the science, art, and ideology of old and new methods of teaching children to read, 1910-1965. Columbus, OH: McGraw-Hill.
- Chapman, M. (2006). Preschool through elementary writing. In P. Smagorinsky (Ed.), Research on composition: Multiple perspectives on two decades of change (pp. 15-47). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Chard, D. J., Pikulski, J. J., & McDonagh, S. H. (2006). Fluency: The link between decoding and comprehension for struggling readers. In T. Rasinski, C. Blachowicz, & K. Lems (Eds.), Fluency instruction: Research-based best practices (39-61). New York: Guilford Press.
- Cheng, A. (2007). Simulation-based L2 writing instruction: Enhancement through genre analysis. Simulation and Gaming, 38(1), 67-82.
- Chiappe, P., & Siegel, L. S. (2006). A longitudinal study of reading development of Canadian children from diverse linguistic backgrounds. *The Elementary School Journal*, 107(2), 135-152).
- Chiesi, H.L., Spilich, G.J., & Voss, J.F. (1979). Acquisition of domain-related information in relation to high and low domain knowledge. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 18, 257-274.
- 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.
- Clark, K. F., & Graves, M. F. (2008) Open and directed text mediation in literature instruction: Effects on comprehension and attitudes. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 31(1), 9-29.
- Clay, M. M. (1991). Becoming literate: The construction of inner control. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Coleman, D., & Pimentel, S. (2011). Publishers' criteria for the Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts and Literacy, grades 3-12. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers. Retrieved June 20, 2012 from http://www.corestandards.org/assets/Publishers Criteria for 3-12.pdf
- Collins, J. L. (1998). Strategies for struggling writers. New York: Guilford.
- Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI). (2010a). *Common core standards for English language arts and literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects*. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.corestandards.org/
- Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI). (2010b). *Mission Statement*. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.corestandards.org/
- Connor-Greene, P. A. (2000). Making connections: Evaluating the effectiveness of journal writing in enhancing student learning. *Teaching of Psychology*, 27, 44-46.
- Connor-Greene, P.A., & Murdoch, J.W. (2000). Does writing matter? Assessing the impact of daily essay quizzes in enhancing student learning. *Language and Learning Across the Disciplines*, 4(1), 16-21.
- Corden, R. (2007). Developing reading-writing connections: The impact of explicit instruction of literary devices on the quality of children's narrative writing. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 21(3), 269-289.
- Cotton, K. (2000). *The schooling practices that matter most*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Cotton, K. (1995). Effective schooling practices: A research synthesis 1995 update. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Retrieved March 10, 2012 from http://home.comcast.net/~reasoned/4410/PDFonCRM/Effective%20 School%20Prac.pdf

- Coyne, M.D., & Harn, B.A. (2006). Promoting beginning reading success through meaningful assessment of early literacy skills. *Psychology in the Schools, 43*(1), 33-43.
- Coyne, M.D., Simmons, D.C., Kame'enui, E.J., & Stoolmiller, M. (2004). Teaching vocabulary during shared storybook readings: An examination of differential effects. *Exceptionality*, 12(3), 145–162.
- Craig, S. D., Sullins, J., Witherspoon, A., & Gholson, B. (2006). The deep-level reasoning effect: The role of dialogue and deep-level reasoning questions during vicarious learning. *Cognition and Instruction*, *24*, 565-591.
- Cunningham, A.E. (1989). Phonemic awareness: The development of early reading competency. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24, 471-472.
- Cunningham, P.M., & Allington, R.L. (2007). Classrooms that work: They can all read and write (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Daane, M.C., Campbell, J.R., Grigg, W.S., Goodman, M.J., & Oranje, A. (2005). Fourth-grade students reading aloud: NAEP 2002 special study of oral reading. National Center for Education Statistics: NCES 2006469. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2006469
- De Graaff, S., Bosman, A.M.T., Hasselman, F., & Verhoeven, L. (2009). Benefits of systematic phonics instruction. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 13(4), 318-333.
- DeLuca, E. (2010). Unlocking academic vocabulary. Science Teacher, 77(3), 27-32.
- Demirsky Allan, S., & Goddard, Y.L. (2010). Differentiated instruction and Rtl: A natural fit. Interventions that Work, 68(2).
- Dickson, S., Simmons, D., & Kameenui, E. (1996). Text organization and its relation to reading comprehension: A synthesis of the research. Oregon: University of Oregon.
- Dixon-Krauss, L. (2001/2002). Using literature as a context for teaching vocabulary. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 45(4), 310-318.
- Dolch, E.W. (1948). Problems in reading. Champaign, IL: Garrard Press.
- Dole, J. A., Duffy, G. G., Roehler, L. R., & Pearson, P. D. (1991). Moving from the old to the new: Research on reading comprehension instruction. *Review of Educational Research*, 61, 239-264.
- Dole, J. A., & Smith, E. L. (1989). Prior knowledge and learning from science text: An instructional study. In S. McCormick & J. Zutell (Eds.), Cognitive and social perspectives for literacy research and instruction. (Thirty-eighth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference, 345-352). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.
- Dolezal, S.E., Welsh, L.M., Pressley, M., & Vincent, M.M. (2003). How nine third-grade teachers motivate student academic engagement. *Elementary School Journal*, 103, 239-267.
- Downing, S.O. (1995). Teaching writing for today's demands. Language Arts, 72, 200-205.
- Durkin, D. (2003). Teaching them to read (6th ed.). Needham, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Duffy, G. G. (2009). Explaining reading: A resource for teaching concepts, skills, and strategies (2nd ed.). New York: Guilford.
- Early, M. & Marshall, S. (2008). Adolescent ESL students' interpretation and appreciation of literary texts: A case study of multimodality. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 64(3), 377-397.
- Eastburn, C. (2008). Teaching the write way. THE Journal, 35(7), 16-16.
- Eccles, J.S., Wigfield, A., & Schiefele, U. (1998). Motivation to succeed. In N. Eisenberg (Ed.), Handbook of child psychology: Volume 3 Social, emotional, and personality development (5th ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Echevarria, J., Short, D., & Powers, K. (2003). School reform and standards-based education: How do teachers help English language learners? Technical Report Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence.



- Echevarria, J., Vogt, M.E., & Short, D. (2008). Making content comprehensible for English learners: The SIOP Model. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Echevarria, J., Vogt, M.E., & Short, D. (2010a). Making content comprehensible for elementary English learners: The SIOP® Model. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Echevarria, J., Vogt, M.E., & Short, D. (2010b). Making content comprehensible for secondary English learners: The SIOP® Model. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Edwards Santoro, L. Chard, D.J., Howard, L, & Baker, S.K. (2008). Making the most of classroom read-alouds to promote comprehension and vocabulary. *The Reading Teacher*, 61, 396-408.
- Fearn, L., & Farnan, N. (2005, April). An investigation of the influence of teaching grammar in writing to accomplish an influence on writing. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.
- Fielding, L. G., & Pearson, P. D. (1994). Reading comprehension: What works. Educational Leadership, 51(5), 62-69.
- Fisher, P.J., Blachowicz, C.L.Z., & Watts-Taffe, S. (2011). Vocabulary instruction: Three contemporary issues. In D. Lapp & D. Fisher (Eds.), Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts (3rd ed.) (pp. 252-257). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Fisher, D., Frey, N., & Lapp, D. (2008). Shared readings: Modeling comprehension, vocabulary, text structures, and text features for older readers. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(7), 548–556.
- Flannery, K. B., & O'Neill, R. E. (1995). Including predictability in functional assessment and individual program development. Education & Treatment of Gifted Children, 18(4), 499-500.
- Foorman, B.R., Francis, D.J., Novy, D.M., & Liberman, D. (1991). How letter-sound instruction mediates the progress in first-grade reading and spelling. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83, 456-469.
- Fountas, I.C. (2010). *Guided reading with Irene Fountas*. HMHEducation.com. Retrieved June 10, 2012 from http://www.hmheducation.com/journeys/guided-reading.php
- Fountas, I.C., & Pinnell, G.S. (1996). Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Fountas, I.C., & Pinnell, G.S. (2001). Guiding readers and writers: Teaching comprehension, genre, and content literacy. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Fountas, I.C., & Pinnell, G.S. (2006). Teaching for comprehending and fluency: thinking, talking, and writing about reading.

 Portsmouth. NH: Heinemann.
- 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.
- Fretz, E. B., Wu, H. K., Zhang, B., Davis, E. A., Krajcik, J. S., & Soloway, E. (2002). An investigation of software scaffolds supporting modeling practices. *Research in Science Education*, 32, 567-589.
- Fry, E. (2004). 1000 instant words: The most common words for teaching reading, writing and spelling. Westminster, CA: Teacher Created Resources, Inc.
- Fuchs, L.S. (2004). The past, present, and future of curriculum-based measurement research. School Psychology Review, 33, 188-192.
- Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L.S. (2006). Introduction to Response to Intervention: What, why, and how valid is it? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 41(1), 93-99.

- Fuchs, D, Fuchs, L.S., & Compton, D.L. (2004). Identifying reading disability by responsiveness-to-instruction: Specifying measures and criteria. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 27, 216-217.
- Genesee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K., Saunders, W., & Christian, D. (2006). Educating English language learners: A synthesis of research evidence. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Gersten, R., Baker, S., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades: A practice guide. (NCEE 2007-4011). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U. S. Department of Education. Retrieved January 31, 2011 from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practiceguides/20074011.pdf.
- Goodson, B., Wolf, A., Bell, S., Turner, H., & Finney, P.B. (2010). The effectiveness of a program to accelerate vocabulary development in kindergarten (VOCAB). (NCEE 2010-4014). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.
- Goodwin, A. P., & Ahn, S. (2010). A meta-analysis of morphological interventions: effects on literacy achievement of children with literacy difficulty. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 60(2), 183-208.
- Graesser, A. C., & Person, N. K. (1994). Question asking during tutoring. American Educational Research Journal, 31, 104-137.
- 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.
- Graham, S., MacArthur, C., & Schwartz, S. (1995). The effects of goal setting and procedural facilitation on the revising behavior and writing performance of students with writing and learning problems. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87, 230-240.
- Graves, D.H. (1983). Writing: Teachers and children at work. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann
- Graves, D.H. (1991). Build a literate classroom. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Graves, D.H. (1994). A fresh look at writing. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Graves, M. F. (2006). The vocabulary book: Learning and instruction. New York: Teachers College Press
- Graves, M. F., & Avery, P. G. (1997). Scaffolding students' reading of history. Social Studies, 88(3), 134-139.
- Graves, M.F., Cooke, C.L., & LaBerge, M.J. (1983). Effects of previewing difficult short stories on low ability junior high school students' comprehension, recall, and attitudes. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 18(3), 263-276.
- Greene, A.H., & Melton, G.D. (2007). Test talk: Integrating test preparation into Reading Workshop. Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers.
- Griffiths, A., VanDerHeyden, A.M., Parson, L.B., & Burns, M.K. (2006). Practical applications of Response-to-Intervention research. *Assessment for Effective Intervention*, 32(1), 50-57.
- Griswold, P. C., Gelzheiser, L. M., & Shepherd, M. J. (1987). Does a production deficiency hypothesis account for vocabulary learning among adolescents with learning disabilities? *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 20(10), 620-626.
- Grunwald and Associates. (2010). Educators, technology and 21st century skills: Dispelling five myths. Retrieved June 10, 2012 from Walden University, Richard W. Riley College of Education website:

 http://www.waldenu.edu/Degree-Programs/Masters/36427.htm
- Guthrie, J. T., Hoa, A. L. W., Wigfield, A., Tonks, S. M., Humenick, N. M., & Littles, E. (2007). Reading motivation and reading comprehension growth in the later elementary years. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 32(3), 383-313.
- Guthrie, J. T., Hoa, L. W., Wigfield, A., Tonks, S. M., & Perencevich, K. C. (2006). From spark to fire: Can situational reading interest lead to long-term reading motivation? *Reading Research and Instruction*, 45, 91-117.
- Guthrie, J. T., & Humenick, N. M. (2004). Motivating students to read: Evidence for classroom practices that increase reading motivation and achievement. In P. McCardle, & V. Chhabra (Eds.), *The voice of evidence in reading research*, (329-354). Baltimore, MD: Paul H Brookes Publishing.



- Guthrie, J.T., & McCann, A.D. (1997). Characteristics of classrooms that promote motivations and strategies for learning. In J.T.

 Guthrie & A. Wigfield (Eds.), Reading engagement: Motivating readers through integrated instruction (pp. 128-148). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Guthrie, J. T., & Wigfield, A. (2000). Engagement and motivation in reading. In M.L. Kamil, P.B. Mosenthal, P.D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), Handbook of reading research (Vol. 3, 403-422). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hall, T., Strangman, N., & Meyer, A. (2009). Differentiated instruction and implications for UDL implementation. Wakefield, MA:
 National Center on Accessible Instructional Materials. Retrieved May 8, 2012 from
 http://aim.cast.org/learn/historyarchive/backgroundpapers/differentiated instruction udl
- Harris, K. R., Graham, S., & Mason, L. (2006). Improving the writing, knowledge, and motivation of struggling young writers: Effects of self-regulated strategy development with and without peer support. *American Educational Research Journal*, 43, 295–340.
- Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (1995). Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of American children. Baltimore: Paul C. Brookes.
- Haywood, H. C. (2004). Thinking in, around, and about the curriculum: The role of cognitive education. *International Journal of Disability, Development, and Education, 51*(3), 231-252.
- Hegelheimer, V., & Fisher, D. (2006). Grammar, writing, and technology: A sample technology-supported approach to teaching grammar and improving writing for ESL learners. *CALICO Journal*, 23(2), 257-279.
- Heritage, M. (2007). Formative assessment: What do teachers need to know and do? Phi Delta Kappan, 89(2), 140-145.
- 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.
- Hiebert, E. H. (2005). In pursuit of an effective, efficient vocabulary curriculum for elementary students. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice* (pp. 243-263). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (1993). Environments for active learning. In L. Odell (Ed.), *Theory and practice in the teaching of writing* (244-270). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (1987). Synthesis of research in teaching writing. Educational Leadership, 12, 71-82.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (1986). Research on written composition: New directions for teaching, Urbana, IL. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (1982). The interaction of instruction, teacher comment, and revision in teaching the composing process. Research in the Teaching of English, 16(3), 261-278.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (1979). The effects of observational activities on student writing. Research in the Teaching of English, 13(1), 23-35.
- Holdaway, D. (1984). Stability and change in literacy learning. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Hollingsworth, M., & Woodward, J. (1993). Integrated learning: explicit strategies and their role in problem-solving instruction for students with learning disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 59(5), 444-455.
- Hornof, M. (2008). Reading tests as genre study. Reading Teacher, 62(1), 69-73.
- Huebner, T.A. (2009). Supporting English language learners. Educational Leadership, 66 (7), 90-91.
- International Reading Association (IRA). (2010). Response to Intervention: Guiding principles for educators from the International Reading Association. Newark, DE: Author. Retrieved June 11, 2012 from http://www.reading.org/Libraries/Resources/RTI_brochure_web.sflb.ashx
- Jacobson, J. Lapp, D, and Flood, J. (2007). A seven step instructional plan for teaching English-language learners to comprehend and use homonyms, homophones, and homographs. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 51, 98-111.

- Jenkins, J., Stein, M., & Wysocki, K. (1984). Learning vocabulary through reading. *American Educational Research Journal*, 21, 767-788.
- Jerald, C. D. (2001). Dispelling the myth revisited. Washington DC: Education Trust.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1990). Cooperative learning and achievement. In S. Shlomo (Ed.), *Cooperative learning: Theory and research* (pp. 23-27). New York: Praeger.
- Johnson, C.I., & Mayer, R.E. (2009). A testing effect with multimedia learning. Journal of Educational Psychology, 101(3), 621-629.
- Juel, C., & Minden-Cupp, C. (2000). Learning to read words: Linguistic units and instructional strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 35(4), 458-492.
- Kapusnick, R. A., & Hauslein, C. M. (2001). The "silver cup" of differentiated instruction. Kappa Delta Pi Record, 37(4), 156-159.
- Kauchak, D. P., & Eggen, P. D. (2006). Learning and teaching: Research-based methods (5th edition). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Keehn, S. (2003). The effect of instruction and practice through Readers Theatre on young readers' oral reading fluency. Reading Research and Instruction, 42(4), 40-61.
- Kendeou, P., van den Broek, P., White, M. J., & Lynch, J. S. (2009). Predicting reading comprehension in early elementary school: The independent contributions of oral language and decoding skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(4), 765–778.
- Kern, L., & Clemens, N. H. (2007). Antecedent strategies to promote appropriate classroom behavior. *Psychology in the Schools*, 44(1), 65-75.
- Ketterlin-Geller, L.R., & Yovanoff, P. (2009). Diagnostic assessments in mathematics to support instructional decision making. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 14*(16), 1-11. Retrieved May 6, 2012 from http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=14&n=16.
- 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.
- Kim, J. S., & White, T. G. (2008). Scaffolding voluntary summer reading for children in grades 3 to 5: An experimental study. Scientific Studies of Reading, 12(1), 1-23.
- 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.
- King, A. (1994). Guiding knowledge construction in the classroom: Effects of teaching children how to question and how to explain. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31, 338-368.
- Kiuhara, S. A., Graham, S., & Hawken, L. S. (2009). Teaching writing to high school students: A national survey. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101, 136–160.
- Klauda, S. L., & Guthrie, J. T. (2008). Relationships of three components of reading fluency to reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100, 310-321.
- Klesius, J., & Searls, E. (1991). Vocabulary instruction. The Journal of Educational Research, 84, 177-182.
- Klingner, J., & Vaughn, S. (2004). Strategies for struggling second-language readers. In Jetton, T., & Dole, J. (Eds.), Adolescent literacy research and practice (183-209). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Kolich, E. M. (1988). Vocabulary learning what works? Perspectives from the research literature. *Reading Improvement*, 25, 117-124.
- Krebs, A. (2005). Analyzing student work as a professional development activity. School Science and Mathematics, 105(8), 402-411.
- Ku, K. Y., & Ho, I. T. (2010). Metacognitive strategies that enhance critical thinking. Metacognition and Learning, 5(3), 251-267.
- Kuriloff, P.C. (2004). Rescuing writing instruction: How to save time and money with technology. Liberal Education, 90(4), 36-41.



- Lane, H.B., & Wright, T.L. (2007). Maximizing the effectiveness of reading aloud. The Reading Teacher, 60, 668-675.
- Langer, J.A. (1986a). Children reading and writing: Structures and strategies. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Langer, J.A. (1986b). Learning through writing: Study skills in the content areas. Journal of Reading, 29, 400-406.
- Langer, J.A. & Applebee, A.N. (1987). How writing shapes thinking: A study of teaching and learning. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Lenski, S.D., & Johns, J. (2000). Improving writing: Resources, strategies, and assessments. Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.
- Levie, H. W., & Lentz, R. (1982). Effects of text illustrations: A review of research. Educational Communication and Technology Journal, 30(4), 195-232.
- Levin, J. R., Anglin, G. J., & Carney, R. N. (1987). On empirically validating functions of pictures in prose. In D.M. Willows & H.A. Houghton (Eds.), *The psychology of illustration. Vol. 1.* (51-86). New York: Springer.
- Linan-Thompson, S., Cirino, P.T., & Vaughn, S. (2007). Determining English language learners' response to intervention: Questions and some answers. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 30(3), 185-195.
- Lipsey, M. W., & Wilson, D. B. (1993). The efficacy of psychological, educational, and behavioral treatment. *American Psychologist*, 48(12), 1181-1209.
- Lipson, M. (2011). Why and how we read. In J.F. Baumann, D.J. Chard, J. Cooks, J.D. Cooper, R. Gersten, M. Lipson, L.M. Morrow, J.J. Pikulski, H.H. Rivera, M. Rivera, S. Templeton, S.W. Valencia, C. Valentino, M.E. Vogt, & I. Fountas, *Journeys*. Orlando, FL: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt School Publishers.
- Lutz, S. L., Guthrie, J. T., & Davis, M. H. (2006). Scaffolding for engagement in learning:

 An observational study of elementary school reading instruction. *Journal of Educational Research*, 100, 3 20.
- Lyon, G.R. & Moats, L.C. (1997). Critical conceptual and methodological considerations in reading intervention research. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 30, 578-588.
- Mace, A. B., Shapiro, E. S., & Mace, F. C. (1998). Effects of warning stimuli for reinforced withdrawal and task onset on self-injury. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 31, 679-682.
- MacArthur, C.A. (2007). Best practices in teaching evaluation and revision. In S. Graham, C.A. MacArthur, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), Best practices in writing instruction (pp. 141-162). New York: The Guilford Press.
- MacArthur, C.A. (2009). Reflections on research on writing and technology for struggling writers. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, 24(2), 93-103.
- Marzano, R. J. (2003). What works in schools: Translating research into action. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Marzano, R.J., Pickering, D.J., & Pollock, J.E. (2001). Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Mathes, P.G., Pollard-Durodola, S.D., Cárdenas-Haga, E., Linan-Thompson, S., & Vaughn, S. (2007). Teaching struggling readers who are native Spanish speakers: What do we know? *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 38, 260-271.
- Mayer, R. E. (2001). Multimedia learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, R. E. (2005). Principles for managing essential processing in multimedia learning. In R.E. Mayer (Ed.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Multimedia Learning* (pp. 169-182). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, R. E., & Gallini, J. K. (1990). When is an illustration worth ten thousand words? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(4), 715-726.

- Mayes, R., Chase, P.N., & Walker, V.L. (2008). Supplemental practice and diagnostic assessment in an Applied College Algebra Course. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 38(2), 7-31.
- McBride-Chang, C., Wagner, R. K., Muse, A., Chow, B. W.-Y., & Shu, H. (2005). The role of morphological awareness in children's vocabulary acquisition in English. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 26, 415-435.
- McCabe, P.R. (2003). Enhancing self-efficacy for high-stakes reading tests. The Reading Teacher, 57(1), 12-20.
- McCutchen, D. (1986). Domain knowledge and linguistic knowledge in the development of writing ability. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 25, 431-444.
- McGinnis, T.A. (2007). Khmer rap boys, X-men, Asia's fruits, and Dragonball Z: Creating multilingual and multimodal classroom contexts. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 50(7), 570-579.
- McKeown, M.G., & Beck, I.L. (2006). Encouraging young children's language interactions with stories. In D.K. Dickinson & S.B. Neuman (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research* (Vol. 2, pp. 281–294). New York: Guilford.
- McKeown, M. G., & Beck, I. L. (1988). Learning vocabulary: Different ways for different goals. *Remedial and Special Education* (RASE), 9 (1), 42–46.
- McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., & Blake, R. G. K. (2009). Rethinking comprehension instruction: Comparing strategies and content instructional approaches. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 44 (3), 218-253.
- McNamara, D. R., & Waugh, D. G. (1993). Classroom organisation: A discussion of grouping strategies in the light of the 'Three Wise Men's' report. School Organization, 13(1), 41-50.
- Means, B., Toyama, Y., Murphy, R., Bakia, M., & Jones, K. (2009). Evaluation of evidence-based practices in online learning: A meta-analysis and review of online learning studies. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, Policy and Program Studies Service. Retrieved February 28, 2012 from http://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/eval/tech/evidence-based-practices/finalreport.pdf.
- Mellard, D.F., & Johnson, E.S. (2008). RTI: A practitioner's guide to implementing response to intervention. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press
- Metcalfe, J., & Kornell, N. (2005). A region or proximal of learning model of study time allocation. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 52, 463-477.
- Moats, L. C. (2001) When older students can't read. Educational Leadership, 58(6), 36-40.
- Moffett, J. (1965). I, you, and it. College Composition and Communication, 16(5), 243-248.
- Moffett, J. (1981). Active voice: A writing program across the curriculum. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc.
- Moffett, J. (1983). Teaching the universe of discourse. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc.
- Moffett, J. (1992). Active voice. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishing.
- Moffett, J., & Wagner, B.J. (1992). Student-centered language arts, K-12. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishing.
- Morris, D., Blanton, L., Blanton, W. E., Nowacek, J., & Perney, J. (1995). Teaching low-achieving spellers at their "instructional level." *Elementary School Journal*, 96(2), 163-177.
- Nagy, W. (2007). Metalinguistic awareness and the vocabulary-comprehension connection. In Wagner, R. K., Muse, A. E., and Tannenbaum, K. R. (Eds.). Vocabulary acquisition: Implications for reading comprehension (pp. 52-77). New York: Guilford.
- Nagy, W. (1988). Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Nagy, W., & Anderson, R. C. (1984). How many words are there in printed school English? Reading Research Quarterly, 19, 304-330.



- National Assessment Governing Board. (2010). Writing framework for the 2011 National Assessment of Educational Progress.

 Washington, D.C.; National Assessment Governing Board. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from <a href="http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?nfpb=true&&ERICExtSearch SearchValue 0=ED512552&ERICExtSearch SearchValue 0=ED512552&ERICExtSearch SearchValue 0=ED512552&ERICExtSearch SearchValue 0=ED512552&ERICExtSearch SearchValue 0=ED512552&ERICExtSearch SearchValue 0=ED512552&ERICExtSearch SearchValue 0=ED512552
- National Commission on Writing. (2003). *The neglected R: The need for a writing revolution*. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/writingcom/neglectedr.pdf
- National Commission on Writing. (2004). Writing: A ticket to work...or a ticket out: A survey of business leaders. Retrieved June 23, 2012, from http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/writingcom/writing-ticket-to-work.pdf
- National Commission on Writing. (2005). Writing: A powerful message from state government. Retrieved June 23, 2012, from http://www.collegeboard.com/prod-downloads/writingcom/powerful-message-from-state.pdf
- National Institute for Literacy. (2007). What content-area teachers should know about adolescent literacy. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from http://lincs.ed.gov/publications/pdf/adolescent_literacy07.pdf
- National Reading Panel. (2000). Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.
- National Research Council. (2007). Part IV: Future Directions for Policy, Practice, and Research: 11 Conclusions and Recommendations. *Taking Science to School: Learning and Teaching Science in Grades K-8*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
- Nelson, J. M., & Manset-Williamson, G. (2006). The impact of explicit, self-regulatory reading comprehension strategy instruction on the reading-specific self-efficacy, attributions, and affect of students with reading disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 29(3), 213-230.
- Nokes, J., & Dole, J. (2004). Helping adolescents read through explicit strategy instruction. In T. Jetton & J. Dole (Eds.), *Adolescent literacy research and practice* (162-182). New York: The Guilford Press.
- North Central Regional Educational Laboratory. (2003). A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of teaching and learning with technology on student outcomes. Naperville, IL: North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.
- Nunes, T., & Bryant, P. (2006). Improving literacy by teaching morphemes. London: Routledge.
- O'Connor, R.E., Swanson, H.L., & Geraghty, C. (2010). Improvement in reading rate under independent and difficult text levels: Influences on word and comprehension skills. *Journals in Educational Psychology*, 102, 1-19.
- Oberjuerge, M. (1999). Raising the bar: Historically disadvantaged students can meet the AP challenge. *The History Teacher, Special Issue: Advanced Placement*, 32(2), 263-267.
- Ogle, D., & Blachowicz, C. (2002). Beyond literature circles: Helping students comprehend informational texts. In C. Block & M. Pressley (Eds.), Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices (259-272). New York: Guilford Press.
- Paivio, A. (1986). Mental representations: A dual coding approach. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Paivio, A. (1983). Empirical case for dual coding. In J. Yuille (Ed.), *Imagery, memory, and cognition: Essays in honor of Allan Paivio* (307-332). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Paivio, A. (1979). Imagery and verbal processes. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Partnership for 21st Century Skills. (2009). Framework for 21st century learning. Tucson, AZ: Author. Retrieved June 10, 2012 from http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/P21 Framework.pdf
- Pearson, P. D., & Dole, J. A. (1987). Explicit comprehension instruction: A review of research and a new conceptualization of instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 88(2), 151-165.
- Pearson, P. D., & Fielding, L.G. (1991). Comprehension instruction. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.) Handbook of Reading Research: Vol. II. New York: Longman.

- Pearson, P.D., & Tierney, R.J. (1984). On becoming a thoughtful reader: Learning to read like a writer. In A.C. Purves & O. Niles (Eds.), Becoming readers in a complex society, Eighty-Third Yearbook of the National Society of the Study of Education (pp. 144-173). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Pennington Whitaker, C., Gambrell, L.B., & Morrow, L.M. (2004). Reading comprehension instruction for all students. In E.R. Silliman & L.C. Wilkinson (Eds.), *Language and literacy learning in schools* (pp. 130-150). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Perez, E. (1981). Oral language competence improve reading skills of Mexican American third graders. Reading Teacher, 35, 24-27.
- Perkins, D.N. (1992). Smart schools: From training memories to educating minds. New York: The Free Press.
- Phillips, B.M., Clancy-Menchetti, J., & Lonigan, C.J. (2008). Successful phonological awareness instruction with preschool children: Lessons from the classroom. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, 28, 3-17.
- Pikulski, J.J. (2012). How do children learn to decode print? In Baumann, J.F., Chard, D.J., Cooks, J., Cooper, J.D., Gersten, R., Lipson, M., Morrow, L.M., Pikulski, J.J., Rivera, H.H., Rivera, M., Templeton, S., Valencia, S.W., Valentino, C., & Vogt, M, *Journeys*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
- Pikulski, J. J. (1994). Preventing reading failure: A review of five effective programs. The Reading Teacher, 48(1), pp. 30-39.
- Pikulski, J.J., & Chard, D.J. (2005, March). Fluency: Bridge between decoding and reading comprehension. *The Reading Teacher*, 58(6), 510–519.
- 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.
- Prain, V. (2006). Learning from writing in secondary science: Some theoretical and practical implications. *International Journal of Science Education*, 28(2-3), 179-201.
- Pressley, M. (2000). What should comprehension instruction be the instruction of? In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 3). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Pressley, M., Gaskins. I. W., & Fingeret, L. (2006). Instruction and development of reading fluency in struggling readers. In S. J. Samuels & A. E. Farstrup (Eds.), What research has to say about fluency instruction (47-69). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Pressley, M., Mohan, L., Fingeret, L., Reffitt, K., & Raphael-Bogaert, L. (2007) Writing instruction in engaging and effective elementary settings. In S. Graham, C.A. MacArthur, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), Best practices in writing instruction (pp. 13-27). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Pressley, M., Wood, E., Woloshyn, V.E., Martin, V., King, A., & Menke, D. (1992). Encouraging mindful use of prior knowledge: Attempting to construct explanatory answers facilitates learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 27(1), 91-109.
- Pressley, M., Yokoi, L., Rankin, J., Wharton-McDonald, R., & Mistretta, J. (1997). A survey of the instructional practices of grade 5 teachers nominated as effective in promoting literacy. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 1(2), 145-160.
- Proctor, C. P., Carlo, M., August, D., & Snow, C. (2005). Native Spanish-speaking children reading English: Toward a model of comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97(2), 246-256.
- Pulido, D. (2007). Topic familiarity and passage sight vocabulary. Applied Linguistics, 28(1), 66-86.
- Purcell-Grates, V., Duke, N., & Martineau, J. (2007). Learning to read and write genre-specific text: Roles of authentic experience and explicit teaching. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 42(1), 8-45.
- Raymond, E. (2000). Cognitive Characteristics. Learners with Mild Disabilities. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Reading, S., & VanDeuren, D. (2007). Phonemic awareness: When and how much to teach. Reading Research and Instruction, 46(3), 267-285.



- Reutzel, D. R. (2003). Organizing effective literacy instruction: grouping strategies and instructional routines. In L. M. Morrow, L. B. Gambrell, & M. Pressley (Eds.), *Best practices in literacy instruction* (2nd edition, 241-267). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Robinson, D., & Kiewra, K. (1995). Visual argument: Graphic organizers are superior to outlines in improving learning from text. Journal of Educational Psychology, 87(3), 455-467.
- Rogers, K.B. (2002). Re-forming gifted education: Matching the program to the child. Scottsdale, AZ: Great Potential Press.
- Rogers, K.B. (2007). Lessons learned about educating the gifted and talented: A synthesis of the research on educational practice. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 51(4), 382-396.
- Rosenshine, B. & Meister, C. (1992). The use of scaffolds for teaching higher-level cognitive strategies. *Educational Leadership*, 49(7), 26-33.
- Rosenshine, B., Meister, C., & Chapman, S. (1996). Teaching students to generate questions: A review of the intervention studies. Review of Educational Research, 66, 181-221.
- Rousseau, M. K., Tam, B. K. Y., & Ramnarain, R. (1993). Increasing reading proficiency of language-minority students with speech and language impairments. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 16, 254-271.
- Saddler, B., & Graham S. (2005). The effects of peer-assisted sentence-combining instruction on the writing performance of more and less skilled young writers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97, 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.
- 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.
- Santman, D. (2002). Teaching to the test?: Test preparation in the Reading Workshop. Language Arts, 79(3), 203-211.
- Scarcella, R. (2007). Accelerating academic English: A focus on the English learner. Oakland, CA: Regents of the University of California.
- Schiefele, U. (1999). Interest and learning from text. Scientific Studies of Reading, 3(3), 257-279.
- Schraw, G., Bruning, R., & Svoboda, C. (1995). Sources of situational interest. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 27, 1–17.
- Schraw, G., & Dennison, R. S. (1994). The effect of reader purpose on interest and recall. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 26(1), 1–18.
- Schuele, M.C., & Boudreau, D. (2008). Phonological awareness intervention: Beyond the basics. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in the Schools*, 39, 3-20.
- Schuele, M.C., Justice, L.M., Cabell, S.Q., Knighton, K., Kingery, B., & Lee, M.W. (2008). Field-based evaluation of two-tiered instruction for enhancing kindergarten phonological awareness. *Early Education and Development*, 19, 726-752.
- 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.
- Sedita, J. (2005). Effective vocabulary instruction, Insights on Learning Disabilities, 2 (1), 33-45.
- Shanahan, T. (1990). Reading and writing together: What does it really mean? In T. Shanahan (Ed.), Reading and writing together (pp. 1-18). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.
- Shanahan, T. (2004). Overcoming the dominance of communication: Writing to think and to learn. In T. L. Jetton & J. A. Dole (Eds.). *Adolescent literacy research and practice* (pp. 59–73). New York: Guilford.
- Shanahan, T. (2006a). Developing fluency in the context of effective literacy instruction. In T. Rasinski, C. Blachowicz, & K. Lems (Eds.), Fluency instruction: Research-based best practices (21-38). New York: Guilford Press.

- Shanahan, T. (2006b). 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.
- Short, D., & Fitzsimmons, S. (2007). Double the work: Challenges and solutions to acquiring language and academic literacy for adolescent English language learners A report to Carnegie Corporation of New York. Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education. Retrieved June 10, 2012 from http://www.all4ed.org/files/DoubleWork.pdf
- Silver, N.W., & Repa, J.T. (1993). The effect of word processing on the quality of writing and self-esteem of secondary school English-as-second-language students: Writing without censure. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 9(2), 265-283.
- Simons, K. D., & Klein, J. D. (2007). The impact of scaffolding and student achievement levels in a problem-based learning environment. *Instructional Science*, 35(1), 41-72.
- Slavin, R. E. (1987). Cooperative learning: student teams. Washington, DC: National Educational Association.
- Slavin, R. E. (1991). Are cooperative learning and untracking harmful to the gifted? Educational Leadership, 48(6), 68-71.
- Slavin, R. E. (1995). Cooperative learning: Theory, research, and practice (2nd Ed). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Slavin, R. E. (2002). Cooperative learning in elementary and secondary schools. In D. L. Levinson (Ed.) & P. W. Cookson & A. R. Sadovnik (Co-Eds.), Education and sociology: An encyclopedia (pp. 115-121). New York: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Smith, E.S., & Johnson, L.A. (2011). Response to intervention in middle school: A case story. Middle School Journal, 42(3), 24-32.
- Snow, C. (2002). Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.
- Snow, C.E., Burns, M.S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.). (1998). Preventing reading difficulties in young children. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Snow, C., & Sweet, A. (2003) Reading for comprehension. In A. Sweet & C. Snow (Eds.), Rethinking reading comprehension. New York: Guilford.
- Spandel, V. (2001). Creating writers through 6-trait writing assessment and instruction. (3rd ed.). Boston: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Sperling, M., & Freedman, S.W. (2001). Research on writing. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching*, 4th edition. (pp. 370-389). American Educational Research Association.
- Spires, H., & Donley, J. (1998). Prior knowledge activation: Inducing engagement with informational texts. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90, 249-260.
- Stahl, S. A. (1986). Three principles of effective vocabulary instruction. Journal of Reading, 29(7), 662-668.
- Stahl, S. A., & Fairbanks, M. M. (1986). The effects of vocabulary instruction: A model-based meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 56, 72-110.
- Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. (2006). Teaching word meanings. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Stecker, P.M., Fuchs, L.S., & Fuchs, D. (2005). Using curriculum-based measurement to improve student achievement: Review of research. *Psychology in the Schools*, 42, 795-820.
- 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.
- Stevens, R. J., Van Meter, P., & Warcholak, N.D. (2010). The effects of explicitly teaching story structure to primary grade children. Journal of Literacy Research, 42(2), 159–198.
- Stipek, D. (2002). Good instruction is motivating. In A. Wigfield & J.S. Eccles (Eds.), Development of achievement motivation (pp. 309-332). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Stone, C. A. (1998). The metaphor of scaffolding: Its utility for the field of learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 31, 344-364.



- Strangman, & Dalton, (2006). Improving struggling readers' comprehension through scaffolded hypertexts and other computer-based literacy program. In M. C. McKenna, L. D. Labbo, R. D. Kieffer, & D. Reinking (Eds.), *International handbook of literacy and technology, Volume II* (75-92). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associations.
- Su, Y. (2007). Students' changing views and the integrated-skills approach in Taiwan's EFL college classes. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 8(1), 27-40.
- Swanson, H. L. (1999). Reading research for students with LD: A meta-analysis of intervention outcomes. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 32, 504-532.
- Swanson, H. L., & Hoskyn, M. (2001). Instructing adolescents with learning disabilities: A component and composite analysis. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 16, 109-119.
- Taylor, B. M., Pearson, P. D., Peterson, D. S., & Rodriguez, M. C. (2003). Reading growth in high-poverty classrooms: The influence of teacher practices that encourage cognitive engagement in literacy learning. *Elementary School Journal*, 104(1), 3-28.
- Teale, W.H. (2009). Students learning English and their literacy instruction in urban schools. The Reading Teacher, 62, 699-703.
- Teh, G. P. L., & Fraser, J. B. (1995). Gender differences in achievement and attitudes among students using computer-assisted instruction. *International Journal of Instructional Media*, 22(2), 111-120.
- Templeton, S. (1989). Tacit and explicit knowledge of derivational morphology: Foundations for a unified approach to spelling and vocabulary development in the intermediate grades and beyond. *Reading Psychology*, 10, 233-253.
- Templeton, S. (2004). The vocabulary-spelling connection: Orthographic development and morphological knowledge at the intermediate grades and beyond. In J. F. Baumann & E. J. Kame'enui (Eds.), Vocabulary instruction: Research to Practice (pp. 118-138). New York: Guilford Press.
- Templeton, S. (2009). Spelling-meaning relationships among languages: Exploring cognates and their possibilities. In L. Helman (Ed.), Literacy development with English learners: Research-based instruction in Grades K-6 (pp. 196-212). New York: Guilford Press
- Templeton, S. (2012). The vocabulary-spelling connection and generative instruction: Orthographic development and morphological knowledge at the intermediate grades and beyond. In J. F. Baumann & E. J. Kame'enui (Eds.), *Vocabulary instruction: Research to Practice* (2nd ed.) New York: Guilford Press.
- Templeton, S., & Bear, D.R. (2011). Phonemic awareness, word recognition, and spelling. In T. Rasinski (Ed.), *Developing reading instruction that works* (pp. 153-178). Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- Templeton, S., Bear, D., Invernizzi, M., & Johnston, F. (2010). Vocabulary their way. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tierney, R.J., & Shanahan, T. (1991). Research on the reading-writing relationship: Interactions, transactions, and outcomes. In R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P.D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 246-280). New York: Longman.
- Tomlinson, C.A. (1995). How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Tomlinson, C.A. (1997). Meeting the needs of gifted learners in the regular classroom: Vision or delusion? Tempo, 17(1), 1, 10-12.
- Tomlinson, C. A., & Allan, S. D. (2000). Leadership for differentiating schools and classrooms. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Topping, K., & Paul, T. (1999). Computer-assisted assessment of practice at reading: A large scale survey using Accelerated Reader data. *Reading and Writing Quarterly,* 15, 213-231.
- Tustin, R. D. (1995). The effects of advance notice of activity transitions on stereotypic behavior. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 28, 91-92.
- U.S. Department of Education. (2004). Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs. Retrieved June 11, 2012 from http://idea.ed.gov/explore/view/p/,root,dynamic,TopicalBrief,23

- U.S. Department of Education. (2002). *Guidance for the Reading First Program*. Washington, D.C.; U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education. Retrieved June 23, 2012 from www.ed.gov/programs/readingfirst/guidance.doc
- U.S. Department of Education Office of the Secretary. (2001). Back to school, moving forward: What No Child Left Behind means for America's communities. Washington, D.C.: Author.
- Valencia, S. W. (2007). Inquiry-oriented assessment. In Paratore, J. R., & McCormack, R. L. (Eds.), Classroom literacy assessment: Making sense of what students know and do (pp. 3-20). New York: Guilford.
- Valencia, S. W. (2010). Reader profiles and reading disabilities. In Allington, R., & McGill-Franzen, A. (Eds.), *Handbook of reading disability research* (pp. 25-35). New York: Routledge.
- Valencia, S.W., Smith, A.T., Reece, A.M., Li, M., Wixson, K.K., & Newman, H. (2010, July/August/September). Oral reading fluency assessment: Issues of construct, criterion, and consequential validity. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 45(3), 270–291.
- Van Keer, H., & Verhaeghe, J. P. (2005). Effects of explicit reading strategies instruction and peer tutoring on second and fifth graders' reading comprehension and self-efficacy perceptions. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 73(4), 291-329.
- VanLehn, K., Graesser, A.C., Jackson, G.T., Jordan, P., Olney, A., & Rose, C.P. (2007). When are tutorial dialogues more effective than reading? *Cognitive Science*, 31, 3-62.
- VanTassel-Baska, J., & Brown, E.F. (2007). Toward best practice: An analysis of the efficacy of curriculum models in gifted education. Gifted Child Quarterly, 51(4), 342-358.
- Vaughn, S., Gersten, R., & Chard, D. (2000). The underlying message in LD intervention research. Exceptional Children, 67, 99-114.
- Vaughn, S., Mathes, P., Linan-Thompson, S., & Francis, D. (2005). Teaching English language learners at risk for reading disabilities to read: Putting research into practice. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, 20(1), 58-67.
- Vaughn, S., Mathes, P., Linan-Thompson, S., Cirino, P., Carlson, C., Pollard-Durodola, S., Cardenas-Hagan, E., & Francis, D. (2006). Effectiveness of an English intervention for first-grade English language learners at risk for reading problems. *Elementary School Journal*, 107(2), 153-180.
- Vermette, P. (1988). Cooperative Grouping in the Classroom: Turning Students into Active Learners. The Social Studies, 79(6), 271-273.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). Thought and language. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. In M. Cole (Trans.) *Mind in society* (pp. 79-91). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Weaver, C. (1997). Teaching grammar in context. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- White, T. G., Power, M. A., & White, S. (1989). Morphological analysis: Implications for teaching and understanding vocabulary growth. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24(3), 283-304.
- Williams, J. P. (2005). Instruction in reading comprehension for primary-grade students: A focus on text structure. *Journal of Special Education*, 39, 6-18.
- Williams, W. M., Papierno, P. B., Makel, M. C. & Ceci, S. J. (2004). Thinking like a scientist about real-world problems: The Cornell Institute for Research on Children Science Education Program. *Applied Developmental Psychology*, 25, 107-126.
- Wixson, K.K., & Valencia, S.W. (2011). Assessment in Rtl: What teachers and specialists need to know. Reading Teacher, 64(6), 466-469.
- Wolfe, M.B., Schreiner, M.E., Rehder, B., Laham, D., Foltz, P.W., Kintsch, W., & Landauer, T.K. (1998). Learning from text: Matching readers and text by Latent Semantic Analysis. *Discourse Processes*, 25, 309-336.
- Zeno, S., Ivens, S., Millard, R., & Duvvuri, R. (1995). *The educator's word frequency guide*. Brewster, NY: Touchstone Applied Science Associates.
- Zimmerman, C. (1997). Do reading and interactive vocabulary instruction make a difference? TESOL Quarterly, 31, 121-140.



