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Research-Based Curriculum

TIME For Kids

Exploring Reading

Complete Supplemental Program

Based on Respected Research & Literature

Overview of Reading Instruction

Reading Comprehension

The implementation of reading instruction is never one-size-fits-all. It may adhere to a specific teaching philosophy, include a number of elements, or require a certain lesson-plan structure. Students should read daily and be given the tools to access text that pushes their abilities.

Reading comprehension is an understanding of the meaning of the text being read.

"Comprehension is the reason for reading. If readers can read the words but do not understand what they are reading, they are not really reading" (Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborn 2001, 48). Good readers are both purposeful and active. It is a complex process that begins through listening to texts read aloud even before children can decode words on their own. Reading comprehension includes activating prior knowledge, making connections to the text based on experiences, understanding the language used by the author and the text structure, recognizing the author's purpose, identifying the differences between facts and opinions, and drawing conclusions through predictions and inferences (Duke and Pearson 2002; Keene and Zimmerman 1997; Harvey and Goudvis 2007).

> *Exploring Reading* units focus on eight key comprehension strategies. In addition, students are taught to identify five types of text structures: description, cause and effect, problem and solution, sequence, and compare and contrast. Students use a graphic organizer for each structure.

The use of cognitive strategies for monitoring comprehension and metacognition (thinking about thinking) must take place before, during, and after reading for true comprehension to occur. Students must be taught and provided opportunities to practice which strategy is best to use and when to apply it while reading. This is the purpose of reading-comprehension instruction. Environments that value reading and writing contain a wide variety of texts, provide opportunities and time for reading aloud and reading independently, and allow students to take risks by collaborating and questioning. These settings effectively promote the construction of meaning for readers (Keene and Zimmermann 1997; Dole, et al. 1991).

Providing Access to Complex Text

Reading Widely

Researchers agree that students need to read extensively in order to improve their ability to read (Kempe, Eriksson-Gustavsson, and Samuelsson 2011; Stanovich 1986). The more that students are exposed to high-quality texts, the better. Studies about the reading volume of advanced and struggling readers showed that fifth-grade students achieving in the 10th percentile on reading achievement tests read an average of just 1.6 minutes per day, but students achieving in the 90th percentile read 40.4 minutes (Nagy and Anderson 1984). Hence, students need the opportunity for wide reading to provide the chance to develop strong reading habits.

Part of reading widely is the exposure to a wide range of genres and types of texts. When introduced to narrative texts, students learn the literary elements that include the characters, settings, problems, and resolutions needed to understand most fictional story lines. Informational texts have multiple structures (e.g., cause-effect, compare-contrast, problem-solution, procedural writing) that readers must be introduced to for meaning-making to take place.

Robert Marzano (2004) suggests reading widely as a strategy for building academic background knowledge and that it must be intentionally planned in classroom instruction. His five-step process includes elements that his research has shown increase students' motivation and comprehension. The steps are as follows:

Step 1: Students identify topics of interest to them. This encourages student motivation by allowing for choice.

Step 2: Students identify reading material. Reading widely consists of having multiple sources available in the class library, school library, and community (both textual and human resources: books of all genres and formats, articles, websites, assistance from librarians, media specialists, teachers, and others).

Step 3: Students are provided uninterrupted time to read. Schools and classroom teachers must provide time and opportunity, based on grade level, for uninterrupted reading time. An environment that invites quiet reading time and rules for reading behavior must be established for wide reading to occur.

Step 4: Students write about or represent the information in their notebooks. Responses can be structured or free response. Visual representations of meaning can also be used.

Step 5: <u>Students interact with the information.</u> Once reading is finished, teachers must allow students to collaborate and discuss what was read. This will allow for other students to benefit from exposure to new genres or styles of text as well as introduce them to new authors they may not have known about.

There are many benefits to wide reading, including an increase in vocabulary development. Reading widely increases listening comprehension and contributes to increased reading comprehension. It can be done through independent reading or through teacher read-alouds.

Richard Allington (2003, 2006), when discussing struggling readers, writes that if students are to continue to develop as readers, they need to be readers—his guiding principle being: the more one reads, the better one reads. Teachers must help facilitate time, opportunity, and resources for reading widely in their classrooms.

Biographies, plays, and other types of writing have their own features and structures that can be taught through teacher read-alouds and direct instruction. To scaffold comprehension for students, wide reading should be encouraged through modeling. In addition, time and opportunity must be given for exploring text.

In order to better comprehend complex reading material, students need to access the text in different ways. Scaffolding complex text with read-alouds is one way that students can gain access to these types of texts. Teachers can also use shared-, guided-, mentor-, or close-reading models when teaching complex texts. In doing this, the teacher provides a rich variety of reading experiences that transition from teacher led to student and teacher led. This gradual release of responsibility (Pearson and Gallagher 1983) ensures that students move from observing the teacher read (read aloud), to reading together with the teacher and in partners (shared reading), and finally to reading on their own (independent reading).

The Importance of Reading Informational Text

In an increasingly global and information-rich society, students need to be eager to learn, seek answers, and have the necessary skills to navigate the various informational texts they will come across in school, the workplace, and everyday life. According to Stephanie Harvey and Anne Goudvis in their book *Strategies That Work: Teaching Comprehension to Enhance Understanding*, "interesting, authentic nonfiction fuels kids' curiosity, enticing them to read more, dig deeper, and search for answers to compelling questions" (2007, 156).

Aside from the long-term goal of developing skilled readers, nonfiction text also has a role in standardized testing. Because students are most often tested on their abilities to comprehend

nonfiction text, it is important to provide readers with explicit instruction for the ways in which nonfiction text is organized, along with specific skills and strategies for comprehending nonfiction text. In their article featured in *The Reading Teacher* (2000), Broaddus and Ivey suggest that familiarity with nonfiction text will add to students' depth of content-area knowledge and understanding, which may increase standardized test scores.

> *Exploring Reading* can be used with ability, mixed-ability, and skill-specific groups. The program is designed to meet the needs of these flexible groups in the classroom so the teacher can differentiate based on the needs of the student during each intervention session. The Diagnostic Assessment can be used to group students with like needs and prioritize units.

The Importance of Reading Literature

Recommending that children read "literary wholes" may seem like a contemporary criticism of basal programs, but this quotation is taken from a 1908 work on the teaching of reading in the United States, *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading* by Edmund Burke Huey. Huey's observations highlight what every parent and teacher of young children knows—children love a good story. And the discussion that extends from the story is just as important. Speaking and listening strategies are critical during preschool and primary grades, during which time oral discourse provides the primary context for learning. Numerous correlational studies indicate that frequent, high-quality reading experiences benefit preschoolers in vocabulary acquisition (Lawrence and Snow 2011). Further, primary students who are learning decoding skills benefit from discussions that set a purpose for reading, activate prior knowledge, ask and answer thoughtful questions, and encourage peer interaction. Reading fiction provides rich opportunities for oral discourse development and vocabulary acquisition.

The Importance of Intertextuality

Using fiction and nonfiction texts together is a natural way to explore themes. In an article in *The Reading Teacher*, Deanne Camp poses this question: "Given children's natural tendencies to ask questions about the world around them, why not focus on both fact and fiction to answer those questions?" (2000, 400). Fictional books can be an engaging way to introduce a topic to students; however, instruction does not need to begin with the work of fiction. Reading a nonfiction text before a fictional text on the same topic can build or strengthen background knowledge that may be required to successfully comprehend the fictional piece (Baer 2012; Soalt 2005). Additionally, students who prefer nonfiction texts will be more motivated to read a related fictional text when the informational piece is presented first (Soalt 2005). According to research by Sylvia Read, "interacting with nonnarrative texts may be the best path to overall literacy" (2005, 36).

Within each *Exploring Reading* unit, students read a nonfiction reader and three TIME For Kids text cards. The readers provide students the opportunity to read full-length nonfiction texts. The TIME For Kids text cards provide short fiction and informational text across many genres. Students learn and practice one comprehension strategy across all four texts. This creates the opportunity to interact with each comprehension strategy multiple times and in the context of multiple types of texts.

The *Great Works Instructional Guides for Literature* included in each *Exploring Reading* kit encourage teachers to engage in **modeled reading of rich, diverse texts**. The selections include a variety of characters and stories meant to be **culturally relevant and engaging** to all students.

Comprehension Strategies for Complex Text

Shared Reading of Complex Text

In the age of standards and rigorous reading materials, students need different levels of support for digging deeper into texts. Reading challenging material helps students build robust reading skills (Shanahan, Fisher, and Frey 2012). Texts with challenging complexity may be difficult to comprehend due to their concept load, structure, length, ease of readability, unfamiliar vocabulary, number of visual supports, or even the size of the font (Oczkus 2014). Teachers can help students develop the reading skills they need to encounter any text by arming them with proven comprehension strategies, scaffolded instruction, and range of texts.

Students need a set of tools to employ as they make their way through a variety of challenging texts. Experts agree that students benefit from explicit comprehension instruction using the "good reader strategies" (Duke 2005; Duke and Pearson 2002). But which strategies are the most critical to teach our students? As students explore reading, the following strategies arm them with the tools necessary for unlocking challenging texts, thinking critically, and discussing their understandings with others. The comprehension strategies include the ability to monitor comprehension, summarize, use text features, ask questions, determine meaning, make inferences, use evidence, and compare or synthesize sources.

Reading mentor texts with students and applying the strategies good readers use is an effective method for teaching comprehension strategies. The text should be a good fit for the strategy and provide students with multiple opportunities to practice the strategy.

During shared and guided reading, the teacher models the use of the strategy, students practice together in teams or pairs guided by the teacher, and then the students work independently. Later, the shared text is referred to when students encounter the strategy in other reading experiences. Shared texts help students to internalize the use of the comprehension strategies. The goal is for students to transfer the use of the strategies when they read on their own.

> *Exploring Reading* embeds many opportunities for students to write about what they are reading. Each lesson asks students to reflect orally, write about the essential question, and complete extension activities that include written responses. In addition, levels 3–8 include Think Marks, a convenient tool that students cut out and use during each unit. The Think Marks allow students to stop and jot questions, connections, and ideas as they are reading.

Complex Text and Leveled Text

Authentic reading experiences do not always fit the model of traditional leveling systems because there are so many text features to take into consideration. Consequently, students learn to read captions, headings, subheadings, text boxes, graphs, charts, and other text features that increase comprehension across a wide range of genres. Students should interact with a large amount of varied text, including "challenging instructional material with teacher guidance" (Fountas and Pinnell, 2017, 2). Many text features included in complex text cannot be leveled the way more traditional prose is. This sometimes leads to varying results when the text is viewed through different leveling models.

Fountas and Pinnell (2012) offer educators ten text characteristics with which to measure text difficulty. Adding complexity to one of these characteristics may increase the Fountas and Pinnell Guided Reading Level. Conversely, a text that is rigorous in one area but simple in another may have a lower Fountas and Pinnell Guided Reading Level.

Lexile® levels are measured with an algorithm that places greater emphasis on syntactic and semantic challenges presented by a text. Consequently, word choice and sentence structure influence the Lexile level of a text.

The Lexile® range for each *Exploring Reading* level is listed below. The range of text for each level was determined through a combination of grade-level expectations for college and career readiness and actual student performance as measured by the Lexile scores of the 25th to the 75th percentile student (Metametrics, 2009). This organization supports struggling readers as they access complex text.

Exploring Reading Texts: Lexile Levels			
Exploring Reading Level	Lexile Range		
	No lower than	Target	No higher than
1	BR	190L to 280L	530L
2	230L	420L to 580L	650L
3	360L	520L to 720L	820L
4	480L	740L to 830L	940L
5	620L	830L to 950L	1010L
6	690L	925L to 1020L	1070L
7	780L	970L to 1090L	1120L
8	820L	1010L to 1140L	1185L

Reading with Explorer Tools

Students of all ages remember strategies when teachers apply visual representations to them (Wormeli 2009). In *Exploring Reading*, the eight key strategies are represented by a backpack of Explorer tools. Read more about each strategy below.

Monitor Comprehension: To keep track of meaning as they read, good readers monitor their own progress. If they are confused about a portion of text or a word, they notice. They employ a variety of effective comprehension monitoring strategies to know when they need to pause and clarify what they are reading. When readers discuss strategies for monitoring comprehension, their reading improves (Allington 2001).

Summarize: Summarizing involves sorting main ideas and details and then putting them in a logical order. Overall comprehension and reading improves when students learn to summarize (Duke and Pearson 2002). When summarizing fiction, students need to understand theme and character. This helps them know what is important. Informational text demands that students grasp text structures and organization.

Use Text Features: When students are aware of how texts are structured, their comprehension improves (Duke and Pearson 2002). It is much easier to follow a text when the reader knows how the author has organized the information or is familiar with the genre. If the story is a mystery, then the reader hunts for clues to solve a problem. When reading informational text, it is helpful to determine whether the text is organized according to chronological order or main ideas and details. Good readers also glean information from text features, such as headings, captions, graphs, and visuals, when reading nonfiction texts to aid in their overall comprehension.

Ask Questions: Students who ask questions during reading stay engaged and experience deeper comprehension (National Reading Panel 2000). Students need opportunities to discuss and question texts with other students and to clarify what they have read. Questions help students infer and predict, wonder more about a topic, and challenge the author or text. Questioning the text forces students to dig deeper into the reading to come up with the answer.

Determine Meaning: Students constantly need to decode language as they read. As they journey through complex text, students need to employ skills to determine meaning for vocabulary and figurative language. To negotiate complex language, students must use context clues and understand shades of meaning, figurative language, and multiple-meaning words. The nuance of word meanings and connotations can present a break in meaning for the reader.

Make Inferences: Good readers combine prior knowledge with clues from the text to infer deeper meanings as they read. Readers who infer are the strongest readers (Anderson and Pearson 1984). Inferring involves visualizing, thinking about the characters' motives, feelings, themes, and the author's perspective or purpose. As students read, they ask questions and wonder along the way. The answers to their questions are often not found directly in the text but inferred when students tie details together.

Use Evidence: Students need to be able to evaluate the texts they read in a variety of ways. Students study evidence presented in a text to decide whether they agree with the author's stance and the ideas presented. They learn to distinguish fact from opinion and identify and evaluate text evidence. Good readers evaluate ideas in the text, the author's craft, and characters' actions and motives as their own understanding of the text progresses (Oczkus 2004).

Compare/Synthesize Elements: The ability to compare two texts, or to synthesize the information gained from reading one text with multiple components, is a powerhouse skill. Students need to learn to answer questions using multiple text, compare information found throughout one text, and resolve conflicting details in texts.

Multiple Reads

Marilyn Jager Adams (2009) writes, "To grow, our students must read lots, and more specifically they must read lots of 'complex' texts—texts that offer them new language, new knowledge, and new modes of thought" (182). Students must reread the same texts to focus on the different components that make it complex. Fisher and Frey's (2009, 2012b) body of research discusses the fact that to comprehend complex texts, students must read the same text multiple times with multiple purposes. Their research suggests that those purposes include reading for meaning, structure, language, and knowledge. Within these four purposes, teachers scaffold each of the multiple readings through questioning, collaboration, discussion, and writing. When discussing meaning, teachers must assess what the theme or main idea of the text is, whether there are multiple meanings of words or concepts within the reading, and whether the overall text will be understandable to the reader. This is also the time where the author's purpose is included in discussions.

The complexity of structure depends on the genre, organization, and features of the text. This could be formatting issues such as word placement on the page, graphics and captions, dialogue, or bulleted and bolded information. Vocabulary and language used in texts sometimes requires rereading to understand. The analysis of speech patterns, dialect, sentence structure, syntax, the use of figurative language, and academic vocabulary sometimes confuses

the reader and must be addressed before another read is attempted. Comprehension research for teachers by Keene and Zimmerman (1997) and Harvey and Goudvis (2007) also addresses the fourth purpose of multiple reads: building schema and background knowledge for understanding. It is critical that if readers do not have the cultural knowledge or background experiences for the text being read, they may need multiple reads. When rereading texts and using close-reading strategies, a student comes to a deeper understanding of the meaning of what he or she has read, whether through individual persistence or scaffolding done by a peer or teacher.

The brevity of the TIME For Kids text cards provides students the opportunity to read the same text multiple times. Repeated routines guide students to read the TIME For Kids text cards for the following purposes:

(Levels K–2)

- **First Read:** Apply the comprehension strategy to make meaning.
- **Second Read:** Read aloud to build fluency and notice text structure.
- **Third Read:** Remember important details and prepare for discussion.

(Levels 3–8)

- **First Read:** Apply the comprehension strategy to make meaning.
- **Second Read:** Annotate the text to focus on language, author's craft, and deeper meanings.
- **Third Read:** Analyze text structure and prepare for discussion.

Engaging Higher-Order Thinking Skills

Learning to Read and Reading to Learn

Foundational skills, under the context of learning to read, include a basic understanding of print awareness, such as reading left to right and top to bottom, along with decoding words (Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborn 2001). Once students have mastered the basics of identifying and calling out words, they move into what is often referred to as *reading to learn*. This involves simultaneously choosing and using comprehension strategies and metacognition as students interact with text (Harvey and Goudvis 2007; Keene and Zimmerman 1997).

No matter what end of the spectrum students are on in their reading lives, teachers must intentionally incorporate higher-order thinking skills into their instruction. Then, with the gradual release of responsibility and scaffolding, students will begin to explore text more deeply, and expand their reading choices into helping them understand the world they reside in, and problem solve.

Thinking Through Discussion

Jim Burke (2001), in *Illuminating Texts*, discusses the confusion of students as they encounter text in society today. They must navigate biased news sources and unfiltered social media reports. Students in an ever-changing global society must be taught to read critically, think through the words they see and hear, and evaluate the evidence provided in the text by the author. This can happen as they simultaneously learn to read. Teachers can help students use higher-order skills and critical thinking from an early age by engaging students in asking questions and having collaborative discussions.

According to Harvey and Daniels (2009), "few kids can actually demonstrate their understanding of a concept if they have not been taught to think about the information" (28). They go on to write that "finding information means little if students cannot evaluate the usefulness of the information" (102). They, like Burke, believe that teachers must have students talking about what they are reading and working with others to develop the skills necessary to understand the complex text they will encounter as they become more thoughtful readers.

If teachers start discussions with students at a young age when reading aloud and discussing texts in whole group contexts, students will begin to think about these strategies at a higher level as they begin to read independently to gain new knowledge.

> *Exploring Reading* links fiction and nonfiction text through themes, called "big ideas." These ideas are explored in each level as "essential questions." The big ideas and essential questions increase in sophistication across the levels.

Using Technology to Improve Reading

It is important to integrate technology into purposeful instructional objectives. Use of an exciting new device is not the objective. For example, if students are to retell a complex narrative story, the technology that is integrated into the lesson should support students in retelling. Students can word process their stories, adding digital illustrations and voice recordings. These tools will add more detail to their work. Alternatively, groups of students can work together to make their own story retellings into movies.

Research takes on an enriched form when using the Internet. Even younger children can be taught to search for information from reliable sources, which they can then use to create digital presentations, reports, and stories.

In addition to these strategies, teachers can apply the SAMR model (Puentedura 2009) to create lessons and assignments that integrate technology in meaningful ways. SAMR stands for *substitution*, *augmentation*, *modification*, and *redefinition*. To use this model, imagine having the students write stories. Traditionally, they would write with papers and pencils. Applying SAMR, the assignment would change to a story written with a word processor (substitution), adding digital illustrations (augmentation), adding a movie clip of student commentary or dramatization (modification), and changing the assignment altogether by having students use presentation software or creating digital story maps (redefinition).

Using Interactiv-eBooks

Interactiv-eBooks offer educators the unique opportunity to integrate technology into their curriculum for reading or content-area literacy instruction. Interactiv-eBooks guide students toward independent reading while exploring core concepts.

Teachers can determine whether to use Interactiv-eBooks in place of the print version of books or to use them as a supplement. The implementation of Interactiv-eBooks will depend on the electronic resources available to both teachers and students (e.g., the availability of a projector or the number of student devices) and the method of use (e.g., whole-class, small-group, or individual-learning opportunities).

Interactiv-eBooks can enhance student learning in a variety of instructional settings, support English language acquisition, and further content and literacy learning. They include annotation tools, embedded audio recordings to model language and intonation, and recording tools for fluency practice. They are also perfect for lessons on an interactive whiteboard, giving teachers opportunities to use interactive whiteboard tools in addition to those provided in the Interactiv-eBooks. Each Interactiv-eBook includes multiple interactive activities that can be used to strengthen and support student acquisition of essential concepts. Using Interactiv-eBooks in conjunction with print books allows teachers to demonstrate and model reading skills and strategies or teach content using the interactive features while students read and follow along in their own printed texts.

The possibilities to integrate technology into reading and writing are endless. Be sure to tap into the ideas of the digital natives for a whole new level of creativity.

Fluency and Comprehension

Reading Fluently

Fluency is the ability to orally read text with accuracy (without error), automaticity (quick and accurate recognition, or decoding, of words and phrases), and prosody (appropriate expression). It includes being able to break words into meaningful phrases known as *chunking*. Fluent oral reading allows students to focus on comprehension rather than individual word reading. Fluency is important during reading for several reasons. One of the top reasons is that fluent reading frees up cognitive space necessary for text comprehension and meaning making. In 1998, Reid Lyon stated that teachers should "consider that a reader has only so much attention and memory capacity. If beginning readers read the words in a laborious, inefficient manner, they cannot remember what they read, much less relate the ideas to their background knowledge. Thus, the ultimate goal of reading instruction—for children to understand and enjoy what they read—will not be achieved" (16).

Vaughn and Linan-Thompson's (2004) research focuses on the importance of fluency instruction. They state that it helps young children achieve automatic letter/sound/word recognition, transition from word-by-word reading to meaningful phrase reading that more closely resembles oral language, comprehend and interpret text, and focus attention primarily on meaning. Their research shows that oral reading fluency (ORF) norms are highly indicative of reading comprehension ability.

A seminal research study by Timothy Rasinski (2003, 2005, 2006) over the years has focused on the importance of fluency to comprehension. As word reading becomes automatic, students become fluent and can focus on comprehension (Rasinski 2003). In order to engage in comprehension monitoring or self-questioning during reading, students need to be able to attend to what they are reading instead of spending time on struggling over high-frequency sight words or trying to decode words. Reading fluency provides students with the attention to text that they require in order to be successful with text comprehension.

Explicit instruction in fluency can provide the necessary bridge between word identification and comprehension. A student's ability to comprehend written text has been proven to be directly influenced by their word-recognition skills and their effortless fluent reading (Rasinski 2006). Fluency instruction is what allows teachers to move students from word calling to understanding. Fluency is the bridge between decoding and comprehension.

Exploring Reading levels K–2 include fluency annotation activities. The teacher guides students to mark elements in the text that affect how it should be read. For example, in a level 2 lesson, students circle all the *agree* and *disagree* words, then read the two arguments with appropriate expression.

Differentiating for Diverse Learners

Culturally Responsive Instruction

Cultural and Linguistic Responsiveness as Validating, Affirming, Building, and Bridging

The definition and traits of cultural and linguistic responsiveness or culturally-relevant teaching as it is traditionally named, have been fine-tuned and updated since Ladson- Billings (1995) and Geneva Gay (2000) wrote seminal works that brought CLR to the nation's attention. Variations of CLR include culturally responsive pedagogy, culturally relevant teaching, and cultural proficiency (Hollie 2012). At its core, CLR pushes teachers to recognize their own cultures and the cultures of their students. They can then use that cultural knowledge to make learning experiences more relevant to and effective for all students (Au 2009; Gay 2010; Hollie 2012).

Validate and Affirm (VA)

CLR is the validating and affirming of cultural and linguistic behaviors of all students and the building and bridging of those behaviors to success in academia and mainstream culture (Hollie 2016). To validate and affirm means making legitimate and positive that which institutional knowledge, historically speaking, and mainstream media have made illegitimate and negative about the cultures and languages of certain student populations. Some students have been told that their cultural and linguistic behaviors are bad, incorrect, insubordinate, disrespectful, and disruptive. Culturally-responsive educators refute that narrative when talking to, relating to, and teaching students.

In CLR, when students are being who they are culturally and linguistically, the teacher does not speak negatively or punitively to them. Instead, they use words that demonstrate understanding and empathy is used. Teachers can use these opportunities to build relationships with students. Most significantly, students are taught in a way that responds to their cultural and linguistic behaviors, such as socio-centrism, communalism, and verbal overlapping (Hollie 2015). The focus of CLR in this curriculum is on how to teach to these cultural and linguistic behaviors.

Build and Bridge (BB)

An equal part of validating and affirming is building and bridging. This is where the focus on school culture or traditional behaviors occur. These behaviors are reinforced with activities that require expected behaviors for traditional academic settings and in mainstream

environments, such as taking turns, individualism (independent work), and written (versus verbal) responding. In CLR, there should be a balance of validating and affirming activities and building and bridging activities. Ultimately, the goal is for all students to learn situational appropriateness, which is determining what is the most appropriate cultural and linguistic behavior for the situation and to do so without losing one's cultural and linguistic self in the process. Andy Molinsky (2013) calls situational appropriateness Global Dexterity, which means learning to adapt behavior across cultures.

The Purpose of Cultural and Linguistic Responsiveness

The main reason CLR is needed in everyday teaching is because in every classroom it can be anticipated, without hesitation, that there will be students who will need to be taught differently. CLR represents that difference. Simply, cultural responsiveness is needed because diversity in teaching methods is needed to increase the probability of reaching all students, no matter their race, gender, age, economic level, religion, orientation, or ethnic identity (Delpit, 1995; Hammond 2015).

> The CLR call-outs in *Exploring Reading* will support teachers to be culturally responsive to every student in becoming a better reader. The CLR activities have been strategically selected to support validating, affirming, building, and bridging every lesson.

English Learner Support

Second Language Learning

Language is a complex, developmental process that differs from one student to another. Variations stem from a student's range of cultural, social, academic, and life experiences. As students interact with the world they live in, they are exposed to language and the complexities of what constitutes a language. Language is how people communicate. This includes listening to language to receive messages, speaking with others to transmit a message, reading language to access knowledge and expressing one's ideas, and learning through oral and written forms. Language as a form of communication is compounded by the lived experiences of children (Mora-Flores 2008). English learners interact with dominant and subordinate language communities, including their families, school groups, and social communities. Each group shares its own language unique to the identity of the group, such as sports teams, neighborhood friends, and church groups. The lived experiences of students influence their ongoing language development in both primary and second languages.

The diversity of English learners makes the language development process unique for each

student. However, there are notable markers that can be identified as students progress from simple communication in a second language to a sophisticated articulation of academic language. Common patterns of language used as students progress through key developmental stages of language development are described below.

In *Exploring Reading*, **Beginner or Intermediate Language Learners** refers to students who are relatively new to the English language and have not yet mastered conversational English. This level may be described in some regions as: beginning and early intermediate; levels 1 and 2 (on a five-point scale); or levels 1, 2, and 3 (on a six-point scale).

Intermediate or Advanced Language Learners refers to more experienced speakers of English. This level may be described in some regions as: early advanced and advanced; levels 3, 4, and 5 (on a five-point scale); or levels 4, 5, and 6 (on a six-point scale). The Intermediate or Advanced group can also include students whose primary language is English but who struggle with academic language.

Teachers should review both levels of English learner supports in each *Exploring Reading* lesson to choose the differentiation options that best fit the needs of their specific students.

Emerging

English learners at the emerging stages of second language acquisition come into the language experience as effective communicators in primary languages other than English. The language process does not begin at this stage, but the emergence of a bilingual child can be noted here. English learners are exposed and introduced to new languages, and acquisition begins immediately. At this stage, English learners can express their needs and ideas through **gestures** and **learned words and phrases**. They engage in **simple, face-to-face conversations around familiar topics**. They acquire language quickly and move through the emerging stage into simple sentences to express their thinking and learning. Visuals help them both access information and demonstrate their ideas. Their understanding of the difference between their native language and English is emerging as they are becoming aware of **connections and differences across languages**. English learners are speaking and writing in longer stretches of language that still contain frequent errors but are able to use **memorized and acquired vocabulary and syntax** to begin to communicate their ideas with **greater fluency**.

Intermediate

Learned language is progressing quickly at this stage where English learners are able to speak in phrases and short sentences that draw on **learned and expanded vocabulary**. They are able to use **language across content areas** and **comprehend text** at a level of strategic thinking, forming personal opinions and ideas, and **referencing the text** as evidence to their thinking (Hess 2013). English learners are deconstructing more complex language and discourses, such as **writing across written genres** and **drawing meaning from complex texts**. They develop an

awareness that language is used for a variety of purposes, and that the context and audience may change language patterns and vocabulary. Accessing complex texts and writing for various purposes is supported with **teacher scaffolds and explicit presentations of language**. Though they are using longer stretches of discourse, written and oral, they will continue to make frequent errors but have built **confidence** in their knowledge of the English language and its proper use.

Seminal research on second-language acquisition by Jim Cummins (1981) identifies a level of language fluency where English learners acquire a **conversational level of fluency**, a level of language acquisition he referred to as **Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)**. At an intermediate level of language acquisition, students can be seen and heard using English fluently when engaging with peers and engaging in familiar, everyday contexts in English. As students progress through the Intermediate stage, though they **sound fluent in familiar contexts**, they continue to need high levels of **support in accessing and producing academic English**. As students in this level interact with complex text and produce a range of written discourse, they are still in need of explicit language support across the curriculum.

Advanced/Bridging

Jim Cummins (1981) expands on the notion of BICS to establish a more sophisticated level of language whereby English learners are developing greater fluency in using language for academic purposes. As a level of language development where students are able to **access, interpret, and produce academic English**, Cummins noted the concept of **Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)**. An English learner with strong CALP demonstrates a level of English fluency where they can read, comprehend, understand, and write in English within a **range of academic purposes**. Students at the advanced level are continuing to access and develop academic English and gain a strong understanding that language has a time and a place for usage that is influenced by **purpose, audience, and context**. They learn, recall, and use **discipline-specific vocabulary** while continuing to build academic vocabulary to connect their ideas and express more abstract, conceptual thoughts. Though students may continue to make errors at this stage, they are errors that do not interfere with meaning. Students can **self-monitor** and adjust oral and written language as they continue to develop their skills. English learners at this stage are working toward a conceptualization of academic English that includes the challenging features of language as it is used within the academic disciplines of school (DiCerbo et al. 2014).

The Importance of Oral Language and Discussion

Talk is a powerful tool when developing language. Talk gives students opportunities to try out language, make errors, self-monitor, and fix their language to communicate effectively. As with any new skill the body undertakes, there is a great need to practice and to have multiple and varied opportunities to use the skill. When English learners are provided an opportunity to use language, orally and in written form, they are able to practice the act of transferring their thinking into understood expressions of their thinking. As important as talk is for English learners to develop fluency, it should be coupled with language interactions. Talk alone will not provide students with the oral rehearsals that demonstrate the complexities of becoming fluent in a language. Students need to use language for authentic purposes where they exchange language with others through oral discussions. Talking with others gives students immediate feedback to know whether their ideas are being understood and their use of language was effective. Without this exchange, students miss out on valuable feedback to develop their self-monitoring skills (Swain 1985). Discussions further offer students opportunities to learn from one another, both in ideas as well as language. To hear other language models and gain greater exposure to how people think and how those ideas can be translated into comprehensible output furthers the language development process.

The exchange of language exposes students to different discourse patterns. When English learners engage in discussions with others, they are developing what Ervin-Tripp (1991) refers to as *linguistic capital* for forms of language, such as negotiating, persuading, questioning, and encouraging. What must be coupled with these language exchanges and authentic oral discourse is access to language supports that students can use to successfully engage in the discussion. Saunders, Goldenberg, and Marcelletti (2013) found that "communication and meaning should be used to motivate and facilitate second-language learners' acquisition and use of targeted language functions and forms" (21). They emphasize that students should be encouraged to engage in meaningful exchanges but need ongoing explicit support to do so.

Accessing Complex Text

Complex texts are rich in language. The syntax, vocabulary, functions, and forms of language are so diverse within complex texts that it offers English learners access to strong language models. When complex texts are used with English learners, the quality of language used is stronger, as are the ideas presented. For example, when specific vocabulary is used, students gain a deeper understanding of the content at hand. The complexities of text in language, content, and ideas provide access to academic English, but it can also present challenges for English learners as the language patterns, words, and usage may be unfamiliar. English learners need support in order to access the information presented through rich language if they are to comprehend it. Without meaning, thinking and language are interrupted. If

students are lost in the language, they cannot access the content and vice versa. To support English learners' access to complex text, Lily Wong Filmore and Charles J. Filmore (2012) recommend taking time to look deeply at shorter stretches of language in a complex text. Deconstructing language for English learners helps them comprehend what they are reading and, in turn, produce language to explain their thinking.

In each unit of *Exploring Reading*, English learners engage with and extend their learning of language through How Words Work. These activities highlight vocabulary words, figurative language, and roots.

Creating a Language-Rich Environment

Learning is influenced by affective factors that have the potential to create barriers to acquiring new knowledge. When developing language, the environment must be one in which an English learner feels comfortable enough to try out language. As an English learner develops a second language, he or she will make errors. Making errors is part of a natural language development process. If students are to feel successful in the language learning process, the classroom environment must be one of respect, support, and encouragement from all members of the class and school community.

Access to peers who engage in discussions, as well as exemplars in the environment, facilitate language learning. The classroom must have visual and aesthetic resources to which students can refer when trying to draw meaning from text and oral language (Mora-Flores 2012). Word walls that include both academic and discipline-specific vocabulary, labeled items around the room, and sentence frames that guide students' use of language can have a positive impact on language learning.

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